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Comparative Typology of the Modern English, Russian and Azerbaijani Languages

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Comparative Typology of the English, Russian and Azerbaijani Languages

A Resource Book for Masters of the Azerbaijan University of Languages

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Comparative Typology of the English, Russian and Azerbaijani Languages is very actual band useful for research as English - Global language together with Russian is international, whereas the Azerbaijani language is our state and native language.

Comparative Typology, as the notion itself reveals, represents a linguistic subject of typology based on the method of comparison. Like typology proper Comparative typology also aims at establishing the most general structural types of languages on their dominant or common phonetically, morphological, lexical and syntactical features.

Comparative Typology may equally treat dominant or common features only, as well as divergent features only, which are found in languages of the same structural type (synthetic, analytical, agglutinative, etc) or in languages of the different structural types, (synthetic and analytical, agglutinative and incorporative, etc).

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P R E F A C E

Everything is relative.
Всё познаётся в сравнении.
Həyatda hər şey müqayisə ilə ölçülür.

Dear Students of the Azerbaijan University of Languages, presented to your attention the "Comparative Typology of the Modern English, Russian and Azerbaijani Languages" in former times was the Compulsory Subject, but nowadays it is selective subject and appropriately it is a Resource Book today.

Suggested to your attention this monograph is devoted to the learning of the specific peculiarities of the qualitative perfection of foreign and native languages teaching, not only the description, analysis, classification and application of the ways of explaining, but also to the investigation of the appropriate level of the effective teaching of the non-cognate languages, taking into a consideration an intensive development of the intercultural communication in the globalized world.

Each book does not answer questions all the time, it itself asks some questions as well. The books that asks many questions are almost widening internally, make you think more and find answers to the new questions arising beyond the limits of the book. From this point of view, inside such books there are still books that are not written yet but are necessary, that are seeking answers to your new questions and creating additional questions.

The monograph is written for the modern foreign language teachers, linguists, students, masters, postgraduates, respondents, scientists and all people who is interested in foreign languages' learning due to the interculral communication while the process of globalization and its influence on the national language, culture and consciousness. It is also useful mean for the specialists of the Lexicology, Grammar,

Stylistics, Pragmatics, Logic, Pedagogics, Psychology, Linqvoculturology, Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Linqvodidactics.

Up to now the various comparative historic and comparative typological monographs were brought out. But we must point out the difference between typological, historic and comparative linguistics.

Historical Linguistics, is also called Diachronic Linguistics, is the study of language change. It has five main concerns:

a) To describe and account for observed changes in particular languages;

b) To reconstruct the pre-history of languages and determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families (comparative linguistics);

c) To develop general theories about how and why language changes;

d) To describe the history of speech communities;

e) To study the history of words.

Typological Linguistics is a subfield of Linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural features. Its aim is to describe and explain the structural diversity of the world's languages; a wide range of the directions of Linguistic typology; the peculiarities of the language universals; the phonological, lexical and syntactical typologies.

We distinguish between Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Linguistics.

Comparative Linguistics compares and contrasts genetically-related languages diachronically, whereas **Contrastive Linguistics** compares and contrasts languages which are genetically or culturally related. Comparative Linguistics looks for commonalities and similiarities. Contrastive Linguistics looks at divergence and differentiation.

It is necessary to mention that we need Contrastive Linguistics for Language Learning and Language Teaching as well as Translation. **Contrastive Linguistics** is a part of **Applied Linguistics**.

Both Comparative and Contrastive Linguistics compare and contrast languages, but the scope, goals, and methods of each are different. The goals of Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Linguistics are different. Comparative Linguistics mainly informs the linguistic theory in its diachronic aspects, though it may inform the linguistic theory in some way. Comparative Linguistics is more concerned with comparing languages especially from a historical perspective. Contrastive Linguistics has pedagogical goals in the field of translation and second language acquisition.

Language typology aims at mapping out the space and limits of variation between languages irrespective of their genetic affiliation. Even though the scope of this enterprise is in principle all-embracing, it is usually a representative sample of the world's (7000 or so) languages that is taken as an empirical basis for a typological study.

Comparative Linguistics (originally **Comparative Philology**) is a branch of Linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.

It aims to construct Language Families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts.

A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerised hypothesis testing. Such methods have gone through a long process of development.

Comparative linguistics is that branch of one, which deals with the study of languages in terms of their history, relatedness, and families and constructs new forms.

Summarizing all the above-said it is necessary to emphasize that the modern teaching of the Comparative Typology of the Modern Azerbaijani, English and

Russian Languages during intercultural communication in the globalist world is very actual today.

Presented to Your attention material is Lectures on the Comparative Typology of the Native and Foreign Languages which are non-kindred languages.

Course Description:

Classification of the main essential features of the non-kindred languages, the most important characteristics and regularities are the subject of comparative typology. The final aims of comparative typology are: to identify and classify accordingly the main isomorphic and allomorphic features characteristic of languages under investigation; to draw from these common or divergent features respectively the isomorphic regularities and the allomorphic singularities in the languages contrasted; to establish on the basis of the obtained isomorphic features the typical language structures and the types of languages; to perform on the basis of the obtained practical data a truly scientific classification of the existing languages of the world; to establish on this basis the universal features - phenomena, which pertain to each single language of the world.

Course Outline:

The course consists of **thirty** topics, which represent four distinct blocks of the phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical systems.

Course Overview:

This syllabus provides a general outline proposal for creating courses for the II-year Masters to provide them with comprehensive knowledge of the Comparative Typology of the Native and Foreign Languages.

Comparative Typology intended to help you think strategically about common and different features in the compared non-cognate languages.

60 hours total comprised of theoretical and practical applications.

Course Objectives:

Through significant grammar practice that combines both formal and communicative approaches, we aim for students:

* To learn the aspects of typological investigations, the branches of language typology, the levels of typological studies, the methods of typological analysis.

* To investigate the typology of the phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical systems.

***** To improve students' linguistic and communicative competence that relates to their knowledge of structural language units and their functioning in speech.

***** To increase understanding of language resources and structures.

* To come to class having done the assignments. Besides, they will demonstrate mastery of class material through a variety of exercises and quizzes.

Individual Works:

Students will acquire and use the knowledge and techniques necessary for the typological analysis of the languages, i.e. find and interpret language phenomena of different levels of the language structure, which carry some additional information of the emotive, logical or evaluative types, all serving to enrich, deepen, and clarify thelanguage; likewise analyze the Azerbaijani, English and American, Russian writers' individual style separately, i.e. selection, or deliberate choice of language, and the ways the chosen elements are treated, in the form of presentation.

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of the course the students should be able to:

* know various approaches to typological investigations of the Azerbaijani, English and Russian languages as non-cognate;

* discuss the concepts of various different typological approaches critically;
* define the different typological classifications of the unrelated languages;
* choose units of different levels of the language in accordance with appropriate linguistic contexts;
* be philologically competent to apply linguistic, especially typological analysis to different levels of the language.

Instructional Methods:

Methods of instruction might include the following:

1. Drills and question-answer sessions.

2. Frequent quizzes and objective tests which help students to build skills and understanding in the areas of greatest need.

GENERAL NOTES on the COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY of the MODERN ENGLISH, RUSSIAN and AZERBAIJANI LANGUAGES

The flowing current events in the policy of modern world show us that the activity of the countries and international organizations in the international relations includes not only the spheres of policy and economy, but at the same time also of culture.

Intercultural communication between peoples is an integral attribute of the human society development. Not a single country, even the one considered most powerful in political and economic aspect, can meet cultural and aesthetic requests and needs of the humankind without applying to the world cultural heritage, spiritual heritage of other countries and peoples.

The modern world is developing towards globalization. In this regard, the issues about the role and the place of intercultural communication become an integral part of life both the humankind in general, as well as for the individual.

Before getting into these issues we need to understand the way students perceive the term “globalization”. This term is perceived in a number of ways: “the unity of capital”, “disappearing of borders between nations and increasing the international division of labour”, “the similarity of values among different cultures”, “everybody and everything together”.

As it can be noticed from the results of our survey, which we held our academic group recently, the majority of students find globalization as the unity in economic, political and cultural aspects. Taking such kind of point view into consideration, we can conclude that international communication plays a great role in the process of globalization.

Globalization represents a process of pervasive force which increases global connectivity and interdependence in the realms of life such as technology, economics,

politics, and cultures. Though the process of globalization is more popular in its economic sense where it is seen as a course of unification of global patterns of production and consumption. But, equally in its technological, political, and social dimensions, globalization is an overwhelming force across landscapes of cultures.

Another trait that is integral to globalization is the possibility and availability of instant information about everything almost everywhere. As a result, boundaries have dissolved and there seems to be few cultural frontiers that are immune from external interference.

Hence, the areas where cultures previously exercised influence are now intruded on by strong external and dynamic influences, which occasion social cultural changes. This intrusion whittles down the hegemonies of cultures and equally endanger their languages.

A very typical instance of language endangerment, resulting from globalization, can be seen in the linguistic interaction between the developed world with mainstream languages, and the developing world with weak languages. The former has an undisputably high level of economic development evident in their optimal industrial capacity for the production of goods and services. Added to the economic prowess, is technological and political capitals.

In other words, the sociolinguistic behaviour that characterizes global interaction, favors the acquisition and expansion of the mainstream languages, while the weak and less empowered languages are increasingly beleaguered and endangered. Consequently, the route of globalization is littered with dying languages.

Globalization processes such as immigration and internationalization lead to contact situations in which different people with their distinct languages and cultures meet. Such forms of contact have been labeled “super-diversity” and our research can be described as the study of language and culture in the context of super-diversity.

These contacts have consequences at a content level, i.e., for the languages and cultures involved, at an individual level, i.e., for the users of these languages and

cultures, and at an institutional level, i.e., for the societal structures in which language and culture contact is situated.

Globalization processes and their outcome, super-diversity, on the one hand pose a theoretical challenge: theoretical and methodological models have to be revised in view of an increasing knowledge on scaling processes, worldwide movements of people, goods, ideas, and a growing influence of telecommunication and new media in the communicative and cultural landscape.

On the other hand, they also pose a descriptive challenge: these processes, movements and influences are not yet sufficiently understood and have to be analyzed in detail using a variety of research methodologies in a variety of sites and contexts, at the crossroads of science and society, and preferably at a world-wide scale.

There are three main research domains: language and culture contact; language and literacy acquisition; language, culture, ideology and policy.

With respect to language there is special attention for processes of language mixing, code switching, language change and the emergence of new varieties, registers or hybrid codes. A thorough study of these phenomena that as a consequence of globalization show more speed and scope at the same time is a priority. Research approaches in this field include sociolinguistics, linguistic-anthropological and cognitive linguistic analysis.

The acquisition of language and literacy focuses on formal (educational) as well as informal contexts (via popular culture, new media, peer groups, etc.). Especially the way in which the acquisition of language and literacy is influenced by globalization processes needs ongoing monitoring and analysis. Increased and diversified migration processes lead to new forms of language and literacy acquisition that are often considered problematic in formal contexts.

The influence of new technologies leads to a growing role for mediation and multimodality in using language and literacy. Research methodologies in this domain include the “new literacies” approach and studies of new media as well as semiotic,

sociolinguistic, linguistic-anthropological, psychological and cognitive linguistic analysis.

In the domain of "language – culture – ideology – policy" special attention is given to ways in which – in a context of globalization – new questions with respect to the relationship between language, culture and identity come into existence, and how these questions are also discursively shaped in media, policy and popular culture.

A special field of attention here is the issue of new forms of normatively, and attention is also given to the context of schooling in which legitimate forms of language and culture in a broad sense are defined, canonized and passed on to next generations. Research methodologies in this domain include critical discourse analysis, policy analysis, historical and contemporary document analysis and historical analysis.

Language – the most commonplace of all human possessions, is possibly the most complex and the most interesting. Since it is an instrument for human's communications with each other, the growth and development of their talents, causing creativity, innovation, and novelty, exchanging and transferring their experiences, and on the whole, for formation of society. Concern with language is not new.

From the earliest recorded history, there is evidence that people investigated language. Many of the assumptions, theories and goals of modern linguistics find their origin in past centuries. However, this study aims to investigate whether there is any relationship between language and culture, and if so, what this relationship is. To achieve the aims of this study, some of the main theories which can be related to the goal are introduced and explained.

Undoubtedly, there is a very close relationship between language and culture. That is, culture has direct effect on language. Language and culture are closely correlated.

The problem of the relationship between language, culture and thought bothered many linguists and philosophers since ancient time.

The interrelationship between a language and what a society cognizes, is a clear anthropological institution explicable through ethnocultural and ethnolinguistic prisms.

Ethnoculturally, a language is an embodiment of a society's upheld and undiluted values as well as their diverse ways. Ethnolinguistically, a language is subject to the influence of a culture and vice-versa, i.e., both language and culture co-determine each other.

Investigating this problem we had to give the definition of language and culture. Language is generally accepted as a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication. And there is a most widely accepted definition of culture given by ***Lionel Davis***: "Culture is the total accumulation of beliefs, customs, values, behaviors, institutions and communication patterns that are shared, learned and passed down through the generation in an identifiable group of people".

And also the word "culture" has several other related senses. They are important to be mentioned. These senses can be briefly explained as follows:

First of all, there is the sense in which culture is more or less synonymous with civilization and, in an older and extreme formulation of the contrast, opposed to "barbarism". This is the sense that is operative in English, in the adjective "cultured". It rests ultimately upon the classical conception of what constitutes excellence in art, literature, manners and social institutions.

Revived by the Renaissance humanists, the classical conception was emphasized by thinkers of the XVIII-th century Enlightenment and associated by them with their view of human history as progress and self-development.

The view of history was challenged, as were many of the ideas of the Enlightenment, by ***Johann Gottfried Herder***, who said of the German equivalent of "culture": "nothing is more indeterminate than this word and nothing is more deceptive than its application to all nations and periods" (Williams, 1983, p.79).

In this connection it is interesting to note that the expression “language de culture” literally “language of culture” is commonly employed by French-speaking scholars to distinguish what are held to be culturally more advanced from culturally less advanced languages. “Kultursprache” is similarly used in German. Although there is no accepted equivalent in English, the attitude on which the use of such expression rests is no less common in English-speaking societies. Most linguists nowadays take the view that there are no primitive languages.

The word “culture” is to be interpreted not in its classical sense, but in what might be described loosely as its anthropological sense. In fact, this is the sense in which Herder proposed that the term should be used, but it was not until about eighty years later that anthropologists writing in English adopted this usage.

In this second sense, culture is employed without any implication of unilinear human progress from barbarism to civilization and without a prior value being made as to the aesthetic or intellectual quality of a particular society’s art, literature, institutions and so on. In this sense of the term, which has spread from anthropology to the other social sciences, every society has its own culture; and different subgroups within a society may have their own distinctive subculture.

J.G.Herder’s promotion of the word “culture” in this sense was bound up with this thesis of the interdependence of language and thought, on the one hand, and on the other, with his view that a nation’s language and culture were manifestations of its distinctive national spirit or mind.

Indeed, many other writers in the Romantic Movement had similar ideas. This is one strand in the complex historical development of the so-called ***Sapir-Whorf*** hypothesis, which dominated all discussion of language and culture, as it did of language and thought, a generation ago.

Although the word “culture” is now widely employed in the social sciences, and especially by anthropologists, in the sense that has just been identified, it can be defined, technically, in several different ways.

Culture may be described as socially acquired knowledge, to be precise, as the knowledge that someone has by virtue of his being a member of a particular society. Two points must be made here about the use of the word “knowledge”.

First, it is to be understood as covering both practical and prepositional knowledge: both knowing how to do something and knowing that something is or is not so.

Second, as far as prepositional knowledge is concerned, it is the fact that something is held to be true that counts, not its actual truth or falsity. Furthermore, in relation to most, if not all, cultures we must allow for different kinds or levels of truth, such that for example the truth of a religious or mythological statement is evaluated differently from that of a straightforward factual report.

Looking from this point of view, science itself is a part of culture. And in discussion of the relationship between language and culture no priority should be given to scientific knowledge over common sense knowledge or even superstition.

It is customary to draw a distinction between culture and biological transmission. As far as language is concerned, it is quite possible that there is an innate language-acquisition faculty. Whether or not this is so, there is no doubt that one’s knowledge of one’s native language is culturally transmitted: it is acquired, though not necessarily learned, by virtue of one’s membership of a particular society.

Moreover, even if there is a genetically transmitted language-faculty, this cannot result in the acquisition and knowledge of a language unless the data upon which the language-faculty operates are supplied by the society in which the child is growing up and, arguably, in conditions which do not seriously affect the child’s cognitive and emotional development. This means that the cultural and the biological in language are interdependent.

The definitions of language and culture imply that the two are closely connected to each other. On one hand, culture seems so inclusive, it permeates almost every

aspect of human life including languages people use. On the other hand, when people need to share a culture, they communicate through language.

Indeed, it will be obvious, on reflection that one's linguistic competence, regardless of its biological basis, comes within the scope of our definition of culture. And it may very well be that other kinds of socially acquired knowledge including myth, religious belief and so on - have as much of a species – specific biological basis as language does. This point should be borne in mind when one is considering the acquisition and structure of language in terms of the opposition between the biological and the cultural.

In fact, it is no longer possible to think in terms of a sharp distinction between nature and nurture. Herder talks about the interdependence of language and thought. Humboldt comes closer to linguistic determinism.

The ***Sapir-Whorf*** hypothesis, as it is usually presented, combines linguistic determinism (language determines thought) with linguistic relativity as there is no limit to the structural diversity of languages.

Surely, language plays a role in the process of thinking. As language is human, it is vehicle for human cultural expression. While culture is a people's way of life, language is the encapsulator of that way of life. As features of human society intertwined in the way they render social utility to members of a society, it will be quite difficult to make sense of the notions of language and culture in the absence of human existence.

What makes language central to human existence is its capacity to serve both as a trajectory and a repository of their cultural experience, practices and history. Against the background of being a carrier of culture and its contents, language is an identity marker. It marks the identity of its speakers in at least two ways.

First, speakers use it to code and conceptualize their interpersonal relationships. Second, speakers use language to reflect the social conditions and practices sanctioned by them. A third characteristic of language is its structural nature. In other

words, it is built up and used in a manner that follows a string of rules called grammar. The following of grammatical rules is important to determine correct use of language and vice versa.

Language as a game of communication enables people to, among other things, share ideas, make things explicit and play the game of giving and asking for reason. Language is effective in this game because it has the capacity to denote and connote. That is, it has meaning and applies to things cognized by a society.

Altogether, the prisms show a language as a tool for chronotopic representations for a society. Specifically, it is a society's device to express its worldviews. It also helps a society to cope with new and contingent experiences. In essence, a language is a social construct that evolves into a means for conveying shared socio-cultural experiences of a community. This is why it is an indispensable element of culture.

But the contemporary reality shows that the ethno-linguistic cum ethno-cultural situation has been vitiated by a process called globalization – a high level of interaction between societies. In other words, the ethno-linguistic situation where every society seems coherent in both culture and language; where every culture has its own cultural domain, so to say, and its own language enjoys dominion, hardly exists.

The era where every culture spoke its own language; met its own cultural needs; regulated its people's interpersonal relationships and conditioned their socio-economic circumstances - is past.

The possibility for any society to remain as an ethno-linguistic enclave, with a minimal interaction with others is diminishing by the day. The minimalist-interactionist relationship between societies is vanishing as a result of globalization. With time, it will be difficult to find any one individual going through life in a monolingual environment, i.e., having just one ethno-linguistic identity.

Particular languages are associated with particular cultures. The languages provide the key to the associated cultures, and especially to their literature. The languages themselves cannot be fully understood otherwise than in the context of the

cultures in which they are inextricably embedded. Subsequently, language and culture are studied together. It happens so that English and the other major languages of Europe are, in much respect, highly unrepresentative of the languages of the world. English, in particular, has been used in the administration of an empire of great cultural diversity.

It is spoken as a native language by members of many different ethnic groups and adherents of many religions, living in many parts of the world. It is widely employed by anthropologists, missioners and writers of all kinds, not only in the description of every known society, but also in novels, plays, etc., which have their setting in countries and societies in which English is not normally spoken.

The above mentioned points indicate that Azerbaijani, English and Russian to an even greater extent than other European languages has been enlarged and modified by loan-translation in almost every area of its vocabulary. The correlation between the semantic structure of English and the cultures of its native speakers are therefore much more complex and diverse than are the correlations between language and culture in the vast majority of human societies. It is also much easier for a native speaker of English or one of the major languages of Europe to think that all human languages are inter-translatable than it would be for a speaker of most other languages.

It is necessary to mention that the lexicon is the most changed aspect of English in the present day period. This is largely due to the development of scientific-technological vocabulary and, at the end of the XX-th century especially, the rapid progress of computer communications technology and computer literacy. Borrowing has become a less important source of new words than in the previous period, although, as the chart below demonstrates, it is still a significant source of lexical enrichment.

What is interesting is that the languages from which English borrows reflect the level of cultural or economic importance of the country or countries in question. Thus,

for example, although there have been a number of Japanese loan-words in the last few years, such as: “karaoke, tamagochi, hibachi”, they have been relatively few in number and specific to Japanese culture, such words as: “buta, ashug, mugham, khanende, shur, segah, tesnif, tar, kemancha, def”, which are specific to Azerbaijani culture.

Beyond borrowing, the systems of register and acceptability are changing, so that previously unacceptable slang and taboo words are now in use in written as well as spoken media. Thus, although such words have always existed, they were formerly an “invisible” component of one’s vocabulary, whose visibility s now increasing.

But there are at least two standards of English, especially where the lexicon is concerned: the national and the international. New dictionaries aim to reflect this fact and do not claim to be the dictionary of American or British English, as they often did in the past. There will always be overlaps between the two standard lexica, however, as culture-specific borrowings can appear in the English of distant countries.

The following is a partial list of loan-words into English from the XIX-th and XX-th centuries from languages and cultures as far apart as France and China. Only a few can be assumed to have been borrowed during eras of colonialism, while most are culture-specific and generally, though by no means exclusively, refer to tangible phenomena rather than abstract concepts.

Some words, such as: “piranha” and “samba” have been borrowed from Brazilian and Portuguese languages; “café, surveillance, hangar, chauffeur, limousine, déjà vu, rotisserie, courgette” have been borrowed from French; “bravura, lasagne, vendetta, diva, spaghetti, gorgonzola, ciao, al dente, paparazzi, dolce vita” have been borrowed from Italian; “mustang, ranch, rodeo, vamoose, cafeteria, bonanza, macho, machismo, salsa, fajita, burrito” have been borrowed from Spanish; “schnapps, poodle, semester, kindergarten, lager, Doberman, gestalt, Luftwaffe, abseil, blitz” have been borrowed from German; “vodka, samovar, dacha, pogrom, borzoi, kalashnikov, glasnost, perestroika, qulaq” have been borrowed from Russian; “pyjamas, yoga, tandoori, sitar,

gymkhana, khaki, samosa" have been borrowed from Urdu; "pukka, chapatti, thug, raj, poppadom, biriani, tikka, balti" have been borrowed from Hindi; "Islam, wadi, yashmak, jihad" have been borrowed from Arabic; "poteen, sporran, colleen, ceilidh, corgi" have been borrowed from Celtic; "hara-kiri, tycoon, jujitsu, sumo, tofu, kimono, dan, bonsai, karate, kamikaze, origami, shiatsu, karaoke, hibachi" have been borrowed from Japanese; "kow-tow, chop-suey, chow mein, shih-tzu, mahjong, gung-ho, dim sum, wok" have been borrowed from Chinese.

The journal of the American Dialect Society "American Speech" keeps a careful watch on the new words coming into the language in a column called "Among the New Words". The following list contains a number of words and their definitions:

"Euroskeptic klingon" – in the sense of an unexplained icon that appears on a computer screen;

"Mickey Schwarzeneggerian alcopop crippleware" – demonstration software that lacks the full features of the program;

"Netrepreneur net-savvy" – Internet entrepreneur.

Not surprisingly, the majority of words on this list are related to computing, reflecting the rapid pace of technological advancement and application of computing to daily life. Others, such as "Schwarzeneggerian, alcopop" refer to cultural phenomena, respectively, - a film star and a new type of drink, while "Euroskeptic" is clearly a political term, in this instance in reference to British politicians who are opposed to the integration of the UK in the EU.

What is remarkable about much of the new vocabulary is that it does not involve borrowing, but rather combining or blending existing words, for instance, "alcopop" – alcohol + pop; "crippleware" – cripple + ware; "Euroskeptic" – Europe + skeptic.

So, the method of lexical enrichment that was the primary method in Old English is still productive today. In addition, orthographic practices are adapted or invented in order to be eye-catching and memorable. Thus, many new product names consist of blends that have an interesting orthographic twist: they can use capitalization in the

middle of a word, as for example, in the name SmartLinks.

There are other ways in which the language enriches the lexicon. For instance, there are many examples of functional shift which can add completely new words to the language, or create words with slightly different nuances from existing words. For example, the verb “give” is a core word of English, with the noun “gift” deriving from it.

However, a recent development is the derivation of a new noun “gifting” from “gift”, as in “Diamond jewellery makes great Christmas gifting”, which seems to suggest the act of giving a gift, rather than just giving – quite a subtle but suggestive difference.

From the noun “parent” in a similar fashion, derive the verb “to parent” and the new noun “parenting” – performing the functions of a parent, as in “The midwife is very knowledgeable about parenting”.

While many commentators deplore such usages, they nevertheless are widespread across the language and signal living processes that will continue to enrich a language and expand its lexical base.

Nouns are also frequently derived from phrasal verbs, though, once again, this can be an indirect process. “To black out” – “cut, extinguish, cease, cover, make dark”, for example, leads to the noun black-out, from which derives, by analogy, the noun “brown-out”, as in “Storm-hit Washington is having another brown-out”.

Adjectives can also be derived in this way: “to knock out” leads to something being “a knock-out idea”.

Another word-formational process that is productive in the creation of neologisms is that of affixation; certain prefixes and suffixes have become noticeably productive, including “un-” – “un-American, un-English, un-freedom”; “-ee” – “franchisee, contractee” (originally a French passive suffix, is now productively used in everyday speech, especially in the United Sates, expressing the passive partner for any agentive noun); “-ize” – “burglarize, regularize, hospitalize”.

Finally, several linguists have noted that present-day English also exhibits a tendency to use acronyms, particularly with reference to military and governmental institutions, for instance, UNPROFOR, UNICEF, NALGO, UNESCO, ISESCO, etc. Such formations are also frequently employed in the creation of names of corporations, as in “AMOCO” (technically a combination of an acronym and a blend, from American Oil Company).

Globalization is readily increasing in modern world. This increase in globalization has many effects on language, both positive and negative. These effects on language in turn affect the culture of the language in many ways. However, with globalization allowing languages and their cultures to spread and dominate on a global scale, it also leads to the extinction of other languages and cultures.

Almost everywhere language is used as an identity to be part of the “world system” now, and the thing about any system that integrates people is that it benefits its architects. Imported cultures are going to push out indigenous ones.

The most controversial, problematic and important sphere of globalization is a cultural globalization. From the point of globalization’s vanguard only this sphere around the essence and the perspectives of the whole globalization is learning as the “epicentrum” of the scientific-political discussions.

A neccessity to discuss the problems of the cultural globalization of mankind’s globalizing nations had appeared as the result of the understanding of the fear to lose the resources of civilizations’ cultural multilaterality, divergency and cultural originality.

First of all, a mutual dependence of the expression of the development of the economic globalization and in less degree political globalization, and also a strengthening of the transnational tendencies obligate the scientists and the politicians throughout the world to pay serious and more attention to all social-cultural transformations.

Taking into a consideration a special importance of the cultural globalization, also its contradistinction, and an understanding of the rising problems there is a community in views in such aspect of the investigations.

Actually, conditioned not only by an obscure understanding of the cultural outlines of megasociety, at the same time an unavoidable danger and knowing of the losses, but also the great incertitudes expect us here.

It is true, to my mind, that there is the "psychological" difference between economic and cultural globalization.

The positives of the first in comparing with its negatives are better understandable, but in the cultural globalization possible losses in the uncertain background of the advantages are more visible.

Every man understands that mutual dependence and transnationalism, even if in virtual form, bear a fear of the deformation of their cultural specificity. Globalization publicly defies to people's cultural identity by means of universal-unificational tendencies. It is established a fertile position for "traditional fundamentalism".

Between different specifities possible cultural menaces of globalization insistently demand the necessity of forming of the optimal models of harmonizing of mutual relations. To my mind, cultural globalization is not the same that from the cultural point of view world must be homogeneous and uniform. On the contrary, it is important and inevitable to keep and develop multicoloring, variety and diversity.

I think, on one hand, it is an invitation to the abundance, diversity and equality of the cultures, on the other side, it is a calling to particularity, then, to the hidden hierarchy. Here is only one step to the creation of a hierarchy of the cultures.

As it is seen, the conversation is not only about "multifaced and one-coloured" culture of a megasociety, but also of "horizontal" sovereignity of cultural specificity or their subordination, mutual "upright" dependence. And as the result this comes to the process of "americanization".

Cultural globalization arises so much serious problems that the scientists decisively, in a natural way, don't hurry to summarize it.

These two approaches to globalization (from the point of view of the cultural perspectives) lead in final to the results, which going far away and that is why, for a long time the science seriously investigates the problems of cultural globalization from one-polar approach.

According to one approach, in the process of globalization being a megacountry, it has the unit world's culture, and forms human community. In such variant the global relations play a role of impersonalization, assimilation. In that case diversity is eliminated.

According to another approach, a future world is imagined as the integrity of specific feelings – mutual closed by subjects. The relations between subjects are various, but these contacts don't destroy the specificity of those subjects, vice versa, they complete and enrich them in a equal form.

It is necessary to analyze not only an access of the way to homogene of the process of globalization, as an important source of diversity, but also an entire assemblage of the different specificities.

Thinking about a cultural model of megasociety they imagine not only a scientific interest, but also the national sovereignty of every country, concretely their national interests, at the same time the socio-cultural specificity of that country.

On the level of the theoretical analysis it is not closed out the contingency of losing of the cultural specificity of the globalized country. It provides a certain atmosphere for the formation of "cautious" (may be negative) approach to the globalization.

Losses which are completely clear and even feasible, are possible to drawn down to minimum, of course, if only the scientific association, all public people will come to consensus of considering the cultural globalization as a process.

What do we mean telling about a cultural globalization as a process?

This process doesn't take into account unification of the "western example", it is established on the basis of the synthesis of the national specificity, it gives an opportunity to construct the "variegated, many-colored, mixed culture" megasosiety.

The acquaintance with the appropriate literature shows that the majority of the scientists got to know the advantages of the "variegated" cultural globalization. For instance, ***V.Tolstikh, Y.Rustamov, A. Shukurov, N.Imanov, M.Efendiyev*** considered the expression of the globalization as the unity of dual processes (in the meaning of integration and automatization of the existing knowledges, institutions, and spheres of activity), as the transaction based on the constructive and comprehensive understanding of the global world formalizing according to the model of "the unity of the divergencies".

However some investigators prefered to note their apprehension of the megaculture's "americanization" entertaining a vanguard position and great role of the USA in real globalization.

It is choosen two positions on "westernization". We may call them conditionally as pessimist and optimist.

The first position accept the persistence of the westernization. The second position say about the temporality of such situation and doesn't except the possibility of the weakness of the waves of the "americanization".

The analysis of the actual problems of the cultural globalization as in a global scope (the vision of the outlines of megasociety), so in a local plan (in the plan of the globalization's perspectives of the national specificity) proves the earnest, relevance and gravity of these problems.

First of all, precisely in the sphere of the cultural globalization, the countries in reality meet ineligible tendencies and threats of the globalization. Moreover, in this sphere in an appropriate condition (in the process of the globalization's development as a whole) the first conditions may arise for the collison (confrontation) of the civilizations (***Samuel Phillips Huntington***).

It is not casually that in a common list of the scientific works devoted to the theme of the globalization a number of the culturological investigations has exaggerated.

Scientific community distinctly understands that social-cultural problematics is really philosophic “cornerstone” - globalization spreading thoughout the world. The success of this process (or its fail) depends upon the agreement and consensus between scientists and politicians in understanding and selecting the most advisable, appropriate scenario for the development of the cultural globalization from the various aspects. To my mind, without solving this problem the ensuring of the national interests in a strict sense is impossible.

In the beginning of the XXI-st century globalization being the subject of the theoretical debate and political discussion, became the social-cultural reality. Today the specific features of the globalized cultural space are the following factors:

• an intensification of the expansional process of the international economic, political, social and cultural relations’ outlines;

• a beginning of new period after cold war;

• a transformation of world’s economy;

• an advantage of the system of american values as a result of coordination of the non-liberal economic programmes with the political democratization’s programms;

• orthodoxal ideology (a stability and continuity of an idea, creed);

• a technological revolution;

• an inability in solving the global problems of the national countries (demographic, ecological, man’s rights, prevention of nuclear weapon’s outspread).

It is necessary to mention that there is the lexico-semantic variation in the modern English language.

Today there are from three to six thousand languages, considerably more than existed millennia ago. They presumably derived from earlier ones. Through a

scholarly process called reconstruction, where known existing forms are used to reconstruct earlier and unattested forms perhaps of the parent language, each language can invariably be traced back to earlier stages.

Reconstruction has definitely proved that Spanish and French have derived from Latin, so that general sources like encyclopedias record the fact without qualification. History explains why Spanish, rather than French or Portuguese, is the language of Puerto Ricans, Cubans and Mexicans.

With the importance of English in the world today and the demand to teach learners a working command of English to satisfy various communicative needs in their life, English, undoubtedly, plays a great role in the globalization.

Some people think that using a foreign language to a certain extent is violating their own national identity. Language should not be linked too closely with national identity. Language is especially important in the age of globalization for communication. Every language has its place in the system and no languages threaten the place of the national language. So much people learn English because of the economic globalization.

Today the modern linguist recognizes and accepts without value judgment the existence of language varieties, such as regional dialects and social dialects. Here again school traditions have tended to emphasize a single correct standard form, to inculcate that standard and to downgrade variations.

Linguistics acknowledges as a social fact that a certain dialect may be treated by society as a standard form – British English, standard North American English, and is regarded as prestigious by some members of a society as for example, King's English, Oxford accent, whereas another is treated as socially inferior or condemned as "provincial, lower class, vulgar". But the interest of the linguist can be focused without condescension or condemnation, or non-prestigious as well as prestigious language varieties.

But it is necessary to mention that linguists in recent decades have become more and more interested in the language of people who by a rigid conception of a standard language don't talk properly, as for example: the language of foreigners.

Since 1970 a language variety that has been examined as a language system with its own rules and characteristics is the variety that second language learners develop. Such studies are usually referred to as "interlanguage" studies or the study of "learner languages".

The concept of interlanguage was suggested by ***Larry Selinker*** in 1972 in order to draw attention to the possibility that the learner's language can be regarded as a distinct language variety or system with its own particular characteristics and rules.

It is important to note that communication enabled by the Internet is even less tied to standard forms of English, as communication in English, is exchanged between partners in both English speaking and non English speaking countries. One needs to evaluate just how important learning standard and nonstandard usage of the phrases. But first of all we'd like to do some historical linguistic excursion.

After Queen Victoria's death in 1901 America had decisively defeated Spain and emerged as a world power. Guam, the Philippines, Cuba and Puerto Rico were new American possessions, into which English spread as a competitor to Spanish and other tongues. The British began the eventual crushing of the Boers in South Africa. That British victory expended the last of late nineteenth-century imperialism. The Union of South Africa was established in 1910.

Overall, English replaced French as the diplomatic language, and it became the medium of international influence on the twentieth-century history of modern languages. The further spreading of English around the world is a familiar theme to us, because Americans or other native speakers of English have settled permanently in countries like France, Italy, Israel, Thailand, and Japan.

Two other familiar themes persisted during the early decades of the twentieth century: linguistic nationalism and widening lexical differences between American

and British speech. ***Henry Louis Mencken***'s title "the American Language" (1919), is borrowed from Webster's title "An American Dictionary of the English Language".

Mencken went considerably further than Webster, predicting that the divergence of American would soon make it and English mutually unintelligible. The four major sources of Americanisms were continuing to pour words into the lexicon, although borrowing was not quite as extensive as in the Renaissance.

By his fourth edition (1936), ***H.L.Mencken*** was even more bombastic: world events had denigrated England, he emphasized, while America was rising. Future scholars, he said, may find themselves studying English as a dialect of American.

There is a slight basis for his prediction that American would overwhelm British English. We need only note the general British outrage at the Americanisms flooding into London English, despite some equally jingoistic efforts by the British to reject the Americanisms as degraded and barbarous.

H.L.Mencken may have overemphasized the American tide, for British dialect continued its own sturdy development after 1900. ***Joseph Wright***'s "English Dialect Dictionary" in 6 volumes (1898-1905) and "English Dialect Grammar" (1905) list British dialectal expressions seldom found in the United States. ***J.Wright*** collected some five hundred thousand word-slips in the process. His conclusion was that pure dialect speech is rapidly disappearing from even the rural areas because of the spread of education and modern communications media.

Americans didn't begin their "Dictionary of American Regional English" until 1965. It is designed to collect the greater part of the expressions, pronunciation, and meanings of Native American English speakers in a thousand local and regional speech-communities in fifty states up to the date of publication.

The computer-based project is expected to store up to five million word-slips, many of which will naturally be repetitions of the same word. Unquestionably this important work will discover many American elements not occurring in British speech and writing.

We shouldn't be surprised that each individual's speech is somewhat different from that of every other English speaker. The human organism is both complex and unique, and each person's language and personality is his very own.

Native speakers of English differ considerably from one to another in the use of the overall language. As we have no particular difficulty in understanding them, the differences between any two speakers are evidently superficial. The major syntactic rules are the same for all native speakers of the language. The variation comes from the minor rules that are surface structure.

Every language has at least one dialect. The dialectal variations can be conveniently grouped into three broad kinds or components: phonological, semantic and syntactic.

The differences between British and American English raise the question of regional and social dialects. Because the Middle English dialects have continued historical development in Britain, differences in speech are ordinarily more acute within England, Wales and Scotland than among the various American regions today.

When we consider the American dialects it is useful to note that they have developed primarily from the original settlers' speech according to region. Speaking about American regional dialects we can mention that there are clear lexical distinctions:

Northern	**Midland**	**Southern**
pail	**bucket**	**bucket**
spider	**skillet**	**skillet, frying pan**
swill	**slop**	**slop**
whippletree	**singletree**	**singletree**
you	**you-all**	**you-all**
darning needle	**snake feeder**	**snake doctor, mosquito hawk**

Metropolitan influences and social variations within single region complicate the three broad belts of regional dialects. Cities like Boston, New York, Charleston and San Francisco have extensive cultural effects on adjacent areas. Within metropolitan areas, class distinctions are often rather rigid. Part of the cleavage is a person's speech, which seems to be considerably determined by education, whether in a city or in rural parts of Nebraska.

Today one of the major problems in the United States is the proper attitude toward what we'll term nonstandard social dialects. We must emphasize that some people erroneously generalize Negro speech as a nonstandard social dialect. Really, Negro speech isn't a separate dialect of American English at all, and certainly many blacks speak Standard English. It's as impossible to characterize black speech as it is to characterize white, although the Southern dialect is probably used by most blacks in the United States. The many exceptions are those blacks brought up in northern metropolitan areas like Chicago, Detroit, and New York. Over the telephone, a black's Southern dialect can seldom be distinguished from a white's Southern dialect, assuming equal education and culture.

Unfortunately, many blacks have been deprived of educational and cultural opportunities. When their parents speak nonstandard English and they themselves have been deprived of the chance to associate with speakers of Standard English, their structures may frequently omit the copula. The omission is, of course, a matter of usage, not a sign of inferiority. Still, the omission is nonstandard and may be a feature of the speech of both deprived whites and blacks.

When we speak about nonstandard speech we must take into consideration that the difficulty is compounded by the fact that what is acceptable and what is unacceptable vary significantly with the situation and the audience.

It is also important to notice that the already complex problem of nonstandard social dialects is complicated for anyone whose first language is not English.

Unknowingly, he substitutes elements of his native language. Thus, there are some phonemic substitutions.

The well-known fact is that there will be some differences in every speech community. Otherwise, we must recast our definition of the term “language” as man’s creative possession endowing each individual with a unique idiolect. One person will always know some words that his neighbor doesn’t know. There are several kinds of necessary lexical variations.

Despite the existence of the special lexical variations and of regional and social dialects, dialectal differences remain superficial. They may be somewhat narrower in the future. For one thing, the international spirit after World War II has apparently stopped the diverging. Heretofore, the general history of languages has been the eventual separation of dialects into mutually unintelligible tongues.

We don’t know exactly how many languages there are now. Probably there are not nearly as many as the three thousand to six thousand estimated today, some of which have millions of speakers. If we count only native speakers, Mandarin Chinese comes first with 460 million, followed by English with 250 million. Hindustani has 160 million; Spanish, 140 million. Russian is fifth, with 130 million. In order, there follow German, Japanese, Arabic, Bengali, Portuguese, and French. Italian is the twelfth largest, with 55 million.

The trend toward dialectal separation seems to have been reversed. English, one of the five United Nations languages, is used by Americans, Britishers, Egyptians, Indians, South Africans, and many other people at the UN. Sometimes speeches are broadcast around the world. The UN has its own radio station in New York. Imagine the general dialectal “equalizing” that indirectly results when a Californian hears the English of a New Yorker, a Rhodesian, or a Burmese on the UN station.

International radio and television carry the actual speech of a London longshoreman to America, and our speech back to him. Widespread use of movies and television in Canada, Great Britain, and the United States further contributes

toward the growth of some uniformity. The flood of tourists also does its part, as do world commerce and international politics. Movement toward greater language uniformity may even be accelerating a bit.

There are some commonplace American words then unknown in England, along with their British equivalents equally unknown in the United States: apartment – flat; baby carriage – pram; beer – lager; biscuit – scone; carnival – fun fair; cracker – biscuit; dry goods – drapery; fall – autumn; flashlight – torch; French fries – chips; gas – petrol; holdup man – raider; ice cream – ice; line – queue; movies – flicks; newsstand – kiosk; oatmeal – porridge; overcoat – greatcoat; potato chip – crisp; racetrack – race course; subway – underground; truck – lorry, and so on.

For instance, the British say “in hospital” instead of “in the hospital”, and “the government are” instead of “government is”. Americans immediately notice these syntactic differences just as Englishmen note the American structures. In an oversimplified sense, the English spoken in the United States and much of Canada can be described as a collection of dialects loosely termed American English.

The language in Kent, Cornwall, and Yorkshire and so on can be called British English. At least most Americans can quickly recognize an Englishman over the telephone and vice versa. However, we shouldn’t conclude that language is tightly and internally similar, either within the United States or within the British Isles. To prove the point, one need only ask for a spider in an Atlanta variety store, a frying pan in Boston, or a skillet in New York. These are differences in vocabulary, in the semantic component.

As we know, various situations, different interests, occupations or social roles demand different uses of language. A number of concepts are employed in linguistics, especially in that branch of linguistics which relates the study of language to the study of society, sociolinguistics to indicate these functional variations and choices within one language: style, register and code.

As English is no more complex than other languages, it has several features which may create difficulties for learners. Any document written in Global English will be grammatically correct and relatively easy for international readers to understand. Important differences exist between plain English and Global English.

A problem with plain English is that no standard specifies plain English. Global English readability is dependent on the following two things: the number of words in a sentence and the number of mini words in a sentence. Some scientists specify a mini word as word of one, two or three letters. Long sentences and mini words cause many of the problems that international readers have. The principles of Global English are easy to use after some practice.

The British Isles, historical home of English, has significant regional language differences in pronunciation, accent, vocabulary and grammar. Therefore it is fundamentally essential for men to learn English from a young age in this rapidly globalizing world.

We always have to remember that language contributes to the formation of culture, such as through vocabulary, greetings or humor. Language is in a sense the substance of culture. Languages serve as important symbols of group belonging, enabling different groups of people to know what ethnic groups they belong to, and what common heritages they share. Without a language, people would lose their cultural identity.

Communication and intercourse are the main parts of man's activity, and, so, is a part of culture. Emphasizing their importance, many investigators equate culture to communion (communication).

What the learning of the English and Russian languages can bring is the increase in the knowledge we have built in our own maternal language through comparisons with the English and Russian, making it possible for us to involve in the processes of building a speech in the English and Russian languages on the different levels.

For that the process of construction of meanings is possible, people use three

levels of acknowledgement: systemic knowledge, world knowledge and text organization knowledge. This knowledge composes the communicable sphere and prepare to the speech engagement.

The systemic knowledge involves the various levels of linguistic organizations which people have. It makes possible for people to produce, to make choices, grammatically adequate and to comprehend announcements based on a level of acknowledgement of the language.

The world knowledge refers to the conventional knowledge which people have over worldly things. The acknowledgement of the world is recorded in the memory of people on various things built in one's life.

In the world knowledge, a person knows he has to look in the text for a correct meaning from a coherent understanding. In the organization knowledge, it will be known to the reader that in a certain area of the text, it will be referent to a certain topic, such as signature in a letter, for instance.

The main objective is to show how the learning of a non-maternal language, mainly English and Russian, can be done, towards communication in a globalist world.

Azerbaijani, English and Russian knowledge will help to open many opportunities for students in the future and it will be invaluable in their future careers.

Lecture 1. Subject and Aims of Typological Studies of Native and Foreign Languages. Language Typology and Others Branches of Linguistics.

1. Introduction to the course.
2. General and special typology.
3. Aspects of typological investigations.
4. Branches of language typology.
5. Typology and other branches of linguistics.

1. Introduction to the course.

The word “typology” has Greek origin and is derived from two words “typos” – form and “logos” - study, which means “form study”, in Russian: “отпечаток, форма, образец” and “слово, учение”.

Linguistic typology is the comparative studying of the structural and functional peculiarities of the languages independently from the character of the gentic relations between them.

Typology is one of the two main aspects of language learning together with comparatively-historic (genetic) aspect, which is different from it ontologically (by significant characteristic features of the research’s subject) and epistomologically (by complex of principles and devices, methods of study).

Investigating different languages, namely English, Russian and Azerbaijani, one can easily find out similar features in most of them, though they are kindred and non-kindred languages.

At the same time, it should be noted that from the structural point of view, languages belong to one and the same genetic group differing from each other. Generic structural features are found in most various languages belonging to different language groups.

Being one of the Indo-European languages English is the most spread language in the world today. It is difficult today, to find a man, contesting the necessity of having a good command of English. It is useful to know it not only for reading the press, seeing the films and listening to the popular music.

It is impossible to overestimate meaning of the foreign language for the man, who dreams to make a successful career. The English language – the language of Shakespeare and the "Bitlz", the language of the greatest literature, the language of world's business, of intoxicating success and of world's popularity.

A half of the humanity speaks English, and that is – hundreds millions of men. Approximately 75% of all scientific papers are published in English, 70% of the world's mail is written in English. It is also the language of shipping and air-travel. The English language is the first or joint first language in 70 countries, while French is spoken in 34 countries and Arabic is spoken in 23 countries.

About 500 million people speak English as a first or joint-first language.This is the 10% of the world population. English is also spoken as a second language by another 300 million people. It's estimated that 25% of the Chinese 1 billion(million of millions in England; thousand of millions in the USA) 200 million population are studying English.The merest estimate of the number of people in the world who can sprak English is about 2 billion out of 6 billion.

Furthermore, we'll deal with typological studies of such rich languages, like English, Azerbaijani and Russian. For instance, in English, in German and in some other Germanic languages we can meet a lot of words of common root, such as "mother" in English and "die Mütter" in German, "father" in English and "der Fater" in German, "day" in English and "der Tag" in German, "water" in English and "das Wasser" in German, "door" in English and "die Tür " in German, "ana"in Azerbaijani and "ayne" in Turkish.

Many more examples can be given in this aspect. It is explained by the fact that these languages, i.e. English and German belong to one genetic group, namely Germanic family of languages.

At the same time it should be noted that in some other cases languages belonging to one and the same genetic group differ from each other greatly. For example, the article in English has no morphological categories, accordingly no morphological forms; it neither agrees with nor governs the noun it refers to. But in German the article has morphological categories of case and gender. As the result of it, the article agrees with the noun it refer to in case and gender category of the noun.

Furthermore, the article is the only means of indicating the gender-category of the noun in German. Such as “der Bruder” – masculine gender, “die Schwester”- feminine gender, “das Fenster” – neuter gender.

Another example. In modern English the noun has only two case forms- the common case and the genetive case. But in modern German the noun has four case forms - Nominativ, Genetiv, Dativ, Akkusativ.

Facts like this show that though the two languages- English and German- belong to one and the same genetic group, namely to Germanic group of languages there exist great differences between them. This should be explained by the fact that though these languages are cognate, each of them developed independently in different social and psychological surroundings; on their own national base.

General structural features are also found in most various languages belonging to quite different language groups, for example: Attributive phrases in which the adjective precedes the noun without agreement exist in English, Turkish, Mongolian, Chinese, Japanese.

This appropriateness probably should be explained by the fact that though mankind consists of different nations having their own language, it has somewhat the same manner of thinking and reasoning. On these grounds in different languages we can observe similarities, for instance: the use of the attribitive phrase expressed by

the adjective, numeral, etc., before the noun they refer to in most developed languages, as it is mentioned above. Some more examples can be given in this field. According to this structural feature the above-mentioned languages may form a certain group with common structure having the same kind of attributive phrases.

So, the branch of linguistics which investigates grouping of languages according to their main, essential characteristic features and revealing general appropriateness of different languages is called **Typological Linguistics**. Typological linguistics also studies the type of languages and type of language structure. According to its object and aim typology is conditionally divided into general and special typology.

2. General and special typology.

General typology studies language types, their general problems showing similar and different features, and types in language, characteristic systems of separate languages, language universals, language-prototype, isomorphism and allomorphism, in other words, general typology investigates general properties, changes, processes in languages belonging to different language groups or families, e.g. the ways of expressing the category of definiteness and indefiniteness in English, Russian and Azerbaijani. The vowel system in English and Azerbaijani, word order in English and Azerbaijani, etc.

Special typology investigates problems which are more limited or restricted. Here separate language phenomena may be investigated. E.g. the system of personal pronouns in English and Azerbaijani, the adjective-forming suffixes in English and Azerbaijani, etc.

As it is mentioned by most scholars special typology is of great importance from practical point of view. That is why at our lectures we'll try to pay more attention to special typology. Here we are going to determine typological characteristics of the English language in comparison with Azerbaijani. This kind of

typological investigation may be called **Comparative Typology of Foreign and Native Languages.**

So, the aim of our course is to teach students to determine main typological features of English and Azerbaijani languages, to show the methods helping to compare the elements of the English language which are absent in the native one, and at the same time to find out the means of expressing these grammatical meanings in the native language, i.e. in Azerbaijani-Turkish.

3. Aspects of typological investigations.

Aspects of typological investigations depend on the following factors:

1) The number of languages which are investigated;

2) The scope or volume of work;

3) The aim of investigation;

4) The character of the revealed divergences;

5) The levels of analysis;

6) The direction of investigation.

1) Depending on the number of investigated languages linguists distinguish ***Universal and Special Typology***. Universal typology tries to analyse the languages of the world in order to find out language universals common to all mankind. Special typology studies concrete languages; more often two languages are investigated. These languages may be either cognate (kindred) or non-cognate (non-kindred). Our course will deal mostly with special typology comparing English and Azerbaijani belonging to different language families, the former to the Germanic,the latter to the Turkic family of languages.

2) Depending on the scope or volume of investigated material ***General and Special Typology*** may be distinguished.General typology investigates language types, i.e. the most general features of the language structure, usually in relation to a definite

aspect: sound structure, morphological structure, syntactical structure of sentences.Special comparative typology studies separate aspects and elements of language structure. Here we distinguish between phonetic, morphological, semantical, stylistic typology within which the investigation can be narrower: typology of phonetic systems, of word-building models, word order, separate grammatical categories, such as number, tense, mood, etc. Each object of investigation forms a category of comparison.

3) Depending on the aim of investigation we may distinguish ***Classifying and Characterising Typology***. Classifying typology finds out typological classification of languages, revealing their typological groups and correlation. But the aim of characterising typology is to find out specific features of the given language, its peculiarities among other languages. Our course will lay a special stress on characterising typology, which shows that one and the same lingual phenomena are represented unequally in different languages.

4) Depending on the character of divergences we may distinguish ***Qualitative and Quantitative Typology***. While comparing the given languages two types of divergences may be found: qualitative divergence and quantitative divergence.

a) In qualitative divergence some language phenomena don't exist in one of the compared languages. E.g. the English article, the sequence of tenses, the gerund, the adlink don't exist in Azerbaijani.

b) In quantitative divergence this or that language phenomenon may exist in both languages, but the use of their frequency is not the same in number.E.g. the category of case of the noun – there are two cases in English nouns, but six cases in Azerbaijani nouns. The present tense has 4 forms in English, but only two in Azerbaijani,etc.

5) Depending on the level of analysis we may differ ***Structural and Functional Typology.*** Structural typology studies types of language expressions. Functional typology studies how to use these types in speech.

6) Depending on the direction of investigation we can differ between ***Semasiological and Onomasiological Typology***. Semasiological typology studies the compared facts of languages from form to meaning and function. E.g. word order has different functions in English and Azerbaijani.Onomasiological typology studies language facts from meaning to form. Here we may compare different language levels which may express one and the same meaning. E.g. the ways of expressing modality in English and Azerbaijani.

4. Branches of language typology.

According to the object of investigation we may distinguish the following branches of language typology: 1) Genetic typology; 2) Structural typology; 3) Areal typology; 4) Comparative typology.

Genetic typology compares systems of genetic kindred (related) languages in diachrony and in synchrony. This type of typology in general linguistics is called ***the Historical-Comparative Method in Linguistics.***

Functional typology studies the language as a communicative means and considers it through prism of its social functions and spheres of using.

Structural typology considers systems of different languages without any genetic and areal limitation. It tries to determine type features of languages. It may use the results of other branches of language typology. The final aim of structural typology is finding out universal properties of languages.

Areal typology compares languages irrespective of their relationship in order to determine common (general) elements formed as a result of mutual influence of languages existing in a definite area. The object of such investigation is borrowed elements in languages, language contact, language – union and bilingualizm.

Comparative typology unites two directions in language study: contrastive-comparative and typological. Contrastive-comparative typology, as a rule, compares two languages irrespective of their relationship with the purpose of finding out

similarities and differences between them. Typological linguists considers the widest problems. It studies specific features of languages on the background of those common properties which are characteristic (peculiar) to human languages in general.

5. Typology and other branches of linguistics.

Comparative typology as a branch of general linguistics is based on theoretical language courses. It closely connected with:1) the history of language; 2) general linguistics; 3) practical and theoretical grammar; 4) practical and theoretical phonetics; 5) the structure of native language.

Comparative typology is the branch of linguistics which investigates the grouping of main, essential characteristic features and revealing genetic appropriateness. It is also studies the type of languages and type of language structure.

The history of language reflects historical development of language and gives correct explanation.

General linguistics deals with general problems of the language.

Theoretical grammar deals with different theories put forward by various scholars. These theories in some cases may coincide.

Practical grammar deals with general rules of a language and has the purpose of teaching grammar practically.Scholars, still long ago, observed the fact that some of the languages are similar to one another in their forms, while others dissimilar. They expressed the idea that languages revealing formal features of similarities have a common origin.

Lecture 2. The History of Typological Investigation.

The history of linguistic study goes deep into the history of mankind. Each new period of development of science about language has its own specific features. There appear new branches, aspects and methods of language study and new linguistic schools and directions arise. One of these directions in Linguistics is Typology.

Attempts to establish groups of kindred languages were made from the 16-th century on, but a consistently scientific proof and study of the actual relationship between languages became possible when historical-comparative method of language study was created and it was in the first quarter of the 16-th century.This method developed in connection with the comparative observation of languages belonging to the Indo-European family and its appearance was stimulated by the discovery of Sanscrit.

So, ***W.Jones***, an orientalist who was the first to point out in the form of vigorously grounded scientific hypothesis that Sanscrit, Greek, Gothic and some other languages of India and Europe has sprang from the same source which no longer existed. He based his points on the observation of verbal forms or rules and certain grammatical forms in comparative languages.

The history of language typology may go earlier than 1800-s. It is assumed that the great contribution from two German linguists ***Friedrich von Schlegel*** and ***Wilhelm von Humboldt*** and their work brought a name for typological research.

However, unlike contemporary typologists, the two German linguists were also very much interested in working on various languages, almost exclusively in morphology. By looking at the word-formation processes that were employed in languages that they studied, they proposed to categorize languages on the basis of how much morphology was used in the construction of a word and how this morphology was used.

Although, some of the terminologies that were devised by these early typologists are still used in modern Linguistics (both in Morphology and Typology), modern Typology has very little in common with the research findings of these pioneers.

The connection between Indian and European languages were studied scientifically at the beginning of the XIX-th century by ***Franz Bopp*** (1791-1867), ***Rasmus Christian Rask*** (1787-1832), ***Jacob Ludwig Karl Grimm*** (1785-1863), ***Alexander Christoforowitsch Wostokow Osteneck*** (1781-1864), etc. These scientists made not only historical observation of the kindred languages, but also defined fundamental conception of linguistic kinship.

Typological investigations of languages began in the XIX-th century, when Europeans got to know Sanscrit - the language of ancient India. German scientist ***Friedrich von Schlegel*** (1772-1829), who took great interest in the culture and language of ancient India, was the first to pay attention to differences in the structure of languages and distinguished two groups:

1) Affixational languages;

2) Inflecting or inflexional languages.

To the first group he referred Turkish languages, Polynesian languages, and also Chinese. To the second group he referred Semitic, Georgian and French languages.

His brother ***August Schlegel*** (1767-1845) made radical changes in that classification and distinguished three groups of languages:

1) Affixal - Affixational languages: Kirundi (Niger-Congo: Burundi);

2) Inflectional - Inflecting languages, like: Greek. It would also accept affixation, but the affixes that are employed typically contain a great deal of semantic information. For example, the suffix “-on” reveals that the subject is third person (i.e. refers to someone other than the speaker or listener), that the subject is plural, that the verb is past tense and has a durative aspect, and that the sentence is a statement rather than a command or a condition.

In inflectional languages, all of these meanings are fused into a single affix, unlike affixal languages which tend to employ affixes that provide one piece of information each.

Later on ***August Schlegel*** divided languages into synthetic and analytical.

3) Languages without a grammatical structure, like: Chinese.

In no structure languages, as the name suggests, affixation is not used at all. The Mandarin Chinese, which is commonly used as representing the perfect example or class of a no structure language: has no verb agreement with the subject; and that aspect marking, if it occurs at all, comes as a separate particle rather than a verbal affix.

They thought that languages were unified in their structure, and morphological classification such as mentioned above was thought to be very useful in categorizing languages into different groups.

This kind of language classification obviously would not make sense to us; it was the only means or may be the only prevailing conditions to cllasify the languages into groups.

The major goals of Linguistics were seen as understanding the processes that gave rise to language change and determining the historical relationship among languages. For this reason, typology was marginal to Linguistics in the first half of the 1900-s.

It's further developed in the works of such scientists as the representatives of XIX-th and XX-th century – ***Fedor Ivanovich Buslayev*** (1818-1897), ***Phillip Fedorovich Fortunatov*** (1848-1914), etc.

In the early XX-th century several important changes took place with the advent of ***Ferdinant de Saussure*** (1857-1913). He and his contemporary linguists began to argue that, although language may be organic and therefore changing; at any given point in time language is a self-contained system.

Basing on historical-comparative method we can compare the native words of the Indo-European languages that evidence the kinship.

Thus, ***Leonard Bloomfield*** (1933, p.19) wrote: "...in order to describe a language one needs no historical knowledge whatever". This brought a shift from a **diachronic** (historical) perspective to a **synchronic** perspective (looking at a language at a single stage in its development).

Leonard Bloomfield and other linguists from ***American Structuralism*** continued to use and emphasize morphology in their research on languages; they completely rejected any belief that differences in morphological form revealed differences in the "inner form" of the language and intellect of the people who spoke it.

Across the Atlantic, linguists at ***Prague School*** were also working on the aspects of languages and trying to find out the reason for the unity in patterns of languages and this was quite similar to what one would like to call typological approach. They argued that certain characteristics of language are inherently linked.

Roman Jakobson (1929, 1963) pointed out that the vowel inventory and consonant inventory in languages are connected in predictable ways. For example, if a language has nasal vowels, it will also have nasal consonants. Statements like this capture facts about language that are always true.

Later work by the ***Prague School***, particularly by ***V.Skalicka*** (1935, 1979) recognized that many language properties are associated in probabilistic rather than absolute fashion. In describing them, one can only propose a non-absolute universal (tendency) and should have space for the others who will further take up the issue and continue the research.

So, the American structuralists and the linguists from Prague School helped the discipline of typology to flourish in several ways.

But, it was ***Joseph Harold Greenberg*** who made a landmark change in the outlook of the field of typology and the nature of typological research work. His

contributions in the field cannot be described in some numbers of points; however, some very important ones can be stated for pedagoggical purpose as follows:

Joseph Harold Greenberg (1954) pioneered to establish a quantitative and qualitative basis for typological study. Until the time ***J.Greenberg*** came into the scene, typology was highly subjective and it lacked the scientific standards that American linguists were trying so desperately to achieve in the 1940-s and 1950-s. He developed a strategy to measure numerically both the degree and the kinds of morphology present in a language. His quantitative approah showed that languages did not fall into discrete morphological types (***W.Croft***, 1990).

In other words, a language such as English cannot be said to be an inflecting or no structure language in an absolute way, rather, it is closer to being a no structure language than Greenlandic Eskimo but more inflecting than Khmer (Mon-Khmer, Cambodia).

Contribution of ***J.Greenberg*** in the field language typology is that he emphasized on procedure of doing the proper typology. He further explained this proper way of doing typology by saying that typology is not about comparing languages, instead the emphasis should be on comparing the constructions of languages.

The real task of the typological work is not to answer "What kinds of languages are there?" but to answer "What kinds of structures do languages have?"

This assumption has become explicit in the work of many current typologists and also in several theories of grammar.

J.Greenberg made full use of the ideas and the notions proposed by the **Prague School** that certain aspects of structure in languages correlate and the implicational universals can be stated in terms of the correlation. These implicational universals have the form "given X in a language, Y is also found". His seminal paper "Some Universals of Grammar with Particular Reference to the Order of Meaningful Elements" (***J.Greenberg***, 1966), brought out 45 implicational universals.

J.Greenberg's next contribution is related to the approach and the focus on the ways that described the language-change in course of time. His interest in Diachronic Linguistics was in many ways a come-back to the earlier days of typology in which Historical Comparative Linguistics predominated. The uniqueness of ***J.Greenberg***'s work was in his use of language change as an explanation for language universals.

The basic insight is the following, because the form that a language takes at any given point in time results from alternations that have occurred at some stage in the language, one should expect to find some explanations for universals by examing the processes of language-change. ***J.Greenberg*** helped to draw attention to the importance of a proper database in the research for language universals. He made at least some attempt to remove the genetic base from his claims about universals by using a large sample of languages (30 languages altogether) and including languages from many language families.

The last great impact that happened on typological research is due to the linguistic development that took place because of ***N.Chomsky***'s model of linguistic competence (its evolution can be traced thriugh ***N.Chomsky*** 1957, 1965, 1970, 1981, 1988 &1992).

For those who are familiar with different fields of Linguistics, the inclusion of ***N.Chomsky***, as one of the major sculptors of typology, might appear awkward or even objectionable. After all, ***N.Chomsky*** himself has never engaged in typological research and has generally been skeptical about typology's capacity to inform him in establishing his UG in syntax.

The facts, remain debatable and we could still say that the cornerstone concept of ***N.Chomsky***'s model, Universal Grammar, has greatly affected typology and his notion of universal grammar has some bearings to the typological investigation into the nature and function of languages.

Similar to the mainstream thinking of modern Linguistics, ***Wilhelm von Humboldt*** assumed that language had an inseparable association with the human

mind. In fact, he believed that universals of language were actual manifestations human thought (***Brown***, 1967).

However, unlike modern linguists, ***Wilhelm von Humboldt*** (1971) also thought that structural differences in languages must reflect the basic differences of the mental capacity and activity of various speech communities.

The quality of languages, he thought, could be determined by how closely they resemled to an idealized linguistic system. And thus he claimed that language structure was revelatory of intellectual capacity of the community that spoke it. This led his linguistic philosophy to manipulate the claims of cultural superiority using the following logic. Because German matches more closely the structure of a perfect language than Chinese, it is superior to Chinese. Also, because language structure derives from intellectual prowess, it follows that German thought is superior to Chinese thought.

Having rejected both the assumption that languages can be judged against any ideals and the claim that variations in language structure relate to differences in intellectual capacity, linguists in the present time find it absurd to make any judgements about the quality of a culture on the basis of how are formed and sentences are composed. So, a change was urgently in demand by the researchers in the field and came in the later half of 1800.

Everybody felt that the change in the approach to typological research is a must and it was not very late that a shift in the thrust area of typological research started taking place.

Even in ***W.Humboldt's*** era, typological research was becoming dominated by the historical-comparative method to language study.

But the founder of typology of languages is truly considered German linguist ***Friedrich Wilhelm Christian Karl von Humboldt*** (1767-1835) who knew a great number of languages including the languages of American Indians and inhabitants of Polynesia. ***W.Humboldt*** divided all the languages known to him into 4 types:

1) Isolating languages - here belong Chinese languages;

2) Agglutinative languages – here belong Turkic languages;

3) Flexional or inflecting languages - here belong Indo-European and Semitic languages;

4) Into the fourth special type he included the languages of American Indians and called them Incorporating. (Ethnic Psychology).

Later another German linguist ***August Schleicher*** (1821-1868) is famous for his biological approach. He made an attempt to introduce some corrections in the classification of ***Wilhelm Humboldt***. He called the history of language types as Morphology and the classification of languages based on the difference of language structure as morphological.

The most significant step in Typology was made by still another German scientist ***Heymann Steinthal*** (1823-1899). He is famous for syntactic connections. He didn't deal with separate words but he dealt with the analysis of syntactical relations between them and in fact he moved from morphological phenomena to Syntax and in this way he added one more criterion to typological analysis.

Another German linguist ***F.Mistely*** added two more criteria to morphological classification according to:

1) The position of the word in the sentence;

2) The internal structure of the word.

The well-known German linguist ***Frans Bopp*** worked out and introduced the comparative method paying special attention to the syllabic structure of the words: the monosyllabic languages, the languages with root + root or root + affixation, disyllabic root words structure.

Some words about new directions in Linguistics – ***Vilem Mathezius*** (1882-1945), ***E.Levy*** (1984), and ***Peter Hartman*** (1964) mostly dealt with characterizing typology.

- ***Ivan Ivanovich Meshchaninov*** (1883-1967), ***Alexander Vasilyevich Isachenko*** (1910-1978), ***Tahir Qalamovich Baishev*** (Turkic languages; 1886-1974), ***Zeyneb Korkmaz*** (Turkic languages; 1922-), ***Tamaz Valerianovich Qamkrelidze*** (Indo-European Languages; 1929-), ***Nigar Valiyeva*** (non-cognate languages: Azerbaijani, English, Russian) concentrated their attention on grouping of separate phenomena of the language.

- Multistage Typology can be met in the works of ***Eduard Sapir*** (1884-1939), ***Joseph Harold Greenberg*** (1951-2001), ***Gabriele Beissel-Durrant*** (A typology of research mehods, 2004) and others.

American linguist ***Joseph Harold Greenberg*** later focused attention on Quantitative Typology. Other modern directions in Typology are investigated in the work of ***Andre Martinet*** (1908-1999), ***Boris Uspenski*** (1937-), ***Vladimir Skalichka*** (1909-1991), ***Tadeusz Milewski*** (1967) and others.

Thus, the beginning of the XIX-th century saw the first typological claasification of languages by brothers ***Karl Wilhelm Friedrich Schlegel*** and ***August Wilhelm von Schlegel*** into flexional and non-flexional. Soon isolating languages like Chinese were added, while in 1825, ***Wilhelm Humboldt*** added a fourth type – incorporating languages – to designate tongues joining words into single entities functioning as sentences.

Considering the forerunners of Typology it is necessary to mention that the research works of ***F.Schlegel, A.Humboldt*** and their contemporaries was carried out under a very different presumption. It was quite significant for the growth and development of typology that they believed language to have an abstract organic unity. This means that the formal aspects of language such as its sounds, morphemes, grammar etc. and the changes that happened to these forms over time were not random or arbitrary. They believed that these changes were reflections of an inner character of the speakers who spoke these languages.

Over two hundreds years, typological research has covered a distance from morphological classification of languages to typological generalization or language universals shifting its method from structural analysis of separate languages to cross-linguistic examination of individual features such as word order, relative clauses, genitive constructions, etc.

The objectivity and reliability of the method is determined by several factors among which the number of languages involved is absolutely crucial. To ensure adequacy of results and congruence of generalizations, certain selection guidelines are imposed on a limited number of typologically examined tongues.

Languages chosen for comparatively-contrastive cross-linguistic examination are called **samples**, which fall under two types: **a variety sample** and **a probability sample**.

According to ***A.Bell*** "A **variety sample** selects subsets that are intended to maximize the likelihood of capturing all the linguistic diversity for the phenomenon under study. **A probability sample** selects a sample from the set of languages whose probability of being chosen over another sample is known in advance".

"The general principle behind a variety sample is that the best way to capture the full range of linguistic variation is to select languages that have evolved independently from each other for a long enough time to have developed different strategies for the grammatical expression of the phenomenon under study. That is the greater time depth from divergence, the greater likelihood of diversity" (Ibid.)

In all seven requirements can be posited for a variety samples with a limited number of languages:

1) Genetic non-relatedness;
2) Big diachronic gap;
3) Stability;
4) Geographical spread;
5) Stationary distribution;

6) High degree of language documentation;
7) Data sources.

It is believed that if a variety sample meets all or the majority of the mentioned guidelines, the results of typological analysis of any grammatical phenomena are as valid as the results produced by cross-lnguistic examination of multilanguage variety samples.

As we have been gradually getting tuned to the fact that typology, very broadly speaking, has a twofold purpose: to identify universals and to establish the potential range of variation among languages.

The abovementioned purpose can be understood in simple terms as: typology is not only concerned with the similarities amongst languages, but is also related to the differences that are displayed by different languages.

Consequently, a comparative typological examination of Azerbaijani, English and Russian, which is a two or minimum member variety sample, a-priori, requires their inspection from the point of view of enumerated requirements to guarantee fairness and trustworthiness of obtained results. Luckily, the Azerbaijani, English and Russian variety sample is just such a formation since it meets the above outlined specifications for the selection of typologically well-grounded and weighty material.

Hence, the goal of this research is to check the Azerbaijani, English and Russian variety sample for aptness and suitability with the desiderata posited for limited-member variety samples and to inspect only the first requirement, i.e. non-genetic relatedness of languages. To place the sample in the correct context, a brief sketch of present socio-linguistic characteristics of the three languages is outlined below.

There can be no end to the great admiration at our native tongue being so ancient, taking into account that the works, from which these words have been taken, were written more than 2600 years B.C. (Shuruppakdan tapılmış gil üzərində mixi yazı).

Nowadays, the assumptions, methods, and focus of current typological research have all drastically changed. Yet, it is important for us that we trace the historical development of the discipline in order to understand the transition of early typological research work.

We would also examine the status of language typology in present time and the current research work that are being carried out in the field. We would also demonstrate how the present typological research have gone through major change, a change that is taking place even in modern time in order to widen up the research goal in the field of typology.

Like any living organism, a language could develop over time, but it would always have its essence protected and preserved in all its developments. They believed English, German, French, Russian, Arabic and Chinese, as the international languages, differ from each other because of the inner character of the people and the differences in their culture. It is this difference of character and culture of the speakers of the language that gave rise to the differences that are found in languages.

The abovementioned notion is difficult to grasp in modern times as it is far removed form the current understanding of human language. The form and nature of language could definitely influence the thinking (shaping the worldview) of the speakers, however, the vice-versa effect seems little awkward, unless there is some solid scientific proof.

We must not forget that the significance of any new development has its real value in its own period. Meaning, if a theory or a hypothesis is presented one or two, may be three hundred years ago, we can't evaluated its direct relevance in present time and say how wrong the theory is!

So, we must be sensitive to this because the resources, the prevailing line of thinking and many other factors in a given period of time influence our work and the process of theorization. Some development might cross the boundary of time line, but we should not evaluate every development with the yardstick of present time.

In present, most of the researches working in different areas of Linguistics begin their work with the belief that language is explicable purely in physical terms. If we hold this view, we should say that the production and comprehension of the sentences is ultimately nothing more than the firing of neurons.

Now, this could have been totally incomprehensible for a good share of human history and a laughable stuff for most of civilization in the past. However, in modern times it is a well-known fact that the neurons themselves are subject to the same physical laws which account for planetary motion, the properties of light, and reproduction.

Therefore, we should not hold it against for the scholarship of the researchers just because their theory and line of thinking can not be applied and accepted hundred percent as it is in present time.

No doubt this undeniable lingual testimony of lexical and semantic likeness can find its exhaustive explanation only on the basis of historical typology and its present-day scientific methods of analysis. Not excluded completely could also be other approaches, some of which are already familiar to our students.

Lecture 3. The Notion of Language Type and Type in the Language. The Levels of Typological Studies. The Notion of Pattern Language – Metalanguage (Literary). Notion of Etalon Language. Language Universals.

1. The Notion of Language Type and Type in the Language.
2. Types of Language. Typology according to Levels of Language Hierarchy.
3. The Levels of Typological Studies. Typology according to Levels of Language Hierarchy.
4. The Notion of Pattern Language – Metalanguage (literary).
5. The Notion of Isomorphism and Allomorphism.
6. Notion of Etalon Language.
7. Language Universals.

1. The Notion of Language Type and Type in the Language.

One of the main problems in linguistic typology is the notion of language type. Up today there is no unity of opinion on this notion. Here different view points may be distinguished.

Dealing with the problem professor ***V.D.Arakin*** writes: "Under the type of separate languages we understand stable totality of the main features of the given language, which have certain relations between themselves. Presence or absence of any feature is conditioned by the presence or absence of other feature or features."

Some other view points can be mentioned here in connection with the said problem, but we consider ***V.D.Arakin***'s opinion on this problem more acceptable.

Investigation of kindred (cognate) and non-kindred (non-cognate) languages shows that there are certain properties characterizing different language types in every language. Fpr instance, in English where analytical forms dominate, one can observe features of agglutinative type: the morphemes: "-en, -s, -es" express only plurality, such as "oxen, trees, dresses"; "-er, -est" denote only degrees of comparison of the

adjective; “-ed” expresses only the Past Indefinite Tense of the verb which shows the agglutinative nature of these suffixes.

The same can be said about the absence of grammatical category of gender and the absence of agreement between nouns and adjectives in English, such as “the new town – the new towns”; “yeni şəhər - yeni şəhərlər”; “новый город – новые города”.

In Russian where features of the synthetic feature dominate one can observe features of analytical strucrure which exist in the formation of Future Tense Form such as “буду читать”, “буду говорить”,etc. and in the formation of the degrees of comparison of the about Azerbaijani Turkish: though the language is rich synthetic adjective, such as “наиболее трудный ”, “самый трудный”,etc.

The same can be said about Azerbaijani, though the language is rich synthetic units, still we may distinguish some analytical forms in the verb and in the adjective, such as “gəlmiş idi, getməkdə idi”, etc. “daha maraqlı, ən maraqlı”, etc. The above mentioned shows that **pure language types** don’t exist in reality.

So, language typology is determined with the features dominating in the given language which are observed almost at all levels of language structure.

Comparing various cognate and non-cognate languages we can find out some similar properties in them. For example, in all Turkic languages we find the following similar features:

1) Vowel harmony at the phonological level;

2) Monosemy of affixes at the morphological level;

3) Absence of agreement as a type of syntactical relation at the sentence level;

4) Position of the attribute before the word it modifies at the level of word combination;

5) Absence of sound alternation at the morphemic level;

6) Unchangeability of root of the word at the lexemic level, etc.

For a number of languages such stable totality of main features forms a certain language type, namely Turkic languages.

The language type is understood as a fixed set of main features of a language which are in definite relations with each other irrelatively a concrete language. For instance: **flexional, agglutinative, amorphous or isolating, polysynthetic languages**.

In general linguistics traditionally **four language types** are distinguished:

1. Flexional – the Indo-European and Semitic languages;

2. Agglutinative – Turkic languages, Finno-Ugric, Japanese, Tungus and some African languages;

3. Amorphous or isolating – Chinese;

4. Polysynthetic – Chukchi, languages of American Indians.

When we speak about the **type in the language** we mean special language features existing in the system of this or that language (or these (those) languages). For instance: in some languages stress is free, but in others it is fixed (English-French).

Ways of expressing plurality in English – synthetically, with sound alternation. In Azerbaijani – synthetically, too.

So, type in the language reveals the presence of these or those types of language expression in the given language. E.g. the types of language expression of the English verb are the following:

a) Synthetic, such as: goes, walked;

b) Analytical, such as: shall go, will go, should go, would go;

c) Sound alternation, such as: take – took, give – gave, send – sent;

d) Suppletive forms, such as: be - was-were; go-went, etc.

The type of the language is understood as a fixed set of main features of a language which are in definite relations with each other, and the presence or absence of one feature causes the presence or absence of another. For instance: disappearing of the category of case in Old English > disappearing of the declensions of nouns, adjectives > fixed word order.

2. Types of Language.

As is known, language incorporates the three constituent parts, each being inherent in it by virtue of its social nature. These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system and the grammatical system. Only the unity of these three systems forms a language, without any of them there is no human language. These systems are closely interconnected and interdependent. Within these three systems following levels may be distinguished:

1) Phonological level; i.e. the level of language sounds;

2) Phonetic level; i.e. the level of sounds in speech;

3) Morphological level; i.e. the level of word forms;

4) Syntactical level; i.e. the level of the phrase and the sentence;

5) Lexical level; i.e. the level of words.

3. **The Levels of Typological studies. Typology according to Levels of Language Hierarchy.**

Accordingly language typology compares the units of the above mentioned levels. Delimitation of language levels is of great importance for typological investigation of language structure. Without such delimitation it is impossible to find out the similarities and differences between languages. In this way according to the level of language hierarchy the following language typology may be given:

1) Phonological typology of languages;

2) Phonetic typology of languages;

3) Morphological typology of languages;

4) Syntactical typology of languages;

5) Lexical typology of languages.

Phonological typology compares units of phonology, i.e. the phonemic levels of languages. Its aim is to find out phonological differential features in compared languages. Phonological systems of different languages are compared according to the

interrelations of their consonant and vowel elements considered as distinct and separate phonemes. This sort of classification was first given by Trubetskoy.

Phonetic typology compares units of the phonetic level of languages. Mainly it studies concrete physical units. Phonetic typology may compare units of kindred and non-kindred languages. E.D.Polivanov is considered to be one of the founders of phonetic typology.

According to the character of investigation **morphological typology** may be divided into two types:

1) Morphological typology studying morphological classification of language;

2) Morphological typology studying special problems in the language.

The first type of morphological typology studies morphological classification of languages. Investigating general problems of classification of languages according to certain types it determines language types. The second type of morphological typology studies special problems. Here different morphological units, such as grammatical categories of different notional parts of speech, noun-forming suffixes, adjective-forming suffixes, etc. may be compared.

Syntactical typology compares units of the syntactical level. Main units for comparison here are phrases and sentences of languages. Depending on the character of investigation syntactical typology may consist of the following subdivisions:

a) Comparing units of the phrase level;

b) Comparing units of the sentence level;

c) Comparing units of the different level.

I.I.Meschaninov was the first who worked out the problems of syntactical typology. In these investigations parts of sentences are treated as universal categories.

In our linguistics ***O.I.Musayev*** is the founder of syntactical typology. His investigation dedicated to the problem "Word Order in English and Azerbaijani Sentences" is of great importance from theoretical and practical point of view. Investigating the problem he brought the light to the specific features of word order in

English and Azerbaijani sentences. As a result of his investigation he found out differences and similarities in the word order of the compared languages, i.e. in English and Azerbaijani.

Lexical typology compares units of the lexical level of languages. It may have several subdivisions:

a) Lexical typology of words;

b) Word-building typology;

c) Comparative lexicography typology;

d) Lexico-statistic typology;

e) Lexical typology of borrowings;

f) Lexical typology of phraseology;

g) Lexical typology of proverbs and sayings;

h) Lexical typology of onomastics (name study);

i) Lexical typology of toponymy (place-name study);

j) Lexical typology of terminology.

4. The Notion of Pattern Language – Metalanguage (Literary).

Broadly, any metalanguage is language or symbols used when language itself is being discussed or examined (2010, Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press). In Logic and Linguistics, a metalanguage is a language used to make statements about statements in another language (the object language). Expressions in a metalanguage are often distinguished from those in an object language by the use of italics, quotation marks, or writing on a separate line. The structure of sentenves in a metalanguage can be described by a **metasyntax** (***A. van Wijngaarden***, 1976).

There are a variety of recognized metalanguages, including embedded, ordered and nested or hierarchical.

An **embedded metalanguage** is a language formally, naturally and firmly fixed in an object language. This idea is found in ***Douglas Hofstadter***'s book "Gödel, Escher, Bach: An Eternal Golden Braid", in a discussion of the relationship between formal languages and number theory: "it is in the nature of any formalization of number theory that its metalanguage is embedded within it" (***Hofstadter, D.***, 1979). It occurs in natural, or informal, languages, as well, such as in Engllish, where words such as "noun", "verb", or even "word" describe pertaining to the English language itself.

An **ordered metalanguage** is analogous to ordered logic. An example of an ordered metalanguage is the construction of one metalanguage to discuss an object language, followed by the creation of another metalanguage to discuss the first, etc.

A **nested** or **hierarchical metalanguage** is similar to an ordered metalanguage in that each level represents a greater degree of abstraction. However, a nested metalanguage differs from an ordered one in that each level includes the one below. The paradigmatic example of a nested metalanguage comes from the Linnean taxonomic system in Biology. Each level in the system incorporates the one below it. The language used to discuss genus is also used to discuss species; the one used to discuss orders is also used to discuss genera, etc. up to kingdoms.

Natural language combines nested and ordered metalanguages. In a natural language there is an infinite regress of metalanguages, each with more specialized vocabulary and simpler syntax. The grammar of the language is a discourse in the metalanguage, which is a sublanguage nested within language.

5. The Notion of Isomorphism and Allomorphism.

For typology it's also very important to establish likeness of the given systems. Such likeness or parallelism of language structure of separate micro or macro systems is called **isomorphism**.

Enver Akhmedovich Makayev determines isomorphism as the uniformity of a structure of language units constituting the given level.

Allomorphism is the variety of the structure of language units forming the given level.

6. Notion of Etalon Language.

Etalon Language is a hypothetic language created by typologists for the sake of contrasting any language. It is supposed to contain exhaustive qualitative and quantitative data or characteristics concerning all existing units and phenomena (vowels, consonants, syllables, morphological categories, etc).

7. Language Universals.

Universal features which exist in all languages are called language universals. For example:

a) In all languages sounds are divided into vowels and consonants;

b) In most languages we find pronouns, especially personal pronouns, for the first and second persons;

c) Each language has proper and common nouns;

d) Each language has verb system, etc.

The final purpose of language typology is to find out language universals in different languages.

Language Universals Kinds.

Universal is a principle or a pattern shared by all or almost all languages.

Absolute universals are the features or phenomena of a language level pertaining to any language of the world. All languages have pronouns, vowels and consonants, parts of speech, etc.

Near universals are the features or phenomena common in many or some languages, for example, SVO order.

Sometimes a universal holds only if a particular condition of the language structure is fulfilled. These universals are called implicational. Universals which can be stated without a condition are called **nonimplicational**.

Lecture 4. Families of Languages in the World Today. Classification of Languages: Genealogical, Typological or Morphological and Areal.

1. Families of Languages in the World Today.

2. Classification of Languages: Genealogical, Typological or Morphological and Areal.

1. Families of languages in the world today.

A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called the **proto-language** of that family. There are over 100 language families in the world. The most widespread language families are:

The Indo-European Family is the most widely studied family of languages and the family with the largest number of speakers. Languages include English, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian, Russian, Greek, Hindi, Bengali; and the classical languages of Latin, Sanskrit, and Persian.

The Uralic Family is a family found in Europe (Hungarian, Finnish) and Siberia (Mordvin) with complex noun structures.

The Altaic Family is a family spread from Europe (Turkish) through Centra Asia (Uzbek), Mongolia (Mongolian), to the Far East (Korean, Japanese). These languages have the interesting property of vowel harmony.

The Sino-Tibetan Family is an important Asian family of languages that includes the world's most spoken language, Mandarin. These languages are monosyllabic and tonal.

The Malayo-Polynesian Family is a family consisting of over 1000 languages spread throughout the Indian and Pacific Oceans as well South East Asia. Languages include Malay, Indonesian, Maori and Hawaiian.

The Afro-Asiatic Family is a family that contains languages of northern Africa and the Middle East. The dominant languages are Arabic and Hebrew.

The Caucasian Family is a family based around the Caucas Mountains between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea. Georgian and Chechen are the main languages. They are known for their large number of consonants.

The Dravidian Family contains the languages of southern India (in contrast to the Indo-European languages of northern India). Tamil is the best known of these languages.

Austro-Asiatic Family is a family of a scattered group of languages in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam. Languages include Vietnamese and Khmer.

Niger-Congo Family is a family features the many languages of Africa south of the Sahara. The large number of languages includes Swahili, Shona, Xhosa and Zulu.

2. Classification of Languages: Genealogical, Typological or Morphological and Areal.

Three types of classification of world languages are distinguished in Linguistics: genealogical and morphological or typological. Genealogical classification of languages is closely and directly connected with the historical development of languages. It studies languages in inseparable connection with history of the people to whom the language understudy belongs and who are the creators of languages.

The aim of Genealogical classification is to determine relationship of languages, especially, cognate (kindred) languages. In this classification the historical-comparative method is used. The following language families are usually indicated in linguistic literature.

1) The Indo-European language family. This family consists of 10 or 12 language groups and each group at the same time consists of several subgroups. Here we are interested in the Germanic and Slavonic groups, first of which consists of three subgroups:

1. Scandinavian subgroup;

2. East-German subgroup;

3. West-German subgroup.

The West-German subgroup consists of the following languages: the English, the German, the Dutch, and the Frisian.

The English language is one of the widely used languages of the world. It is spoken in England, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Liberia and some other countries. Geographically English is the most widespread language on Earth, second only to Mandareen Chinese in the number of the people who speak it (70% of the population of China). Nowadays English is the most widespread with 400 million speakers. English has the largest vocabulary with approximately half a million of words and 300.000 thousand technical terms. English is the language of technology, business, sport and aviation. So, English belongs to Indo-European language family, Germanic group, the West-German subgroup.

Russian belongs to Indo-European language family, Slavonic (Slavic) subgroup, East-Slavonic subgroup.

2) The second largest language family is Turkic language family, which consists of about 32 languages. It must be said that up-today the classification of Turkic languages remains controversial. In different sources one can meet various classifications. The Azerbaijani language belongs to Turkic language family, Oghuz group, Oghuz-Saldjuk subgroup together with Turkish, Turkmen and Gagauz.

Generally, in the world 23 language families are distinguished.

The aim of typological or morphological classification is to determine mainly the grammatical structure of the given language. The typological classification of languages enables us to speak about isolating or analytical, agglutinative or inflecting types. English is in fact affairly mixed type of languages. Invariable words, such as prepositions, conjunctions and many adverbs are isolating in type and in many cases they are mono-morphemic, ex.: since, from, as, when, etc. Their grammatical states and class membership are determined by their syntactic relations to the rest of the

sentence in which they appear without any formal mark of their own word-structure. Sometimes in English the process of agglutination may be observed, ex.: stabilizer-stabilizers. English noun plurals like “men” are inflectional in structure as against the grammatically equivalent agglutinative forms like “cars”.

The Turkic languages are the typically purest agglutinative ones. Here word-forming and word-changing mono-semantic suffixes associate with the root of the word in the direct succession. Besides the Turkic languages Finno-Ugric, Japanese, Korean and some African languages are also of agglutinative type.

The West-Germanic languages are divided into following groups: Dutch, High-German and Low-German.

The principal High-German is modern German- also known as Standard German. The surviving Low-German languages are: Dutch, Flemish, Frisian and English. Dutch- is the language of the Netherlands, Flemish or Belgian. Dutch is spoken in Northern Belgium. More than half of the Belgian population speaks Flemish though French is currently used throughout the country. Frisian is spoken by the people on the coastal Irelands of the North Sea, particularly in the North Netherlands, province of Frisland. Frisian differs considerably from Dutch and is nearest of the Germanic languages to English. English is considered to be an offshoot of an Anglo-Frisian dialect that must have been fairly widespread before the Germanic tribes invaded England.

As we mentioned, modern Indo-European languages are divided into several groups, such as: Indian, Romance, Slavic (Slavonic), Iranian, Greek, Baltic.

The Slavonic languages are divided into three subgroups: East-Slavonic subgroup includes Russian, Ukrainian, and Byelorussian.

The typological classification of languages enables to divide languages into:

1) Inflecting or inflexional languages;
2) Agglutinative or agglutinating languages;
3) Amorphous or isolating languages (the only language- Chinese);

4) Incorporating or polysynthetic languages.

1) Флективные: индоевропейские, семитские;

2) Агглютинативные: тюркские, монгольские, тунгусо-маньчжурские, финно-угорские, японский;

3) Изолирующие: языки китайской группы;

4) Полисинтетические: чукотско-камчадальские и языки американских индейцев.

The aim of areal classification is to compare languages irrespective of their relationship in order to determine common (general) elements formed as a result of mutual influence of languages existing in a definite area. The object of such investigation is borrowed elements in languages, language contact, language – union and bilingualizm.

Lecture 5. Methods of Comparative Typological Research: Comparative, Comparative-Historical, Comparative-Typological, Distributional, Transformational, Deductive, Inductive and Statistic.

There are many languages on Earth, both great and small. According to modern calculaion the number of living languages exceed 2500 (two thousand and five hundred) languages. Alongside of highly-developed national languages with ancient writing and literature, there are languages having no writing and no recorded history. Here belong the spoken languages of tribes and small nationalities in America, Africa, Australia. Many of the spoken languages are dieinig out together with peoples. Due to the misirable condition they have been reduced to by the higher European civilization, as is the case with the aboriginal Indian tribes in America or Australia. On the other hand the number of known languages is still growing as new languages and dialects come to be recorded and studied by science.

Observing the fact that some of the languages are very similar to one another in their forms while others are quite dissimilar, scholars still long ago expressed the idea that languages revealing formal features of similarity have a common origin.

The comparative method aims at establishing the isomorphic (alongside of allomorphic) features and on their basis the determining of structural types of languages under contrastive investigation.

Attempts to establish the groups of kindred languages were repeatedly made from the XVI-th century on. But a consistently scientific proof and study of the actual kinship (relationship) between languages became possible only when **the historical-comparative method** of language study was created in the first quarter of the XIX-th century. The historical-comparative method developed in connection with the comparative observation of languages belonging to the Indo-European family and its appearance was stimulated by the discovery of Sanskrit.

The relations between the languages of the Indo-European family were studied systematically and scientifically at the beginning of the XIX-th century by ***Franz Bopp, Rasmus Kristian Rask, Jacob Grimm, Alexander Khristoforovich Vostokov*** and others. These scientists not only made comparative and historical observations of the kindred languages, but they defined the fundamental conception of linguistic kinship and created the historical-comparative method in Linguistics.

The appearance of this method marks the rise of Linguistics as a science in the strict sense of the word. After that the historical-comparative study of the Indo-European languages became the principal line of European Linguistics for many years to come.

The historical-comparative method is a system of analytical procedures applied to the study of languages in their historical development. It is used to analyze and discover the relationship of different languages and groups of languages, to reconstruct prehistoric elements in the sense that they are not fixed in written monuments, to reveal the course of historical development of lingual elements in their complex interrelationship. By means of this method science collects materials for studying general laws of language development.

The following general conceptions of different aspects of language and its development underline the foundations of the historical-comparative method:

1) Families of languages originate due to historical division of languages;

2) Lingual signs or signals are arbitrary in the sense that there is no natural connection between their forms and the things or ideas they signify;

3) The historical development of language is continual but uneven.

Now let’s consider these fundamental conceptions and their consequences separately.

1) The comparative - historical method proceeds from the possibility for different languages to have been originated from the same source. The division of one language into two or more languages is brought about by the division of language

speaking community due to political and economic factors. Since language is always changing historically the isolation of daughter communities can lead to the growing differences in their language, to the rise of dialects which in the process of further change can developed into totally different though related languages.

2) The actual kinship or non-kinship of different languages is revealed on the basis of systematic comparison of their forms.The comparison of native words of Indo-European languages can evidence their kinship,ex.: брат; brother; Bruder; мать; mother; Mutter.

3) Language develops unevenly. It concerns all the structural elements of language. It is connected with the fact that different structural elements of language specifically react to and reflect the history of the people. It follows from this that elements no longer existing in one language may be preserved in another kindred language.

Thus, comparing different languages and their forms linguists can reconstruct and more exactly formulate the historical changes in languages. For instance, comparing the forms of the word “father” in different Indo-European languages scientists reconstruct the word “pater”.

At same time it must be noted that **the comparative - historical method** has certain limitations:

1) It is limited by the material it can use;

2) It is difficult and sometimes impossible to define the time and even the relative chronology of lingual changes;

3) The historical-comparative method can be chiefly applied to languages with ancient writing, i.e. to languages having a long written tradition or history;

4) It is applied only to the comparative study of kindred languages.

Besides the comparative - historical method some other methods, such as comparative-typological, distributional and transformational can be used in typological analysis of languages.

The most favourite method of linguistic description is that of **distribution**, the founder of which is ***Lee Stevens Harris***. He wrote in his works that linguistic procedures were directed at a twice made application of two major steps. The setting up of elements and statement of the distribution of these elements relative to each other. The term distribution is of recent origin.

The difference between the distributional and structural approaches is that the former didn't rely on this method.

Modern linguists have another method of investigation which developed by ***Noam*** **Chomsky**. It has become as **the transformational generative method**. According to it, sentences have a surface and a deep structure. The surface structure is more complicated based on one or more underlinedabstract simple structures. It's based on synthetic, semantic, phonological parts.

The synthetic component includes description of both deep and surface structure.

The semantic component provides a semantic interpretation of deep structure.

The phonological component provides phonetic structure of the surface structure of the sentence.

There are also the deductive, inductive and statistic methods.

The deductive method is based on logical calculation which suggests all the possible variants of realization of a certain feature - phenomenon in speech of one or more contrasted languages.

The inductive method which needs novarification, since the investigated feature was proved by linguists and therefore the results obtained are possible.

The statistic method for establishing the necessary quantitative and qualitative representation of some features or for identifying the percentage of co-ocurrence of some features or linguistic units in the contrasted languages.

Lecture 6. Typology of Phonological Systems.

1. History of English pronunciation.

2. The notion of phonological level.

3. Constants in phonology.

4. Contrastive phonetics: speech sounds within the sound system.

5. Contrastive phonology: system of phonological units.

6. Phonemes, distinctive, constitutive and recognative functions.

7. Vowels / Consonants.

8. Allophones.

9. Syllables.

10. Combination of phonemes.

11. Phonemes consist of onset and coda.

12. Word stress (primary / secondary).

13. Prosody (melody, rhythm, pauses, tone).

14. Typology of the vowel system in the languages compared.

15. Oppositions in the system of vowels.

16. Phonemes, syllables, stress, intonation as criteria for phonological comparison.

1. History of English pronunciation.

The pronunciation system of English has undergone many changes throughout the history of the language, from the phonological system of Old English, to that of Middle English, through to that of the present day. Variation between dialects has always been significant. Former pronunciations of many words are reflected in their spellings, as English orthography has generally not kept pace with phonological changes since the Middle English period.

The English consonant system has been relatively stable over time, although a number of significant changes have occurred. Examples include the loss (in most dialects) of the [g] and [h] sounds still reflected by the "gh" in words like "night" - [naɪt] and "taught" - [tɔːt], and the splitting of voiced and voiceless allophones of fricatives into separate phonemes (such as the two different phonemes represented by "th"). There have also been many changes in consonant clusters, mostly reductions, for instance those that produced the usual modern pronunciations of such letter combinations as "wr", "kn" and "wh".

The development of vowels has been much more complex. One of the most notable series of changes is that known as the Great Vowel Shift, which began around the late 14-th century. Here the [iː] and [uː] in words like "price" - [praɪs] and "mouth" - [mauθ] became diphthongized, and other long vowels became higher: [eː] became [iː] (as in "meet"), [aː] became [eː] and later [eɪ] (as in "name"), [oː] became [uː] (as in "goose"), and [ɔː] became [oː] and later [oʊ] (in RP now [əʊ]; as in "bone").

These shifts are responsible for the modern pronunciations of many written vowel combinations, including those involving a silent final "e".

Many other changes in vowels have taken place over the centuries. These various changes mean that many words that formerly rhymed no longer do. For example, in Shakespeare's time, following the Great Vowel Shift, "food", "good" and "blood" all had the vowel [uː], but in modern pronunciation "good" has been shortened to [ʊ], while "blood" has been shortened and lowered to [ʌ] in most accents. In other cases, words that were formerly distinct have come to be pronounced the same – examples of such mergers include "meet" –"meat", "pane" – "pain" and "toe" – "tow".

The founder of the phoneme theory was ***Ivan Alexandrovich Baudouin de Courtenay***, the Russian scientist of Polish origin. He defined the difference between a phoneme and a speech sound. He treated a phoneme as a meaningful unit, and a speech sound as a unit of speech, not connected with any meaning. He regarded the

phoneme as an ideal mental image. His conception was called “mentalist view of the phoneme”.

The theory was further developed by ***Lev Vladimirovich Shcherba***, the head of the Leningrad linguistic school, who stated that in the spoken language a much greater number of various sounds are pronounced than we usually think and these sounds in every language are united in a comparatively small number of sound types, which are capable of distinguishing the meaning and the form of words; i.e. they serve the purpose of social intercommunication. Such sounds he called **phonemes**. The actually pronounced speech sounds are variants or **allophones**. In other words he defined the phoneme as a real independent distinctive unit which manifests itself in the form of allophones. This conception is called **materialistic**.

As we above mentioned the founder of the phoneme theory was ***I.A.Baudouin de Courtenay***, then it was developed by ***L.V.Shcherba***. But many foreign schools have been also interested in this question.

1. ***Ferdinand de Saussure***, the Swiss linguist. He viewed phonemes as the sum of acoustic impressions and articulatory movements. He regarded the phoneme independent of the phonetic properties. This conception is called **abstractional**.

2. The functional conception regards the phoneme as the minimal sound unit by which meanings may be differentiated without much regard to actually pronounced speech sounds. Meaning differentiation is taken to be a defining characteristic of phonemes, thus the absence of palatalisation in [dark l] and palat-on in [clear l] in English do not differentiate meanings and therefore cannot be assigned to different phonemes, but both form allophones of the phoneme (l). The same articulatory features of Russian [л], [л’] do differentiate meanings and must be assigned to different phonemes in Russian. For example, “мол-моль”, “лог-лёг”, “дол-доля”. This view is shared by ***Nikolay Sergeevich Trubetskoy*** (the head of the Prague Linguistic School), ***Leonard Bloomfield***, ***Roman Osipovich Jakobson***.

3. The **physical conception** was originated by ***Daniel Jones***, the head of the London School of Phonology. He defined the phoneme as a family of sounds. The members of the family must show phonetic similarity to one another, in other words be related in character. No member of the family can occur in the same phonetic context as any other member.

This view was shared by the American scientists ***Bernard Bloch*** and ***George Leonard Trager.*** They define the phoneme as a class of phonetically similar sounds, contrasting and mutually exclusive with all similar classes in the language. This approach may seem to be vulgarly materialistic since it views the phoneme as a group of articulatory similar sounds without any regard to its functional and abstract aspects.

2. The notion of phonological level.

Phonetics deals with speech sounds. In Greek "Phoneticos" means pertaining to voice and sounds. The significance of Phonetics is evident since speech is the most important means of human intercourse.

Closely associated with Phonetics is another branch of Linguistics known as **Phonology**.

Separate segments of speech have no meaning of their own, they mean smth only in combinations which are called "words". So Phonetics studies sounds as articulatory and acoustic units, and Phonology investigates sounds as units, which serve communicative purposes. Phonetics and Phonology are closely connected. The unit of Phonetics is a speech sound; the unit of Phonology is a phoneme.

Phonemes can be discovered by a method of minimal pairs. This method consists in finding pairs of words, which differ in one phoneme. Ex, if we replace /c/ by /b/ in word "cat", we reproduce a new word "bat", so this is a pair of words distinguished in meaning by a single sound change. Two words of this kind are termed a "minimal pair".

It's possible to take this process further, we can also reproduce "can-ran-man" – it's a "minimal set". The change of the vowel in "ban-bun-bone-burn-born".

To establish the phonemes of the language the phonologists try to find pairs that show which sounds occur or do not occur in identical positions – commutation test.

The phonemes of a language form the system of oppositions, in which any phomene is usually opposed to any other phoneme in at least one position, one lexical or grammatical minimal pair. If the substitution one sound for other results in the change of meaning, the commuted sounds is different phonemes, speech sounds which are phonologically significant.

So, **Phonology** is the link between **Phonetics** and the rest of **Linguistics**. Only by studying both the phonetics and the phonology of English is it possible to acquire a full understanding of the use of sounds in English speech.

To know how sounds are produced is not enough to describe and classify them as language units. When we talk about the sounds of language, the term "sound" can be interpreted in two different ways.

The most important function of language is to serve for intercourse. No idea can be expressed without sentences which consist of words. Spoken words in all languages consist of language sounds. Therefore, any spoken language is, first of all, a language of sounds.

In order to speak a foreign language one must be able to pronounce words and sentences in that language correctly. At the same time a learner of a foreign language must distinguish similarities and differences existing in both languages (native and foreign).

As we know, the lowest level in any language is the phonemic level consisting of different phonemes. **The phoneme** is the smallest sound unit of language capable of distinguishing one word from another, or one grammatical form of the same word from another. For example: "man"-"men"; "bag"-"back"; "dark"-"duck", etc.

Every language has its own way of using the organs of speech, its own type and place of stress in words and sentences, different use of intonation in speech and so on.

3. Constants in phonology.

Like many other languages, English has wide variation in pronunciation, both historically and from dialect to dialect. In general, however, the regional dialects of English share a largely similar (but not identical) phonological system. Among other things, most dialects have vowel reduction in unstressed syllables and a complex set of phonological features that distinguish fortis and lenis consonants (stops, affricates, and fricatives).

Most dialects of English preserve the consonant /w/ (spelled "w") and many preserve /θ, ð/(spelled "th"), while most other Germanic languages have shifted them to /v/ and /t, d/: compare English "will" /wɪl/ and then /ðɛ/ with German "will" [vɪl] ("want") and "denn" [dɛn].

Phonological analysis of English often concentrates on or uses, as a reference point, one or more of the prestige or standard accents, such as Received Pronunciation for England, General American for the United States, and General Australian for Australia.

Nevertheless, many other dialects of English are spoken, which have developed independently from these standardized accents, particularly regional dialects. Information about these standardized accents functions only as a limited guide to all of **English phonology**, which one can later expand upon once one becomes more familiar with some of the many other dialects of English that are spoken.

The aim of the phonological analysis is, firstly, to determine which differences of sounds are phonemic and which are non-phonemic and, secondly, to find the inventory of phonemes of the language.

Semantic method is based on a phonemic rule that phonemes can distinguish words and morphemes when opposed to one another. This method consists:

1) In finding minimal pairs of words and their grammatical forms. By minimal pair we mean a pair of words or morphemes which are differentiated by only one phoneme in the same position, for example, “cat” [kæt] and “bat” [bæt].

2) In systematic substitution of one sound for another in order to find out in which cases the phonetic context remains the same, such replacing leads to a change of meaning:

a) The pronunciation of a different word form;

b) The pronunciation of a meaningless sequence of sounds;

c) A different repetition variant pronunciation of the same word or form.

Distributional method. Two Laws of phonemic and allophonic distribution:

1) Allophones of different phonemes always occur in the same phonemic context

2) Allophones of the same phoneme never occur in the same phonemic context and always occur in different positions.

If more or less different speech sounds occur on the same phonetic context, they should be allophones of different phonemes.There are three types of distribution: contrastive, complementary and free variation.

We should remind you here that the features of a phoneme that are capable of differentiating the meaning are termed as relevant or distinctive. The features that do not take part in differentiating the meaning are termed as irrelevant or non-distinctive. The latter may be of two kinds:

a) Incidental or redundant features, for example, aspiration of voiceless plosives, presence of voice in voiced consonants, length of vowels;

b) Indispensable or concomitant features, for example, tenseness of English long monophtongs, the checked character of stressed short vowels, lip rounding of back vowels.

It is well to remember that a single opposition remains single if it members differ from each other irrelevant both incidental and concomitant features.

A phoneme of a language or dialect is an abstraction of a speech sound or of a group of different sounds which are all perceived to have the same function by speakers of that particular language or dialect. For example, the English word “through” consists of three phonemes: the initial “th” sound, the “r” sound, and a vowel sound. The phonemes in this and many other English words do not always correspond directly to the letters used to spell them (English orthography is not as strongly phonemic as that of many other languages).

The number and distribution of phonemes in English vary from dialect to dialect, and also depend on the interpretation of the individual researcher. The number of consonant phonemes is generally put at 24 (or slightly more). The number of vowels is subject to greater variation; in the system presented on this page there are 20 vowel phonemes in Received Pronunciation, 14-16 in General American and 20-21 in Australian English. The pronunciation keys used in dictionaries generally contain a slightly greater number of symbols than this, to take account of certain sounds used in foreign words and certain noticeable distinctions that may not be, strictly speaking, phonemic.

4. Contrastive phonetics: speech sounds within the sound system.

Contrastive phonetics is defined as a method which is used to compare the similarities and differences in the chain of speech communication between two languages, (i.e. similarities and differences in the phonetic processes taking place in the production and perception of speech). It is claimed that traditional contrastive phonology is insufficient to explain many of the difficulties that are met by foreign language students as a result of interference in the phonetic processing of speech.

Traditional contrastive analysis must be supplemented by an analysis of the phonetic structures in the native and target language and in the approximative systems of foreign language students.

The method of contrastive phonetics involves an empirical analysis of the entire chain of speech communication as employed by speakers of both languages as well as an analysis of the interlanguage from the viewpoint of both the sender and the receiver of the linguistic message.

5. Contrastive phonology: system of phonological units.

The modern English alphabet is a Latin alphabet consisting of 26 letters, each having an uppercase and a lowercase form, and the same letters constitute the ISO basic Latin alphabet. The exact shape of printed letters varies depending on the typeface and font, and the shape of handwritten letters can differ significantly from the standard printed form, especially when written in cursive style.

English is the only major modern European language requiring no diacritics for native words. Written English has a number of digraphs. The alphabet's current form originated from Latin script about 7-th century. Since then, various letters have been added or removed to give the current Modern English alphabet.

Russian is written using the Cyrillic alphabet, which consists of 33 letters (42 sounds: 6 of them vowels and 36 consonants), some of whose letters are similar to letters in the Latin alphabet used by English. Russian learners of English may experience initial problems writing in English. These problems should decline as, following the fall of the Iron Curtain, Russians become more exposed to English in their everyday lives.

Modern Azerbaijani alphabet of the Republic of Azerbaijan is a Latin-script alphabet, which consists of 32 letters: 9 vowels and 23 consonants. This superseded previous versions based on Cyrillic and Arabic scripts.

In Iran, the Arabic script is used to write the Azeri language. While there have been a few standardization efforts, the orthography and the set of letters used differs widely among Iranian Azeri writers, with at least two major branches, the orthography

used by ***Behzad Behzadi*** and the "Azari" magazine, and the orthography used by the "Varliq" magazine (both are quarterlies published in Tehran).

From the XIX-th century there were efforts by some intellectuals like ***Mirza Fatali Akhundov*** and ***Mammad agha Shahtakhtinski*** to replace the Arabic script and create a Latin alphabet for Azeri.

In 1929, a Latin alphabet was created by Soviet Union sponsored "Yeni Türk Əlifba Komitəsi" – New Turkish Alphabet Committee in Baku, which hoped that the new alphabet would divide the Azerbaijanis in the USSR from those living in Iran.

An additional reason for the Soviet regime's encouragement of a non-Arabic script was that they hoped the transition would work towards secularizing Azerbaijan's Muslim culture and since language script reform, proposed as early as the XIX-th century by Azeri intellectuals, had previously been rejected by the Azeri religious establishment on the grounds that Arabic script, the language of the ***Koran***, was holy and should not be tampered with there was some historical basis for the reform which received overwhelming support at the First Turcological Congress in Baku during 1926 where the reform was voted for 101 to 7.

The Azerbaijani poet ***Samad Vurgun*** declared "Azerbaijani people are proud of being the first among Oriental nations that buried the Arabic alphabet and adopted the Latin alphabet. This event is written in golden letters of our history" (Sue Wright, 2004).

As a result, in the Soviet Union in 1926 the Uniform Turkic Alphabet was introduced to replace the varieties of the Arabic script in use at the time.

In 1939, during the Red terror campaign, ***Joseph Stalin*** ordered that the Azeri script used in the USSR again be changed, this time to the Cyrillic script in order to sever the Soviet Azerbaijanis ties with the people in the Republic of Turkey.

At the same time that the leaders of the Soviet Union were attempting to isolate the Soviet population of Azeri speakers from the neighbouring populations in Persia and Turkey, the Persian government of the Azeri speaking ***Qajar dynasty*** was

overthrown by ***Reza Shah*** (1925-1941) who quickly established the ***Pahlavi dynasty*** and banned the publication of texts in Azeri.

When the Soviet Union collapsed in 1991 and Azerbaijan gained its independence, one of the first laws passed in the new Parliament was the adoption of a new Latin script alphabet.

Thus, from 1929 until 1939 old Alphabet defined using the Ltin script: Çç, Əə, Ğğ, Ьь, Ө ө, Şş, two - Zz.

From 1939 until 1958 first version of the alphabet defined using the Cyrillic script: Ҷ ҷ, Ə ə, Ҝ ҝ, Ө ө, Y ү and apostrophe.

From 1958 until 1991 simplified version of the alphabet defined using the Cyrillic script and the letter “Jj” borrowed from Latin: Ғ ғ, Əə, J j, Ө ө, Y ү, Һh, Ҷ ҷ, and apostrophe.

From 1991 until 1992 first version of the modern alphabet defined using the Latin script: Aa with two dots at the head of it, Oo with two dots at the head of it - Öö, Uu with two dots at the head of it - Üü.

Since 1992 current version of the modern alphabet defined using the Latin script, replacing “Aa” with two dots at the head of it – withthe historic “Əə” for better sorting.

The Azerbijani alphabet is the same as the Turkish alphabet, except for “Əə”, “Xx” and “Qq”, the letters for sounds which do not exist as separate phonemes in Turkish.

When compared to the historic Latin alphabet: “Ğğ” has replaced the historic “Qq” which has represented in Cyrillic by the stroked “Ғ ғ”; the undotted “Iı”, also used in Turkish, has replaced the historic soft sign; the dotted “İi”, also used in Turkish, has replaced the historic soft-dotted “İi”; “Jj” has replaced the historic “Zz”; “Öö” has replaced the historic “Ө ө”; “Üü” has replaced the historic “Yy”; and “Yy” has replaced the historic “Ji”.

Studying phonology of the compared languages it is necessary to mention that due to differences in the phonological systems, it is relatively difficult for Russians to acquire native-speaker-like standards of pronunciation and intonation.

Russian consists of five vowel sounds, with no differentiation between short and long vowels. This contrasts with English, which has 12 vowel sounds (5 long, 7 short), plus 8 diphthongs. Possibly is the sound in “her”/ “cur”. This sound seems to cause especial difficulties in words beginning with [w], such as “were”, “work”, “worth”. Other vowel problems include the failure to discriminate between the sounds in “sat” / “set” or “sit” / “seat”.

Russian has a similar number of consonants to English, but their sounds do not fully overlap. The [θ] and [ð] sounds do not exist in Russian, so words such as “thin”, “then” and “clothes” are predictably difficult. As with many other learners of English, the [w] and [v] sounds are troublesome, “west” being “vest”, for example, or vice versa. The sound [ŋ] at the end of words like “sing” or “thinking” is difficult for Russian learners to produce accurately. Such words often end up as “sin” or “thinkin”.

The Russian consonants “н, д, т” resemble the English “n, d, t” respectively. In all these Russian sounds we see the difference from the corresponding English sounds. By the fact that while pronouncing the corresponding English sounds the tip of the tongue is pressed to the behind of the upper teeth. The pronunciation of “н” doesn’t change before “к” or “г” into the sound which precedes “k” in English words like “bank”, “tank” where it is substituted by “n” [bæŋk], [tæŋk] – 4 sounds .

The Russian (л) is rather similar to the English, especially American sound “l”; at the end of such words as “full”, “all”, “letter”, “late”. But the difference between the Russian sounds “ы” and “и” is greater than between the vowels in the words “it” and “eat”. English consonants [ʃ], [ʒ], [t], [d] which sound somewhat soft as they have a second place of all obstruction formed by the central part of tongue and the hard palate have this quality regardless of their position in words.

The Russian “ж” - “Житомир”, “Жданов”, is similar to the English sound in such words as “measure” - [meʒə] and “pleasure” – [pleʒə], but in Russian sound is harder. The same can be said about the Russian “ш”, which resembles the English [ʃ] as in the words “shop”, “short” and again the Russian sound is harder. The Russian “ч” is like the English [tʃ] in the words “cheap”, “cheese”; “Челябинск”, “четыре”, but the Russian sound is still softer. The English sounds [θ], [ɛ], [n] are absent in Russian.

And, on the contrary, the Russian “ь” (the soft sign) and “ъ” (the separation sign) are not found in English. The soft sign is generally used to indicate the softness of consonants. The separation sign is used in modern Russian only as a separation sign. A substitute for the separation sign is the apostrophe, but nowadays it is really used. There is constrictive consonant [w] in English, which has bilabial articulation no similar phoneme exists in Russian. There are two more sounds (th) - [θ], [ð], which are absent in Russian.

Generally, the comparison of consonant systems of two languages is as follows:

Features	English	Russian
Explosive	6	12
Constrictive	10	12
Affricates	2	2 (ч, ц)
Sonorants	6	9
Long	-	2 (ж, ш)
TOTAL	24	37

6. Phonemes, distinctive, constitutive and recognative functions.

The phoneme is a minimal abstract linguistic unit realized in speech in the form of speech sounds opposable to other phonemes of the same language to distinguish

the meaning of morphemes and words. ***L.V.Shcherba*** was the first to define a phoneme as a real, independent, distinctive unit which manifests itself in the form of allophones.

V.A.Vasiliev developed this theory and presented a detailed definition of the phoneme in his book "English Phonetics". He wrote that a phoneme is a dialectal unity of three aspects:

1) Material, real, objective;

2) Abstactional and generalized;

3) Functional.

It serves to perform the following functions: **distinctive, constitutive** and **recognative**.

Firstly, the phoneme is a functional unit. In phonetics function is usually understood as a role of the various units of the phonetic system in distinguishing one morpheme from another, one word from another or one utterance from another. The opposition of phonemes in the same phonetic environment differentiates the meaning of morphemes and words, for example: bath-path, light-like. Sometimes the opposition of phonemes serves to distinguish the meaning of the whole phrases, for instance: He was heard badly - He was hurt badly. Thus, we may say that the phoneme can fulfill **the distinctive function**.

Secondly, the phoneme is material, real and objective. That means it is realized in speech in the form of speech sounds, its allophones. The phonemes constitute (составляют) the material form of morphemes, so this function may be called **the constitutive function**.

Thirdly, the phoneme performs **the recognative function**, because the use of the right allophones and other phonetic units facilitates normal recognition. We may add that the phoneme is a material and objective unit as well as an abstract and generalized one at the same time.

7. Vowels / Consonants.

Vowels are speech sounds produced without obstructing the flow of air from the lungs, so that the breath stream passes freely through the mouth.

i: (sheep)	**ɪ** (ship)	**ʊ** (good)	**u:** (shoot)
e (bed)	**ə** (teacher)	**ɜ:** (bird)	**ɔ:** (door)
æ (cat)	**ʌ** (up)	**a:** (far)	**o** (on)

A **vowel** is a sound, such as the **English** “ah” /ɑ:/ or “oh” /oʊ/, produced with an open vocal tract; it is median (the air escapes along the middle of the tongue), oral (at least some of the airflow must escape through the mouth), frictionless and continuant.

Front		**Central**		**Back**	
short	**long**	**short**	**long**	**short**	**long**
ɪ	i:			ʊ	u:
e		ə	ɜ:		ɔ:
æ		ʌ		ɒ	ɑ:
eɪ aɪ ɔɪ aʊ əʊ ɪə eə ʊə					
(eɪə aɪə ɔɪə aʊə əʊə)					

English has a particularly large number of vowel phonemes, and on top of that the vowels of English differ considerably between dialects. Because of this,

corresponding vowels may be transcribed with various symbols depending on the dialect under consideration. When considering English as a whole, lexical sets are often used, each named by a word containing the vowel or vowels in question. For example, the LOT set consists of words which, like "lot", [lɔt] "cloth" [klɔːθ] have /ɒ/ in Received Pronunciation and /ɑ/ in General American.

The "LOT vowel" then refers to the vowel that appears in those words in whichever dialect is being considered, or (at a greater level of abstraction) to a diaphoneme, which represents this interdialectal correspondence. A commonly used system of lexical sets, devised by ***John C. Wells***, is presented below; for each set, the corresponding phonemes are given for RP and General American, using the notation that will be used on this page.

On the articulatory level there are several classifications.

Analyzing **the stability of articulation,** we must mention that the vowel sounds are divided into **monophthongs, diphthongs, and triphthongs**.

A **monophthong** consists of only one vowel sound that does not change during its articulation (i, e, æ, u).

Full monophthongs

æ (tr**a**p, b**a**th)	ɪ (k**i**t)
ɑː (b**a**th, p**a**lm)	e / ɛ (dr**e**ss)
ɒ (lot, cloth)	ʌ (str**u**t)
ɔː (thought)	ʊ (f**oo**t)

A **diphthong** is a complex vowel sound that consists of two components (ei, ai, oi, au).

Potential diphthongs

eɪ (f**a**ce)	iː / i (fl**ee**ce)
əʊ / oʊ (g**oa**t)	uː / u (g**oo**se)

Full diphthongs

aɪ (pr**i**ce)	ɔɪ (ch**oi**ce)	aʊ (mouth)

A **triphthong** is a complex vowel sound that consists of three components.

auə (**our**)	aɪə (**fire**)	eiə (pl**aye**r)

Pre – R vowels

ɜː(r) / ɜr (n**ur**se)	ɔː(r)/ ɔr (n**or**th)
ɑː(r) / ɑr (st**ar**t)	ɔr, oʊr(f**or**ce)
ɪə(r) / ɪr (n**ea**r)	ʊə(r)/ ʊr (c**ure**)
eə(r)/ ɛr (squ**are**)	

Reduced vowels

ə (comm**a**)	ə(r) / ər (lett**er**)	i (happ**y**)

The following tables show the vowel phonemes of three standard varieties of English. The notation system used here for Received Pronunciation (RP) is fairly standard; the others less so. The feature descriptions given here (front, close, etc.) are abstracted somewhat; the actual pronunciations of these vowels are somewhat more accurately conveyed by the IPA symbols used.

In English **the tongue** and **lip positions** are important for the pronounciation**.**

When the **tongue** moves ***forward*** and ***backward***:

Front – when the tongue is in the front part of the mouth and the front part of it is raised to the hard palate – i:, e, æ;

Front-retracted – the tongue is in the front part of the mouth but slightly retracted and the part of the tongue nearer to centre than to front is raised – i;

Central – the front of the tongue is raised towards the back part of the hard palate – v, ɜ:, ɜ;

Back – the tongue is in the back part of the mouth and the back of it is raised towards the soft palate – a:, o, o:, u:;

Back-advanced – the tongue is in the back part of the mouth but is slightly advanced – u.

When the tongue moves ***up*** and ***down***:

Close – the front or the back of the tongue is raised high towards the palate – i:, i, u, u:;

Open – the front or the back of the tongue is as low as possible in the mouth – æ, a:, o. o:;

Mid – the highest part of the tongue occupies the position intermediate between the close and the open one – e, v, ɜ:, ɜ.

Lip position: unrounded – i:, i, e, æ, a:, v, ɜ:, ɜ; rounded – o, o:, u, u:.

Character of vowel end and vowel length is very important too:

Checked – if a vowel is followed by a strong voiceless cons-t – ex, better, cart

Free – if a vowel is followed by a weak voiced cons-t – before, begger

Vowel length:

Long – i:, a:, o:, u:, ɜ:

Short – i, e, o, u, v, ɜ.

When we speak about **the articulatory aspect of English consonants** it is necessary to mention that **consonants** are made with air stream that meets an obstruction in the mouth or nasal cavities. That's why in the production of consonant sounds there is a certain degree of noise.

There are **20 consonant letters** in the English alphabet. They represent **24 consonant sounds.** On the articulatory level the English consonants change:

1) In the degree of noise;

2) In the manner of articulation;

3) In the place of articulation.

It is necessary to pay attention to **degree of noise.** Noise consonants in its production there is a noise component characteristic. Noise consonants sounds vary:

1) In the work of the vocal cords (voiced – b, d, g, v, ð, z; ж, дж; voiceless – p, t, k, f, θ, s, ш, ч);

2) In the degree of force of articulation (strong or fortis) – p, t, k, f, θ, s, ш, ч, h; (weak or lenis) – b, d, g, v, ð, z, ж, дж);

Sonorants are made with tone prevailing over noise because of a rather wide air passage – m, n, ŋ, w, l, r, ж.

The phonological analysis of English consonant sounds helps to distinguish 24 phonemes: [p, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, j, h, tʃ, dʒ, m, n, ŋ, w, r, 1, j].

Consonants are known to have voice and noise combined. In case of consonants various obstructions are made. So consonants are characterized by close articulation that is by a complete, partial or intermittent blockage of the air-passage by an organ or organs. As a result consonants are sounds which have noise as their indispensable and most defining characteristic.

On the articulatory level the consonants change:

1) In the degree of noise;

2) In the manner of articulation;

3) In the place of articulation.

Analyzing **the manner of articulation,** we must pay attention to:

1) **Occlusive,** which are sounds in the production which the air stream meets a complete obstruction in mouth, they are also called plosives. According to the work of the vocal cords stops may be voiced and voiceless. Occlusive voiced: b, d, g. Occlusive voiceless: the English [p, t, k]. Occlusive sonorants: [m, n, ŋ].

2) **Constrictive,** when the air stream meets an incomplete obstruction in the resonator, so the air passage is constricted. Constrictive noises are called fricatives - f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ш, ж, h. Constrictive sonorants - w, r, l, j.

3) **Occlusive-constrictive** (affricates) is noise consonant sounds produced with a complete obstruction which is slowly released and the air escapes from the mouth with some friction. There are only two occlusive-constrictives in English: [tʃ, dʒ].

4) **Rolled** are sounds pronounced with periodical momentary obstructions when the tip of the tongue taps quickly several times against the teeth ridge and vibrates in the air stream. They are the Russian [p, p'].

It is necessary to pay proper attention to the **place of articulation**:

1) **Labial** - are made by the lips. They may be bilabial (when both lips are active - p, b, m, w) and labio-dental are articulated with the lower lip against the edge of the upper teeth - f, v.

2) **Lingual** - are classified into forelingual, mediolingual (j) and backlingual (k, g, n).

According to the **place of obstruction** forelingual consonants may be:

a) Interdental [g,d];

b) Dental [t, t’, d, d’ c,c', ʒ, ʒ ', ц, л,л'];

c) Alveolar [t, d, s, z, n, l];

d) Post-alveolar [r];

e) Palato-alveolar [tʃ, j, ʃ, ʒ].

3) **Glottal** – h.

The following table shows the 24 consonant phonemes found in most dialects of English, in addition to /x/, whose distribution is more limited.

Fortis consonants are always voiceless, aspirated in syllable onset (except in clusters beginning with /s/), and sometimes also glottalized to an extent in syllable coda (most likely to occur with /t/, see T-glottalization), while **lenis consonants** are always unaspirated and unglottalized, and generally partially or fully voiced.

The **alveolars** are usually apical, i.e. pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching or approaching the roof of the mouth, though some speakers produce them laminally, i.e. with the blade of the tongue.

		Labial	**Dental**	**Alveolar**	**Post-alveolar**	**Palatal**	**Velar**	**Glottal**
Nasal		m		n				
Plosive/ affricate	**fortis**	p		t	tʃ		k	
	lenis	b		d	dʒ		g	
Fricative	**fortis**	f	θ	s	ʃ		x	h
	lenis	v	ð	z	ʒ			
Approximant				l	r	j	w	

Most varieties of English have syllabic consonants in some words, principally [l̩, m̩, n̩], for example at the end of "bottle", "rhythm" and "button". In such cases, no phonetic vowel is pronounced between the last two consonants, and the last consonant forms a syllable on its own. Syllabic consonants are generally transcribed with a vertical line under the consonant letter, so that phonetic transcription of "bottle" would be [ˈbatl̩], [ˈbaɾl̩], or [ˈbɔɾl̩] in RP, GA, and Australian respectively, and for "button" [ˈbʌtn̩].

In theory, such consonants could be analyzed as individual phonemes. However, this would add several extra consonant phonemes to the inventory for English, and phonologists prefer to identify syllabic nasals and liquids phonemically as / æ /.

Thus, "button" is phonemically /ˈbʌtən/ or /ˈbatən/ and "bottle" is phonemically /ˈbɒtəl/, /ˈbɑtəl/, or /ˈbɔtəl/.

The voiceless velar fricative "x" is mainly used in Hiberno-, Scottish, South African and Welsh English; words with /x/ in Scottish accents tend to be pronounced with /k/ in other dialects. The velar fricative sometimes appears in recent loanwords such as "chutzpah" [hutspa:].

Under the influence of Welsh and Afrikaans, the actual phonetic realization of "x" in Welsh English and White South African English is uvular [χ], rather than velar [x]. Dialects do not necessarily agree on the exact words in which "x" appears; for instance, in Welsh English it appears in loanwords from Welsh (such as "Amlwch" /ˈæmlʊx/), whereas in White South African English it appears only in loanwords from Afrikaans or Xhosa (such as "gogga" / "xɒxə"/ "insect").

In some conservative accents in Scotland, Ireland, the southern United States, and New England, the digraph ⟨wh⟩ in words like "which" and "whine" represents a voiceless "w" sound [w], a voiceless labiovelar fricative or approximant, which contrasts with the voiced "w" of "witch" and "wine". In most dialects, this sound is lost, and is pronounced as a voiced "w" (the "wine"– "whine" merger). Phonemically

this sound is analysed as a consonant cluster "hw", rather than as a separate phoneme [w].

Thus, "which" and "whine" are transcribed phonemically as /hwɪtʃ/ and /hwaɪn/. This does not mean that such speakers actually pronounce [h] followed by [w]: the phonemic transcription /hw/ is simply a convenient way of representing a single sound [w] without analysing such dialects as having an extra phoneme.

Similarly, the sound at the beginning of "huge" in most accents is a voiceless palatal fricative [ç], but this is analysed phonemically as the consonant cluster /hj/so that "huge" is transcribed /hjuːdʒ/. As with /hw/, this does not mean that speakers pronounce [h] followed by [j]; the phonemic transcription /hj/ is simply a convenient way of representing the single sound [tʃ]. The yod-dropping found in Norfolk dialect means that the traditional Norfolk pronunciation of "huge" is [hʊudʒ] and not [hjuːdʒ].

This phoneme is conventionally transcribed with the basic Latin letter (r) (the IPA symbol for the alveolar trill), even though its pronunciation is usually a postalveolar approximant [r]. The trill does exist but it is rare, found only in Scottish dialects and sporadically in Received Pronunciation preceding a stressed vowel in highly emphatic speech or when placing special emphasis on a word. See Pronunciation of English /r/.

The postalveolar consonants [tʃ, dʒ, ʃ, ʒ, r] are also often slightly labialized: [tʃdʒ, ʃ, ʒ, r].

Assimilation is a process of alteration of speech sounds as a result of which one of the sounds becomes fully or partially similar to the adjoining sound. Assimilation can affect the work of the vocal cords; the position of the lips; the position of the soft palate.

Types of assimilation can be distinguished according to:

1) Direction,

2) Degree of completeness,

3) Degree of stability.

Direction of assimilation. The influence of the neighbouring sounds in English can act in a progressive, regressive or double direction.

- When some articulatory features of the following sound are changed under the influence of the preceding sound, which remains unchanged, assimilation is called progressive (calls – [z], books – [s]);

- When the following sound influences the articulation of the preceding one assimilation is called regressive (in them);

- Double assimilation means complex mutual influence of the adjacent sounds.

Degree of completeness. According to its degree, assimilation can be complete and incomplete.

Assimilation is called complete in the case the two adjoining sounds become alike or merge into one (cupboard). Assimilation is called incomplete when the likeness of the adjoining sounds is partial as the assimilated sound retains its major articulatory features (sweet).

Degree of stability. Many assimilatory phenomena of older stages in the development of the language have become obligatory in Modern English, they may or may not be reflected in spelling. Such changes which have taken place over a period of time within words are called historical (“orchard” – [ort] + [yard]).

There are a lot of widely spread but non-obligatory cases of assimilation which can be traced mainly at word boundaries, for instance: ten minutes ['tem'minits].

Non-obligatory assimilations are characteristic of fluent or careless speech and should he avoided by public speakers.

Reduction is a historical process of weakening, shortening or disappearance of vowel sounds in unstressed positions.

The neutral sound represents the reduced form of almost any vowel or diphthong in the unstressed position, for example: “project - pro’ject”. The sounds [l] and also

[u] in the suffix “-ful” are very frequent realizations of the unstressed positions, for instance: “beautiful”.

Non-reduced unstressed sounds are often retained in:

a) Compound words, for example: “blackboard”;

b) Borrowings from the Russian, French and other languages, for example: “kolkhoz, sovkhoz”.

Reduction is closely connected not only with word stress but also with rhythm and sentence stress. Stressed words are pronounced with great energy of breath. So, reduction is realized:

a) In unstressed syllables within words, for example: demonstrative;

b) In unstressed form-words, auxiliary and modal verbs, personal and possessive pronouns within intonation groups and phrases.

Three different types of reduction are noticed in English:

1) Quantitative reduction - shortening of a vowel sound in the unstressed position, affects mainly long vowels, for example: he [hi: - hi). When does he come?

2) Qualitative reduction - obscuration of vowels towards [ə, i, u], affects both long and short vowels, for example: can [cəen-cэn]. You can easily do it.

Vowels in unstressed form-words in most cases undergo both quantitative and qualitative reduction.

3) Elision of vowels in the unstressed position, for example: I’m up already. Elision is normally unintentional, but it may be deliberate.

Though the basic phonological elements are phonemes, speech can be broken into minimal pronounceable units into which sounds show tendency to group them. These smallest phonetic groups are generally given the name of syllables. They form language units of greater magnitude, i.e. morphemes, words and phrases.

The syllable may be a single word (for example: “chair”, “book”), a part of a word, (for example, music), a part of the grammatical form of a word (for example: later).

The syllable can be analyzed from the acoustic, auditory, articulatory and functional point of view. The syllable may be viewed in connection with its graphic representation.

Acoustically and auditorilly syllable is characterised by the force of utterance, or accent, pitch of the voice, sonority, length, i.e. by prosodic features. Acoustic properties of syllable are studied with the help of intonograph and spectrograph. Auditorilly the syllable is the smallest unit of perception: the listener identifies the whole of the syllable and only after that the sounds contained.

The articulatory energy which constitutes the syllable results from the combined actions of the power resonator and abstracter mechanisms.

Phonologically the syllable is regarded and defined in terms of its structural and functional properties. Syllables in writing are called syllabographs and are closely connected with the morphemic structure of words.

A syllable can be formed by a vowel: (V); by a vowel and a consonant: (VC); by a consonant and a sonorant (CS).

V - types of syllable called uncovered, for example: open, oak.

VC – uncovered, for example: closed, odd.

CVC – covered, for example: closed, note.

CV – covered, for example: open, no.

8. Allophones.

Allophones are realized in concrete words. They have similarity from the phonetical point of view, i.e. the acoustic and articulatory pitches have much in common. At the same time they differ in some degree and are incapable of differentiating words. Ex, in speech we pronounce not the sound type [t] which is **alveolar, forelingual, apical, occlusive, plosive, voiceless, strong**, according to the classificatory definition, but one of its variants.

Listed here are some of the significant cases of **allophony of vowels** found within Standard English dialects.

- Vowels are shortened when followed in a syllable by a voiceless (fortis) consonant. This is known as *pre-fortis clipping*. Thus in the following word pairs the first item has a shortened vowel while the second has a normal length vowel: 'right' /raɪt/ - 'ride' /raɪd/; 'face' /feɪs/ - 'phase' /feɪz/; 'advice' /ədvaɪs/ - 'advise' /ədvaɪz/.

- In many accents of English, tense vowels undergo breaking before /l/, resulting in pronunciations like [piəł] for “peel”, [puəł] for “pool”, [peəł] for “pail”, and [poəl] for “pole”.

- In RP, the vowel /əʊ/ may be pronounced more back, as [aʊ], before syllable-final [l], as in “goal”. In Australian English the vowel [əu] is similarly backed to [ɔʊ] before /l/. A similar phenomenon may occur in Southern American English.

- The vowel [ə] is often pronounced [a] in open syllables.

First, we can say that [t] and [d], for example, are two different sounds in English, for example: ten-den, seat-seed. But on the other hand, we know that [t] in let us and [t] in let them are not the same. In both examples the sounds differ in one articulatory feature only.

In the second case the difference between the sounds has functionally no significance. It is clear that the sense of “sound” in these two cases is different. To avoid this ambiguity, linguists use two separate terms: phoneme and allophone. **Allophones are variants of phonemes.**

For example, labialized in the word “twice”, dental in the word “eighth”, post-alveolar in “try”, exploded nasally in “written” and exploded literary in “little”.

The number of phonemes in each language is much smaller than the number of allophones. Allophones are very important for language teaching because they are pronounced in actual speech and through their mispronunciation doesn’t always influence the meaning of the words their misuse makes a person’s speech sound as “foreign”.

Another example the sound type /i:/ which is defined as unrounded, fully-front, high, narrow, long, free is more back in the word “key” than in “eat” under the influence of the back-lingual /k/ it is longer before a voiced consonant than before a voiceless. For example, “seed-seet”, “greed-greet”.

Subsidiary allophones may be positional and combinatory. Positional are used in certain positions traditionally. For example, the English phoneme (l) is realized in actual speech as a positional allophone: it’s clear in the initial position [l] and dark in the terminal position [l], for example, “light-let”, “hill-mill”.

Combinatory allophones appear in the process of speech and results from the influence of one phoneme on another.

9. Syllables.

Analizing the principle theories of syllable formation we must mention that speech can be broken into minimal pronounceable units into which sounds show tendency to group themselves. These smallest phonetic groups are generally given the name of syllables. There are different points of view on syllable formation, which are the following:

- **The most ancient theory** states that there are as many syllables in a word as there are vowels. This theory is primitive and insufficient since it does not take into consideration consonants which also can form syllables in some languages. And it doesn’t explain the boundary of syllables.

- **The expiratory theory** states that there are as many syllables in a word as there are expiration pulses. The borderline between the syllables is, according to this theory, the moment of the weakest expiration. This theory is inconsistent, because it is quite possible to pronounce several syllables in one expiration, for instance: seeing.

- **The sonority theory** founded by Jespersen. It states that there are as many syllables in a word as there are peaks of sonority. Speech sounds pronounced with the same force, length and pitch differ in sonority. For example, when the Russian vowels

/a, o, ɔ/ are pronounced on one and the same level, their acoustic intensity, or sonority is different: the strongest is /a/, then go /o, ə/.

O. Jespersen established the scale of sonority of sounds, that is, the scale of their sonority. According to this scale the most sonorous are back vowels (low, mid, high), and then go semi-vowels and sonorants, then voiced and voiceless consonants.

- **The arc of loudness theory** is based on the Scherba's statement that the centre of the syllable is the syllable forming phoneme. Sounds which precede or follow it constitute a chain or an arc which is weak in the beginning and in the end and strong in the middle.

If a syllable consists of a vowel its strength increases in the beginning, reaches the maximum of loudness and then gradually decreases.

Scherba distinguishes the following types of consists: finally strong (initially weak), they occur at the beginning of the syllable; finally weak – occur at the end of the closed syllable; double peaked (combination of two similar sounds) – in their articulation the beginning and the end are energetic and the middle is weak. For example, in the words cab the constructions /k/ is finally strong, its articulatory strength increases to the end.

1) **Syllable structure.**

The syllable structure in English is $(C)^3$ V $(C)^5$, with a near maximal example being "strengths" (/strɛŋkθs/, although it can be pronounced /strɛŋθs/). From the phonetic point of view, the analysis of syllable structures is a complex task: because of widespread occurrences of articulatory overlap, English speakers rarely produce an audible release of individual consonants in consonant clusters. This coarticulation can lead to articulatory gestures that seem very much like deletions or complete assimilations.

For example, "hundred pounds" may sound like [hʌndrɪ**d** paʊndz] and "jumped back" (in slow speech, [dʒʌmptbæk]) may sound like [dʒʌmpbæk], but X-ray and electropalatographic studies demonstrate that inaudible and possibly weakened

contacts or lingual gestures may still be made. Thus, the second /d/ in "hundred pounds" does not entirely assimilate to a labial place of articulation, rather the labial gesture co-occurs with the alveolar one; the "missing" [t] in "jumped back" may still be articulated, though not heard.

Division into syllables is a difficult area, and different theories have been proposed. A widely accepted approach is the maximal onset principle: this states that, subject to certain constraints, any consonants in between vowels should be assigned to the following syllable.

Thus, the word "leaving" should be divided /ˈliː.vɪŋ/ rather than /ˈliːvɪŋ/, and "hasty" is /ˈheɪ.sti/ rather than /ˈheɪs.ti/ or /ˈheɪst.i/. However, when such a division results in an onset cluster which is not allowed in English, the division must respect this.

If the word "extra" were divided /ˈe.kstrə/ the resulting onset of the second syllable would be /kstr/, a cluster which does not occur initially in English. The division /ˈek.strə/ is therefore preferred. If assigning a consonant or consonants to the following syllable would result in the preceding syllable ending in an unreduced short vowel, this is avoided. Thus, the word "comma" (in RP) should be divided /ˈkɒm.ə/ and not /ˈkɒ.mə/, even though the latter division gives the maximal onset to the following syllable.

In some cases, no solution is completely satisfactory: for example, in British English (RP) the word "hurry" could be divided /ˈhʌ.ri/ or /ˈhʌr.i/, but the former would result in an analysis with a syllable-final /ʌ/ (which is held to be non-occurring) while the latter would result in a syllable final /r/ (which is said not to occur in this accent). Some phonologists have suggested a compromise analysis where the consonant in the middle belongs to both syllables, and is described as ambisyllabic.

In this way, it is possible to suggest an analysis of "hurry" which comprises the syllables /hʌr/ and /ri/, the medial /r/ being ambisyllabic. Where the division coincides with a word boundary, or the boundary between elements of a compound word, it is

not usual in the case of dictionaries to insist on the maximal onset principle in a way that divides words in a counter-intuitive way. So, the word “hardware” would be divided /ˈhɑː.dweə/ by the Modern Oxford Pronunciation (MOP), but dictionaries prefer the division /ˈhɑːd.weə/.

In the approach used by the “Longman Pronunciation Dictionary”, ***John Christopher Wells*** claims that consonants syllabify with the preceding rather than following vowel when the preceding vowel is the nucleus of a more salient syllable, with stressed syllables being the most salient, reduced syllables the least, and full unstressed vowels (“secondary stress”) intermediate.

But there are lexical differences as well, frequently but not exclusively with compound words. For example, in “dolphin” and “selfish”, J.C.Wells argues that the stressed syllable ends in /lf/, but in “shellfish”, the /f/ belongs with the following syllable: /ˈdɒlf.ɪn, ˈself.ɪʃ/ → [ˈdɒlfɪn, ˈselfɪʃ], but /ˈʃel.fɪʃ/ → [ˈʃelˑfɪʃ], where the /l/ is a little longer and the /ɪ/ is not reduced. Similarly, in “toe-strap” J.C.Wells argues that the second /t/ is a full plosive, as usual in syllable onset, whereas in “toast-rack” the second /t/ is in many dialects reduced to the unreleased allophone it takes in syllable codas, or even elided: /ˈtoʊ.stræp/, /ˈtoʊst.ræk/ → [ˈtoˑʊstræp, ˈtoʊs(t)ræk]; likewise “nitrate” /ˈnaɪ.treɪt/ → [ˈnaɪtreɪt] with a voiceless /r/ (and for some people an affricated *tr* as in “tree”), vs “night-rate” /ˈnaɪt.reɪt/ → [ˈnaɪt̝reɪt] with a voiced /r/.

Cues of syllable boundaries include aspiration of syllable onsets and (in the US) flapping of coda /t, d/ (“a tease” /əˈtiːz/ → [əˈtʰiːz] vs. “at ease” /æt.ˈiːz/ → [ærˈiːz]), epenthetic stops like [t] in syllable codas (“fence” /ˈfens/ → [ˈfents] but “inside” /ɪn.ˈsaɪd/ → [ɪnˈsaɪd]), and r-colored vowels when the /r/ is in the coda vs. labialization when it is in the onset (“keyring” /ˈkiː.rɪŋ/ → [ˈkiːrʷɪŋ], but “fearing” /ˈfiːr.ɪŋ/ → [ˈfiərɪŋ]).

2) **The syllable construction in English.**

A syllable is a speech unit consisting of a sound or a sound sequence one of which is heard to be more prominent than the others. The most prominent sound being

the peak or the nucleus of a syllable is called syllabic. Syllabic sounds are generally vowels and sonorants. The sonorants (l, n, m) become syllabic when joined to a preceding consonant, for example: apple, trouble, puzzle. The sonorants [w, j, r] are not syllabic.

A word consisting of only one vowel sound represents a separate syllable, eg, [ai], are [a:], or [ə:].

Many words in English such as parcel, level, special, person and the like could be pronounced with the neutral vowel before the sonorant thus making it non-syllabic.

In all these words the second prominent sound or the peak is formed by [ə]. Some words in English not having any vowel-letter before the final sonorant may also be pronounced in both ways – [pʌzl] / [pʌzəl].

On the other hand many words having a vowel-letter before the final sonorant are pronounced without the neutral vowel, that's why the sonorant is syllabic, for example: garden; lesson; pupil.

The words with the sonorant [m] blossom are more often pronounced with the neutral vowel.

So if a sonorant is preceded by a vowel sound it loses its syllabic character and the syllable is formed by the vowel.

So we must be sure to make the final sonorants (l, n, m) with a preceding consonant syllabic, for example: giggle, dozen.

The following table shows typical examples of the occurrence of the above consonant phonemes in words:

	/p/	/t/	/k/	/tʃ/	/f/	/θ/	/s/	/ʃ/	/x/	/h/
Fortis	**p**it	**t**in	**c**ut	**ch**eap	**f**at	**th**igh	**s**ap	dilu**ti**on	lo**ch**	**h**am
	/b/	/d/	/g/	/dʒ/	/v/	/ð/	/z/	/ʒ/		
Lenis	**b**it	**d**in	**g**ut	**j**eep	**v**at	**th**y	**z**ap	delu**si**on	-	-

Fortis	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lenis	/m/**m**ap	/n/thi**n**	/ŋ/thi**ng**	/j/ **y**es	/w/ **w**e	/r/**r**un	/l/ **l**eft

Unstressed syllables in English may contain almost any vowel, but in practice vowels in stressed and unstressed syllables tend to use different inventories of phonemes. In particular, long vowels are used less often in unstressed syllables than stressed syllables. Additionally there are certain sounds characterized by central position and weakness that are particularly often found as the nuclei of unstressed syllables. These include:

- schwa, [ə], as in COMM**A** and (in non-rhotic dialects) LETT**ER** ("panda–pander" merger); also in many other positions such as "**a**bout, phot**o**graph, padd**o**ck", etc. This sound is essentially restricted to unstressed syllables exclusively. In the approach presented here it is identified as a phoneme /ə/, although other analyses do not have a separate phoneme for schwa and regard it as a reduction or neutralization of other vowels in syllables with the lowest degree of stress;

- r-colored schwa, [ɚ], as in LETT**ER** in General American and some other rhotic dialects, which can be identified with the underlying sequence /ər/;

- syllabic consonants: [l̩] as in "bott**le**", [n̩] as in "butt**on**", [m̩] as in "rhyth**m**". These may be phonemized either as a plain consonant or as a schwa followed by a consonant; for example *button* may be represented as /ˈbʌtn̩/ or /ˈbʌtən/;

- [i], as in "ros**e**s" and "mak**i**ng". This can be identified with the phoneme /ɪ/, although in unstressed syllables it may be pronounced more centrally, and for some speakers (particularly in Australian and New Zealand and some American English) it is merged with /ə/ in these syllables (weak vowel merger). Among speakers who retain the distinction there are many cases where free variation between /ɪ/ and /ə/ is found, as in the second syllable of "typ**i**cal". (The OED has recently adopted the symbol ⟨ɪ⟩ to indicate such cases);

- [u], as in "arg**u**ment, t**o**day", for which similar considerations apply as in the case of [i]. (The symbol ⟨ʉ⟩ is sometimes used in these cases, similarly to ⟨ɪ⟩.) Some speakers may also have a rounded schwa, [θ], used in words like *omission* [θ ˈmɪʃən];

- [i], as in "happ**y**, coff**ee**", in many dialects (others have [ɪ] in this position). The phonemic status of this [i] is not easy to establish. Some authors consider it to correspond phonemically with a close front vowel that is neither the vowel of "kit" nor that of "fleece"; it occurs chiefly in contexts where the contrast between these vowels is neutralized, implying that it represents an archiphoneme, which may be written /i/. Many speakers, however, do have a contrast in pairs of words like "studied" and "studded" or "taxis" and "taxes"; the contrast may be [i] vs. [ɪ], [ɪ] vs. [ə] or [i] vs. [ə], hence some authors consider that the "happ**y**" -vowel should be identified phonemically either with the vowel of "kit" nor that of "fleece", depending on speaker;

- [u], as in "infl**u**ence, t**o** each". This is the back rounded counterpart to [i] described above; its phonemic status is treated in the same works as cited there.

Vowel reduction in unstressed syllables is a significant feature of English. Syllables of the types listed above often correspond to a syllable containing a different vowel ("full vowel") used in other forms of the same morpheme where that syllable is stressed. For example, the first "o" in "photograph", being stressed, is pronounced with the "GOAT" vowel, but in "photography", where it is unstressed, it is reduced to schwa. Also, certain common words ("a, an, of, for", etc.) are pronounced with a schwa when they are unstressed, although they have different vowels when they are in a stressed position.

Some unstressed syllables, however, retain full (unreduced) vowels, i.e. vowels other than those listed above. Examples are the /æ/ in "**a**mbition" and the /aɪ/ in "fin**i**te". Some phonologists regard such syllables as not being fully unstressed (they may describe them as having "tertiary stress"); some dictionaries have marked such syllables as having secondary stress.

However linguists such as ***Peter Ladefoged*** and ***Dwight Bolinger*** (1986) regard this as a difference purely of vowel quality and not of stress, and thus argue that vowel reduction itself is phonemic in English. Examples of words where vowel reduction seems to be distinctive for some speakers include "chickar**ee**" [tʃikə'ri:] (şimali Amerikanın qırmızı dələ; североамериканская красная белка) vs. "chicor**y**" ['tʃikərɪ] (kasnı göyərtisindən salad; салат из листьев цикория), (the latter has the reduced vowel of "happ**y**", whereas the former has the "fleece" [fli:s] (xovlu parçası; ткань с начёсом) vowel without reduction, and "Phar**aoh**" ['fɛərəu] (фараон) vs. "farr**ow**" ['færəu] (xərək, zir-zibil; помёт поросят) (both have the GOAT vowel, but in the latter word it may reduce to [θ]).

10. Combination of phonemes.

A syllable is a speech unit consisting of a sound or a sound sequence one of which is heard to be more prominent than the others. The most prominent sound being the peak or the nucleus of a syllable is called **syllabic**. Syllabic sounds are generally vowels and sonorants. The sonorants "l, n, m" become syllabic when joined to a preceding consonant. For example: "apple", "trouble", and "puzzle". The sonorants [w, j, r] are not syllabic.

1) **Sonorants.** The pronunciation of /l/ varies by dialect:

- Received Pronunciation has two main allophones of /l/: the clear or plain [l], and the dark or velarized [ɫ]. The clear variant is used before vowels when they are in the same syllable and the dark variant when the /l/ precedes a consonant or is in syllable-final position before silence.

- In South Wales, Ireland, and the Caribbean, /l/ is often always clear, and in North Wales, Scotland, Australia, and New Zealand it is always dark.

- In General American and Canada, /l/ is generally dark, but to varying degrees: before stressed vowels it is neutral or only slightly velarized. In southern U.S. accents it is noticeably clear between vowels, and in some other positions.

- In urban accents of Southern England, as well as New Zealand and some parts of the United States, /l/ can be pronounced as an approximant or semivowel ([w], [o], [ʊ]) at the end of a syllable (*l*-vocalization).

- Depending on dialect, /r/ has at least the following allophones in varieties of English around the world:

a) Postalveolar approximant [ɹ̠] (the most common realization of the /r/ phoneme, occurring in most dialects, RP and General American included);

b) Retroflex approximant [ɻ] (occurs in most Irish dialects and some American dialects);

c) Labiodental approximant [ʋ] (occurs in south-east England and some London accents; known as *r*-labialization);

d) Alveolar flap [ɾ] (occurs in most Scottish and some South African dialects, some conservative dialects in England and Ireland; not to be confused with flapping of /t/ and /d/);

e) Alveolar trill [r] (occurs in some very conservative Scottish dialects);

f) Voiced uvular fricative [ʁ] (occurs in northern Northumbria, largely disappeared; known as the Northumbrian burr).

- In most dialects /r/ is labialized [r] in many positions, as in *reed* [riːd] and *tree* [triː]; in the latter case, the /t/ may be slightly labialized as well.

- In some rhotic accents, such as General American, /r/ when not followed by a vowel is realized as and r-coloring of the preceding vowel or its coda: *nurse* [ˈnɚs], *butter* [ˈbʌtɚ].

- The distinctions between the nasals are neutralized in some environments. For example, before a final /p/, /t/ or /k/ there is nearly always only one nasal sound that can appear in each case: [m], [n] or [ŋ] respectively (as in the words “limp”, “lint”, “link” – note that the “n” of “link” is pronounced [ŋ]). This effect can even occur across syllable or word boundaries, particularly in stressed syllables:

“synchrony” is pronounced [ˈsɪŋkɹəni] whereas “synchronic” may be pronounced either as [sɪŋˈkɹɒnɪk] or as [sɪnˈkɹɒnɪk].

2) **Obstruents.**

In most dialects, the fortis stops and affricate /p, t, tʃ, k/ have various different allophones, and are distinguished from the lenis stops and affricate /b, d, dʒ, g/ by several phonetic features. The allophones of the fortes /p, t, tʃ, k/ include:

- aspirated [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ] when they occur at the beginning of a word, as in “**t**omato”, “**t**rip”, or at the beginning of a stressed syllable in the middle of a word, as in “po**t**ato”. They are unaspirated [p, t, k] after /s/ within the same syllable, as in “s**t**an, s**p**an, s**c**an”, and at the ends of syllables, as in “mat, map, mac”. The voiceless fricatives are always unaspirated, but notable exceptions to this are English-speaking areas of Wales, where they are often aspirated;

- In many accents of English, fortis stops /p, t, k, tʃ/ are glottalized in some positions. This may be heard either as a glottal stop preceding the oral closure (“pre-glottalization” or “glottal reinforcement”) or as a substitution of the glottal stop [ʔ] for the oral stop (glottal replacement). /tʃ/ can only be pre-glottalized. Pre-glottalization normally occurs in British and American English when the fortis consonant phoneme is followed by another consonant or when the consonant is in final position.

Thus, “football” and “catching” are often pronounced [ˈfʊʔtbɔːl] and [ˈkæʔtʃɪŋ], respectively. Glottal replacement often happens in cases such as those just given, so that “football” is frequently pronounced [ˈfʊʔbɔːl].

In addition, however, glottal replacement is increasingly common in British English when /t/ occurs between vowels if the preceding vowel is stressed; thus “getting better” is often pronounced by younger speakers as [ˈgeʔɪŋ ˌbeʔə].

Such “t-glottalization” also occurs in many British regional accents, including Cockney, where it can also occur at the end of words, and where /p/ and /k/ are sometimes treated the same way.

- Among stops, both fortes and lenes:

May have no audible release [p, b, t, d, k, g] in the word-final position. These allophones are more common in North America than Great Britain.

Always have a "masked release" before another plosive or affricate (as in "ru**bb**ed" [ˈrʌˑb̚d]), i.e. the release of the first stop is made after the closure of the second stop. This also applies when the following stop is homorganic (articulated in the same place), as in "to**p p**layer". A notable exception to this is Welsh English, where stops are usually released in this environment.

- The affricates /tʃ, dʒ/ have a mandatory fricative release in all environments.

- Very often in the United States and Canada, and less frequently in Australia and New Zealand, both /t/ and /d/ can be pronounced as a voice flap [ɾ] in certain positions: when they come between preceding stressed vowels (possibly with intervening /r/) and precede an unstressed vowel or syllabic /l/. Examples include "wa**t**er, bo**tt**le, pe**t**al, pe**dd**le" (the last two words sound alike when flapped). The flap may even appear at word boundaries, as in "pu**t** it on".

- When the combination /nt/ appears in such positions, some American speakers pronounce it as a nasalized flap that may become indistinguishable from /n/, so "winter" [ˈwɪɾə̃] may be pronounced similarly or identically to "winner" [ˈwɪnə̃].

- Yod-coalescence is a process that palatalizes the clusters /dj/, /tj/, /sj/, and /zj/ into [dʒ], [tʃ], [ʃ] and [ʒ] respectively, frequently occurring with clusters that would be considered to span a syllable boundary.

- Yod-coalescence in stressed syllables, such as in "tune" and "dune", occurs in Australian, Cockney, Estuary English, Hiberno-English (some speakers), Newfoundland English, South African English, and to a certain extent in New Zealand English and Scottish English (many speakers). This can lead to additional homophony; for instance, "dew" and "due" come to be pronounced the same as "Jew".

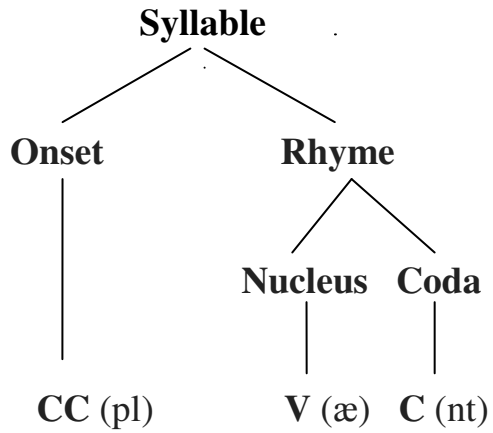
- In certain varieties, such as Australian English, South African English, and New Zealand English /sj/ and /zj/ in stressed syllables can coalesce into [ʃ] and [ʒ],

respectively. In Australian English for example, “assume” is pronounced [əˈ**ʃu**ːm] by some speakers. Furthermore, some British, Canadian, American, New Zealand and Australian speakers may change the /s/ sound to /ʃ/ before /tr/, so that a word having a cluster of “str” like in “**str**ewed” would be pronounced [ʃtʃruːd]. According to ***Wayne P. Lawrence***, “this phonemic change seems to be neither dialectal nor regional”.

11. Phonemes consist of onset (baş, начало) **and coda** (son, конец)**.**

In some languages, nearly any consonant allowed as an **onset** is also allowed in the **coda**, even clusters of consonants. The **coda**, also known as **auslaut**, comprises the consonant sounds of a syllable that follow the nucleus. ... On a phonetic level, other codas occur due to elision of /i/ and /u/.

The syllable can be structured hierarchically into the following components:



In this example, the English word “plant” consists of a single CCVCC syllable. This syllable has been broken up into its onset (any consonants preceding the vowel) and its rhyme (all phonemes from the vowel to the end of the syllable).

The rhyme has been further divided into the nucleus, which in the vast majority of syllables is a vowel (the exceptions are syllabic consonants) and the coda, which are any consonants following the nucleus. Some other examples:

flounce: onset = /fl/	free: onset /fr/	each: onset zero
rhyme = /aʊns/	rhyme = /iː/	rhyme = /iːt͡ʃ/
nucleus = /aʊ/	nucleus = /iː/	nucleus = /iː/
coda = /ns/	coda zero	coda = /t͡ʃ/

Onset

The following can occur as the onset:

All single consonant phonemes except /ŋ/	Examples
Stop plus approximant other than /j/: /pl/, /bl/, /kl/, /gl/, /pr/, /br/, /tr/, /dr/, /kr/, /gr/, /tw/, /dw/, /gw/, /kw/, /pw/	play, blood, clean, glove, prize, bring, tree, dream, crowd, green, twin, dwarf, language, quick, puissance
Voiceless fricative or /v/ plus approximant other than /j/: /fl/, /sl/, /θl/, /fr/, /θr/, /ʃr/, /hw/,/sw/, /θw/, /vw/	floor, sleep, thlipsis, friend, three, shrimp, what, swing, thwart, reservoir
Consonant plus /j/ (before /uː/ or its modified/reduced forms): /pj/, /bj/, /tj/, /dj/, /kj/, /gj/, /mj/, /nj/, /fj/, /vj/, /θj/, /sj/, /zj/, /hj/, /lj/	pure, beautiful, tube, during, cute, argue, music, new, few, view, thew, suit, Zeus, huge, lurid
/s/ plus voiceless stop: /sp/, /st/, /sk/	speak, stop, skill
/s/ plus nasal other than /ŋ/: /sm/, /sn/	smile, snow
/s/ plus voiceless fricative: /sf/, /sθ/	sphere, sthenic
/s/ plus voiceless stop plus approximant: /spl/, /skl/, /spr/, /str/, /skr/, /skw/, /smj/, /spj/, /stj/, /skj/	split, sclera, spring, street, scream, square, smew, spew, student, skewer
/s/ plus voiceless fricative plus approximant: /sfr/	sphragistics

1. For certain speakers, /tr/ and /dr/ tend to affricate, so that "tree" resembles "chree", and "dream" resembles "jream". This is sometimes transcribed as [tʃr] and [dʒr] respectively, but the pronunciation varies and may, for example, be closer to [tʂ] and [dʐ] or with a fricative release similar in quality to the rhotic, i.e. [trr], [drr], or [tʂr], [dʐr].

2. Some northern and insular Scottish dialects, particularly in the Shetlands, preserve onsets such as /gn/ (as in "gnaw"), /kn/ (as in "knock"), and /wr/ or /vr/ (as in "write").

3. Words beginning in unusual consonant clusters that originated in Latinized Greek loanwords tend to drop the first phoneme, as in /bd/, /fθ/, /gn/, /hr/, /kn/, /ks/, /kt/, /kθ/, /mn/, /pn/, /ps/, /pt/, /tm/, and /θm/, which have become /d/ (bdellium), /θ/ (phthisis), /n/ (gnome), /r/ (rhythm), /n/ (cnidoblast), /z/ (xylophone , /t/ (ctenophore), /θ/(chthonic), /n/ (mnemonic), /n/ (pneumonia), /s/ (psychology), /t/ (pterodactyl), /m/ (tmesis), and /m/ (asthma). However, the onsets /sf/, /sfr/, /skl/, /sθ/, and /θl/ have remained intact.

4. The onset /hw/ is simplified to /w/ in the majority of dialects ("wine–whine merger").

5. Clusters ending /j/ typically occur before /uː/ and before the CURE vowel (General American /ʊr/, RP /ʊə/); they may also come before the reduced form /ʊ/ (as in "ar**gu**ment") or even /ər/ (in the American pronunciation of "fi**gu**re"). There is an ongoing sound change (yod-dropping) by which /j/ as the final consonant in a cluster is being lost. In RP, words with /sj/ and /lj/ can usually be pronounced with or without this sound, e.g. [suːt] or [sjuːt]. For some speakers of English, including some British speakers, the sound change is more advanced and so, for example, General American does not contain the onsets /tj/, /dj/, /nj/, /θj/, /sj/, /stj/, /zj/, or /lj/.

Words that would otherwise begin in these onsets drop the /j/ for example: tube (/tub/), during (/ˈdʊrɪŋ/), new (/nu/), Thule (/ˈθuli/), suit (/sut/), student (/ˈstudənt/), Zeus (/zus/), lurid (/ˈlʊrɪd/). In some dialects, such Welsh English, /j/may

occur in more combinations; for example in /tʃj/ (chew), /dʒj/ (Jew), /ʃj/ (sure), and /slj/ (slew).

6. Many clusters beginning with /ʃ/ and paralleling native clusters beginning with /s/ are found initially in German and Yiddish loanwords, such as /ʃl/, /ʃp/, /ʃt/, /ʃm/, /ʃn/, /ʃpr/, /ʃtr/ (in words such as "schlep, spiel, shtick, schmuck, schnapps, Shprintzen's, strudel"). /ʃw/ is found initially in the Hebrew loanword schwa. Before /r/ however, the native cluster is /ʃr/. The opposite cluster /sr/ is found in loanwords such as "Sri Lanka", but this can be nativized by changing it to /ʃr/.

Other Onsets.

Certain English onsets appear only in contractions, for example: /zbl/ - "sblood", and /zw/ or /dzw/ ("swounds" or "dswounds"). Some, such as /pʃ/ (pshaw), /fw/ (fwoosh) or /vr/ (vroom), can occur in interjections. An archaic voiceless fricative plus nasal exists, /fn/ (fnese), as does an archaic /snj/ (snew).

Several additional onsets occur in loan words (with varying degrees of anglicization) such as /bw/ (bwana), /mw/ (moiré), /nw/ (noire), /tsw/ (zwitterion), /zw/ (zwieback), /dv/ (Dvorak), /kv/ (kvetch), /ʃv/ (schvartze), /tv/ (Tver), /tsv/ (Zwick au), /kdʒ/ (Kjell), /kʃ/ (Kshatriya), /tl/ (Tlaloc), /vl/ (Vladimir), /zl/ (zloty), /tsk/ (Tskhi nvali), /hm/ (Hmong), and /km/ (Khmer).

Some clusters of this type can be converted to regular English phonotactics by simplifying the cluster, for example: /(d)z/ (dziggetai), /(h)r/ (Hrolf), /kr(w)/ (croissant), /(ŋ)w/ (Nguyen), /(p)f/(pfennig), /(f)θ/ (phthalic), /(t)s/ (tsunami), /(!)k/ (! kung), and /k(!)/ (Xhosa).

Others can be replaced by native clusters differing only in voice: /zb ~ sp/ (sbirro), and /zgr ~ skr/ (sgraffito).

Rhyme.

The rhyme is the vowel plus any following consonants. For instance: the word “plant”. Syllable is composed of an Onset = /pl/ and a Rhyme = /ænt/ (the rhyme is obligatory = the head of the syllable), for example: [pla:nt] - [plænt].

There is phonological evidence of at least two kinds to suggest that the vowel forms a unit (the rhyme) with the following consonants: restrictions on phoneme combinations and sound change.

Nucleus.

Nucleus is a vowel or syllabic consonant, obligatory in most languages. The nucleus is usually the vowel in the middle of a syllable. The **onset** is the sound or sounds occurring before the nucleus, and the **coda** (literally “tail”) is the sound or sounds that follow the nucleus. They are sometimes collectively known as the **shell**. The term “rime” covers the nucleus plus coda.

In the one-syllable English word “cat”, the nucleus is “a” (the sound that can be shouted or sung on its own), the onset “c”, the coda “t”, and the rime “at”. This syllable can be abstracted as a **consonant-vowel-consonant** syllable, abbreviated **CVC**.

Languages vary greatly in the restrictions on the sounds making up the onset, nucleus and coda of a syllable, according to what is termed a language’s phonotactics.

Although every syllable has supra-segmental features, these are usually ignored if not semantically relevant, for instance: in tonal languages. The following can occur as the nucleus:

a) All vowel sounds;

b) /m/, /n/ and /l/ in certain situations;

c) /r/ in rhotic varieties of English, for instance: General American, in certain situations.

Coda.

Most of the following except those that end with /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/ or /dʒ/ can be extended with /s/ or /z/ representing the morpheme -s/-z. Similarly, most (in theory, all) of the following except those that end with /t/ or /d/ can be extended with /t/ or /d/ representing the morpheme -t/-d.

J.C.Wells (1990) argues that a variety of syllable codas are possible in English, even /ntr, ndr/ in words like "entry" /ˈɛntr.ɪ/ and "sundry" /ˈsʌndr.ɪ/, with /tr, dr/ being treated as affricates along the lines of /tʃ, dʒ/. He argues that the traditional assumption that pre-vocalic consonants form a syllable with the following vowel is due to the influence of languages like French and Latin, where syllable structure is CVC. CVC is regardless of stress placement. Disregarding such contentious cases, which do not occur at the ends of words, the following sequences can occur as the coda:

The single consonant phonemes except /h/, /w/, /j/ and, in non-rhotic varieties, /r/.	Examples
Lateral approximant plus stop or affricate: /lp/, /lb/, /lt/, /ld/, /ltʃ/, /ldʒ/, /lk/	help, bulb, belt, hold, belch, indulge, milk
In rhotic varieties, /r/ plus stop or affricate: /rp/, /rb/, /rt/, /rd/, /rtʃ/, /rdʒ/, /rk/, /rg/	harp, orb, fort, beard, arch, large, mark, morgue
Lateral approximant + fricative: /lf/, /lv/, /lθ/, /ls/, /lz/, /lʃ/	golf, solve, wealth, else, bells, Welsh
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + fricative: /rf/, /rv/, /rθ/, /rs/, /rz/, /rʃ/	dwarf, carve, north, force, Mars, marsh
Lateral approximant + nasal: /lm/, /ln/	film, kiln
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + nasal or lateral: /rm/, /rn/, /rl/	arm, born, snarl
Nasal + homorganic stop or affricate:	jump, tent, end, lunch, lounge,

/mp/, /nt/, /nd/, /ntʃ/, /ndʒ/, /ŋk/	pink
Nasal+fricative: /mf/, /mθ/, /nθ/, /ns/, /nz/, /ŋθ/ in some varieties	triumph, warmth, month, prince, bronze, length
Voiceless fricative plus voiceless stop: /ft/, /sp/, /st/, /sk/	left, crisp, lost, ask
Two voiceless fricatives: /fθ/	fifth
Two voiceless stops: /pt/, /kt/	opt, act
Stop plus voiceless fricative: /pθ/, /ps/, /tθ/, /ts/, /dθ/, /ks/	depth, lapse, eighth, klutz, width, box
Lateral approximant + two consonants: /lpt/, /lps/, /lfθ/, /lts/, /lst/, /lkt/, /lks/	sculpt, alps, twelfth, waltz, whilst, mulct, calx
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + two consonants: /rmθ/, /rpt/, /rps/, /rts/, /rst/, /rkt/	warmth, excerpt, corpse, quartz, horst, infarct
Nasal + homorganic stop + stop or fricative: /mpt/, /mps/, /ndθ/, /ŋkt/, /ŋks/, /ŋkθ/ in some varieties	prompt, glimpse, thousandth, distinct, jinx, length
Three obstruents: /ksθ/, /kst/	sixth, next

For some speakers, a fricative before /θ/ is elided so that these never appear phonetically: /fɪfθ/ becomes [fɪθ], /sɪksθ/ becomes [sɪkθ], /twɛlfθ/ becomes [twɛlθ].

Syllable-level patterns:

a) Syllables may consist of a single vowel, meaning that onset and coda are not mandatory.

b) The consonant /ŋ/ does not occur in syllable-initial position.

c) The consonant /h/ does not occur in syllable-final position.

d) Onset clusters ending in /j/ are followed by /uː/ or its variants.

e) Long vowels and diphthongs are not found before /ŋ/, except for the mimetic words "boing" and "oink", unassimilated foreign words such as Burmese "aung" and proper names such as "Taung", and American-type pronunciations of words like "strong" (which have /ɔŋ/ or /ɑŋ/). The short vowels /ɛ, ʊ/ occur before /ŋ/ only in assimilated non-native words such as "ginseng" and "Sung" (name of dynasty) or non-finally in some dialects in words like "strength".

f) /ʊ/ is rare in syllable-initial position (although in the northern half of England, [ʊ] is used for /ʌ/ and is common at the start of syllables).

g) Stop + /w/ before /uː, ʊ, ʌ, aʊ/ (all presently or historically /u (ː)/) are excluded.

h) Sequences of /s/ + C_1 + $\breve{V}$ + C_1, where C_1 is a consonant other than /t/ and $\breve{V}$ is a short vowel, are virtually nonexistent.

Word-Level Patterns:

a) /ə/ does not occur in stressed syllables.

b) /ʒ/ does not occur in word-initial position in native English words, although it can occur syllable-initially as in "luxurious" /lʌgˈʒʊəriəs/, and at the start of borrowed words such as "genre".

c) /m/, /n/, /l/ and, in rhotic varieties, /r/ can be the syllable nucleus (i.e. a syllabic consonant) in an unstressed syllable following another consonant, especially /t/, /d/, /s/ or /z/. Such syllables are often analyzed phonemically as having an underlying /ə/ as the nucleus. See above under Consonants.

d) The short vowels are checked vowels, in that they cannot occur without a coda in a word-final stressed syllable. (This does not apply to /ə/, which does not occur in stressed syllables at all.)

12. Word stress in English (primary / secondary).

Place of word stress, ***degrees*** and ***types*** of word stress are very important in speech. The sequence of syllables in the word is not pronounced identically. The syllables which are uttered with more prominence than the other syllables of the word are said to be stressed or accented. Stress in the isolated word is termed word stress.

Languages are differentiated according to the placement of word stress. There are:

- **Fixed stress** (the occurrence of the word stress is limited to a particular syllable in a multisyllabic word. For instance, in French the stress falls on the last syllable of the word (if pronounced in isolation), in Finnish and Czech it is fixed on the first syllable);

- **Free stress** (its place is not confined to a specific position in the word. In one word it may fall on the first syllable, in another on the second syllable, in the third word - on the last syllable, etc. The free placement of stress is exemplified in the English and Russian languages).

There are actually as many degrees of stress in a word as there are syllables. The opinions of phoneticians differ as to how many degrees of stress are linguistically relevant in a word.

The British linguists usually distinguish three degrees of stress in the word: the primary stress (the strongest), the secondary stress is the second strongest and weak stress. Unstressed syllables are supposed to have weak stress. The American scholars Bloch and Trager find four degrees: loud, reduced loud, medial and weak stresses.

Stress in connected speech is termed **sentence stress**. Stress is defined differently by different authors.

Russian has variable stress patterns, as English. However Russian learners may give undue prominence to words that English native speakers would swallow, for example, “as” and “has” in the following sentences: “He’s as strong as an ox”. “She

has three brothers". Russian learners may ask questions with falling instead of rising intonation, which does not sound polite to English native speakers.

Vasiliy Alekseevich Bogoroditsky defined stress as an increase of energy, accompanied by an increase of expiratory and articulatory activity.

Daniel Jones defined stress as the degree of force, which is accompanied by a strong force of exhalation and gives an impression of loudness.

Henry Sweet also stated that stress is connected with the force of breath.

According to ***Alfred Charles Gimson***, the effect of prominence is achieved by any or all of four factors: force, tone, length and vowel colour.

If we compare stressed and unstressed syl-s in the words 'contract, to con'tract, we may note that in the stressed syllable:

a) The force is greater, which is connected with more energetic articulation;

b) The pitch of voice is higher, which is connected with stronger tenseness of the vocal cords and the walls of the resonance chamber;

c) The quantity of the vowel [æ] in [kən'trækt] is greater, the vowel becomes longer;

d) The quality of the vowel [æ] in the stressed syllable is different from the quality of this vowel in the unstressed position, in which it is narrower than ['æ].

Word stress can be defined as the singling out of one or more syllables in a word, which is accompanied by the change of the force of utterance, pitch of the voice, qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the sound, which is usually a vowel.

English word stress is traditionally defined as dynamic, but in fact, the special prominence of the stressed syllables is manifested in the English language not only through the increase of intensity, but also through the changes in the vowel quantity, consonant and vowel quality and pitch of the voice.

Russian word stress is not only dynamic but mostly quantitative and qualitative. The length of Russian vowels always depends on the position in a word.

Stress difficulties peculiar to the accentual structure of the English language are connected with the vowel special and inherent prominence. In identical positions the intensity of English vowels is different. The highest in intensity is /a: /, then go /o:, з:, i:, u:, æ, σ, e, ʊ, i/.

All English vowels may occur in accented syllables, the only exception is /ə/, which is never stressed. English vowels /i, и, ə ʊ/ tend to occur in unstressed syllables. Syllables with the syllabic /1, m, n/ are never stressed. Unstressed diphthongs may partially lose their glide quality. In stressed syllables English stops have complete closure, fricatives have full friction, and features of fortis/lenis distinction are clearly defined.

Typology of accentual structure of English words was worked out by Vladimir Yuriyevich Torsuev. He classifies them according to the number of stressed syllables, their degree or character (the main and the secondary stress). The accentual types are:

I. This accentual type marks both simple and compound words. The accentual structures of this type may include two and more syllables, for example: 'father, 'possibly, 'mother-in-law;

II. In compound words usually with separable prefixes, for instance: 'radio-'active, 're'write;

III. In initial compound abbreviations like: U'S'A;

IV. Both in simple and compound words, for example: 'hair-‘dresser, 'substructure;

V. Great number of simple words and some compound words as well: maga'zine; hospi'tality;

VI. Small number of simple words with the separable prefixes, for example: ‘mis’repre’sent;

VII. Small number of words, for insance: ‘indi’viduali’zation;

VIII. Is met in rare instances of compound words, for example: ‘un’sea’worthy;

IX. Simple and compound, for instance: ‘soda-‘water ‘bottle;

X. Compound words of three components, for example: ‘ginger’ beer-‘bottle.

Sentence-stress in English is the governing stress in connected speech. All words have their individual stress in isolation. When words are connected into thought groups, and thought groups into sentences, content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) keep their stress and function words lose their stress.

The most important words in a sentence receive stronger stress. The last stressed word in a sentence receives the strongest stress with the help of falling or rising intonation. If it is necessary to keep the rhythm, the stress in some words can be shifted or weakened in a certain way.

Sentence stress has a very important function **of marking the words** that are necessary for understanding an utterance. When native speakers of English listen to their conversation partners, they listen for stressed words, because stressed words provide important information.

It is often difficult to understand the meaning of the sentence in which even one content word is missing. It is also difficult to understand the sentence in which an important word is not stressed or a function word is **stressed**.

Unstressed function words make sentences grammatically correct. They are not important in terms of the information, because even if you don’t get some quickly pronounced function words, the meaning of the whole sentence will be clear to you.

Sentence stress is the main means of providing rhythm in speech. Rhythm is the key to fluent English speech. The stressed syllables are like the beats of the metronome: regular, loud, and clear. The unstressed syllables between the beats are shortened, obscured and joined together.

Sentence stress is the key component of English intonation. Intonation organizes words into sentences, distinguishes between different types of sentences and adds emotional coloring to utterances.

13. Prosody (Melody, Rhythm, Pauses, Tone).

The word "**prosody**" comes from ancient Greek, where it was used for a "song sung with instrumental music". In later times the word was used for the "science of versification" and the "laws of metre", governing the modulation of the human voice in reading poetry aloud.

In modern phonetics the word "prosody" and its adjectival form "prosodic" are most often used to refer to those properties of speech that cannot be derived from the segmental sequence of phonemes underlying human utterances.

Examples of such properties are the controlled modulation of the voice pitch, the stretching and shrinking of segment and syllable durations, and the intentional fluctuations of overall loudness. On the perceptual level these properties lead amongst other things to perceived patterns of relative syllable prominences, coded in perceived melodical and rhythmical aspects of speech.

In modern generative phonology, the word "prosody" has been given a somewhat different meaning, as it refers to nonsegmental aspects of abstract linguistic structure, such as a particular type of constituent structure and the presence or absence of accents that are, at least potentially, systematically reflected in the phonetic rendition of utterances.

Of course, the phonetic and phonological meanings of the word prosody might be considered two sides of the same coin: although phonologists give primacy to an abstract description of the phenomena concerned, they look for empirical evidence in the realm of speech. Phoneticians rather start from observations on real speech, but the abstract notions they come up with to account for the observed phenomena are phonological by nature. In this chapter we will take our starting position in the phonetic domain.

In linguistics, **prosody** is concerned with those elements of speech that are not individual phonetic segments (vowels and consonants) but are properties of syllables and larger units of speech. These are linguistic functions such as **intonation, tone, stress,** and **rhythm**.

Prosody may reflect various features of the speaker or the utterance: the emotional state of the speaker; the form of the utterance (statement, question, or command); the presence of irony or sarcasm; emphasis, contrast, and focus; or other elements of language that may not be encoded by grammar or by choice of vocabulary.

In the study of prosodic aspects of speech it is usual to distinguish between auditory measures (subjective impressions produced in the mind of the listener) and acoustic measures (physical properties of the sound wave that may be measured objectively). Auditory and acoustic measures of prosody do not correspond in a linear way. Most studies of prosody have been based on auditory analysis using auditory scales.

There is no agreed number of prosodic variables. In auditory terms, the major variables are:

a) The pitch of the voice (varying between low and high);

b) Length of sounds (varying between short and long);

c) Loudness, or prominence (varying between soft and loud);

d) Timbre (quality of sound).

In acoustic terms, these correspond reasonably closely to fundamental frequency (measured in hertz, or cycles per second); duration (measured in time units such as milliseconds or seconds); intensity, or sound pressure level (measured in decibels); spectral characteristics (distribution of energy at different parts of the audible frequency range).

Different combinations of these variables are exploited in the linguistic functions of intonation and stress, as well as other prosodic features such as rhythm, tempo and loudness. Additional prosodic variables have been studied, including voice quality and pausing.

The very notion "**rhythm** of speech" suggests that two different utterances may share a common, underlying, property, called the same "rhythm". Intuitively, this can

be brought to awareness by imitating the rhythmical pattern of an utterance with nonsense syllables, as “The Man in the Street” (where capitalized words are accented), imitated with “daDAdadaDA”. Notice that one can do this at least in two different ways, either preserving the speech melody of the original utterance, or in a monotone.

In case of the monotonous version we still can judge whether or not the imitation of the original rhythmical structure is successful. This suggests that it is possible, at least in first approximation, to study the rhythm of speech as a function of the temporal patterning of speech, without taking into account the melodic aspects.

As in the case of intonation, we will approach the rhythm of speech from the phonetic angle, concentrating on the ensemble of speech sound durations that together constitute the temporal patterning of speech attempting to focus on those aspects of temporal patterns that are relevant to the perceived rhythmical structure of speech, and de-emphasizing those aspects that are not.

However, as will be shown below, the state of affairs with respect to rhythm is very different from the one in intonation. It will be made clear that different factors contributing to durational variation cannot so easily be separated.

English is claimed to be a **stress-timed** language. That is, stressed syllables tend to appear with a more or less regular rhythm, while non-stressed syllables are shortened to accommodate this. For example, in the sentence “One make of car is better than another”, the syllables “one, make, car, bett-” and “-noth-” will be stressed and relatively long, while the other syllables will be considerably shorter.

The theory of stress-timing predicts that each of the three unstressed syllables in between “bett-” and “-noth-” will be shorter than the syllable of between “make” and “car”, because three syllables must fit into the same amount of time as that available for “of”. However, it should not be assumed that all varieties of English are stress-timed in this way.

The English spoken in the West Indies, in Africa and in India are probably better characterized as syllable-timed, though the lack of an agreed scientific test for categorizing an accent or language as stress-timed or syllable-timed may lead one to doubt the value of such a characterization.

Rhythms are sequences of alternating values of some feature or features of speech (such as the intensity, duration or melody of syllables, words or phrases) at approximately equal time intervals, which play a role in the aesthetics and rhetoric of speech, and differ somewhat from one language or language variety to another under the influence of syllable, word, phrase, sentence, text and discourse structure.

Melodies are contours of the pitch values associated with syllables, words and whole utterances, and contribute to rhythms whenever their pitch patterns alternate in similar time intervals, but also have additional properties of rising, falling or level pitch with their own functionalities. **Rhythms** and **melodies** which contribute to the language structure and meaning constitute **the domain of prosody**.

Related phonetic properties of voice quality which mark emotional or physical states and individual speaker characteristics are often known as paralinguistic features, but the boundaries between paralinguistic features and the prosodic features which contribute to language structure and meaning are somewhat fluid. The term ‘paralinguistic’ is also sometimes used to refer to non-verbal, gestural communication, where analogies to the rhythms and melodies of speech are found. There are many motivations for studying prosody and many disciplines in which the study of prosody has proved to be essential.

The most conspicuous disciplines in this respect are:

Linguistics (in relation to language structure and form);

Phonetics (in the causal sequence from the phonation rate of the larynx in speech production through the fundamental frequency, of the speech waves in transmission to the impression of pitch in perception);

Philosophy of Language (in relation to speech acts);

Sociolinguistics and **Sociology** (in relation to interactive social behaviour);

Psycholinguistics (in relation to speech behaviour and the cognitive processing of speech);

Gestural Studies (in relation to the related functionalities and parallel structures of gesture and prosody);

Clinical Linguistics, Clinical Phonetics and **Speech Therapy** (in diagnosis and therapy of speech disabilities resulting from a range of conditions from strokes to Parkinson's disease);

Language Learning and **Teaching** (in relation to the different prosodic structures of source and target languages);

Evolutionary Linguistics (in the relation of speech prosody to the rhythms and melodies of the calls, cries and hoots of primates and other species);

Speech Technology (in relation to human-machine interaction).

Pause in English is a moment or a short period in which something such as a sound or an activity is stopped before starting again.

In Modern English the following **tones** are: falling tone, rising tone; fall-rise; high fall, low fall; high rise, mid-level rise, low rise.

The tone (rise, fall, etc.) is the most significant pitch change that takes place at the end of sense groups and at the end of the sentence. The terminal tone at the end of the sentence is the most important means for determining the type of sentence (statement, question, command, and request).

Prosodic stress is extra stress given to words or syllables when they appear in certain positions in an utterance, or when they receive special emphasis.

According to ***Peter Ladefoged***'s analysis English normally has prosodic stress on the final stressed syllable in an intonation unit. This is said to be the origin of the distinction traditionally made at the lexical level between primary and secondary stress: when a word like "admiration" (traditionally transcribed as something like /ˌædmɪˈreɪʃən/) is spoken in isolation, or at the end of a sentence, the

syllable “ra” (the final stressed syllable) is pronounced with greater force than the syllable “ad”, although when the word is not pronounced with this final intonation there may be no difference between the levels of stress of these two syllables.

Prosodic stress can shift for various pragmatic functions, such as focus or contrast. For instance, in the dialogue: “Is it brunch tomorrow?” “No, it’s **dinner** tomorrow”, the extra stress shifts from the last stressed syllable of the sentence, “to**mor**row”, to the last stressed syllable of the emphasized word, “**din**ner”.

Grammatical function words are usually prosodically unstressed, although they can acquire stress when emphasized (as in “Did you find the cat?” “Well, I found **a** cat”). Many English function words have distinct strong and weak pronunciations; for example, the word *a* in the last example is pronounced /eɪ/, while the more common unstressed “a” is pronounced /ə/.

Intonation is the ***melody of the sentence***. Intonation is created by changes in the pitch of the voice (the voice goes higher and lower; remains on the same level; rises or falls), by sentence stress (strong stress on important words; weak stress or no stress on less important words), and by rhythm (stressed syllables occur at more or less equal intervals).

The most important functions of intonation are to distinguish types of sentences (statements, questions, commands, and requests) and to divide sentences into sense groups. Also, intonation allows speakers to express various emotions.

Intonation is “a term used in the study of suprasegmental phonology referring to the distinctive use of patterns of **pitch** or **melody**” (***D.Crystal***, 1980, p.190). “The use of pitch variation to convey meaning” (P.Roach, 2001, p. 110). “The pattern of pitch changes that occurs during a phrase, which maybe a complete sentence” (***P.Ladefoged***, 2003).

Intonation “is a complex unity of four components, formed by communicatively relevant variations in:

1) Voice pitch, or speech melody;

2) The prominence of words, or their accent;

3) The tempo (rate), rhythm and pausation of the utterance,

4) Voice-tamber, this complex unity serving to express adequately, on the basis of the 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" (***L.S.Vassilyev***, 1970, p.290).

Although intonation is primarily a matter of pitch variation, it is important to be aware that functions attributed to intonation such as the expression of attitudes and emotions, or highlighting aspects of grammatical structure, almost always involve concomitant variation in other prosodic features.

David Crystal says that "intonation is not a single system of contours and levels, but the product of the interaction of features from different prosodic systems – tone, pitch-range, loudness, rhythmically and tempo in particular" (***D.Crystal***, 1975, p.11).

Phonological contrasts in intonation can be said to be found in three different and independent domains. In the work of ***M.A.K.Halliday*** the following names are proposed:

a) **Tonality** for the distribution of continuous speech into tone groups.

b) **Tonicity** for the placing of the principal accent on a particular syllable of a word, making it the **tonic syllable**. This is the domain also referred to as prosodic stress or sentence stress.

c) **Tone** for the choice of pitch movement on the tonic syllable. (The use of the term "tone" in this sense should not be confused with the tone of tone languages, such as Chinese.)

These terms ("the Three Ts") have been used in more recent work, though they have been criticized for being difficult to remember. American systems such as ToBI also identify contrasts involving boundaries between intonation phrases (Halliday's tonality), placement of pitch accent (tonicity), and choice of tone or tones associated with the pitch accent (tone).

Example of phonological contrast involving placement of intonation unit boundaries (boundary marked by |):

a) Those who ran quickly | escaped. (The only people who escaped were those who ran quickly);

b) Those who ran | quickly escaped. (The people who ran escaped quickly).

Example of phonological contrast involving placement of tonic syllable (marked by capital letters):

a) I have plans to LEAVE. (= I am planning to leave);

b) I have PLANS to leave. (= I have some drawings to leave).

Example of phonological contrast (British English) involving choice of tone (\ = falling tone, V = fall-rise tone):

a) She didn't break the record because of the \ WIND. (= she did not break the record, because the wind held her up):

b) She didn't break the record because of the \/ WIND. (= she did break the record, but not because of the wind).

There is typically a contrast involving tone between wh-questions and yes/no questions, the former having a falling tone (for example: "Where did you \PUT it?") and the latter a rising tone (for instance: "Are you going /OUT?"), though studies of spontaneous speech have shown frequent exceptions to this rule. Tag questions asking for information are said to carry rising tones (for example: "They are coming on Tuesday, /AREN'T they?") while those asking for confirmation have falling tone (for instance: "Your name's John, \ISN'T it").

14. Typology of the Vowel System in the Languages Compared.

There is a set of isomorpic and allomorphic features in the contrasted languages. Allomorphic features are traced in the difference of vowel quantity. To isomorphic ones belong familiar monophthongs and factors that predetermined their systemic

organization. English and Russian, English and Azerbaijani are contrasted on the basis of common principles or factors:

1) **Stability of articulation.** There are 6 vowels (monophthongs) in Russian /a, o, y, и, э, e/ and 20 vowels in English (12 of them are monophthongs /I, i: e, ə, ʌ, a:, u, u:, æ, o, o:, з:/, two of them are diphthongoids /i:/, /u:/ and 8 diphthongs). Here such group oppositions as monophthongs ::diphthongs, diphthongs :: diphthongs.

2) **Tongue position:** to allomorphs features belong: absence of central, back advanced and front retracted Vs (according to the horizontal movement of the tongue) and no differentiation between narrow and broad Vs according to the vertical movement. English /e/ is mid, narrow, U-n /e/ is open, low, front, E /o/ is low, U is mid. According to the horizontal movement in U there are such oppositions as front::back, in English front::front retracted, central::back::back-advanced.

3) **Lip position.** Russian /y/, /o/ and English /o, o:, u, u:/ are labialized, though, according to the research of pronunciation of "well" /y(ü)/ and /u/ have lost their labialization.

4) **Vowel length.** In English, Russian and Azerbaijani there exists an opposition between long and short monophthongs.

5) **Nazalization** is traced in English: /m, n, ŋ/.

6) **Distribution of Verb**: if a stressed vowel is is followed by a strong voiceless consonant, this vowel is checked. If a vowel is followed by a weak voiceless consonant it is free. In English long vowels appear in open syllables, and /ə/ in an unstressed position.

Phonological opposition is the distinction of at least two elements having a common feature and a differentiating one. Within the systems of vowels there are such **allomorphs oppositions**:

a) **Tense and lax vowels** (according to the degree of muscular tension of articulatory organs),

b) **Abrupted-non-abrupted vowels** (according to the force of articulation at the end of the vowel),

c) **Long-short vowels** (are opposited only in English); oppositions according to the stability of articulation: monophthongs::diphthongs – bid-beard /i-iə/; diphthongs :: diphthong – bay-boy.

15. Oppositions in the System of Vowels.

1) Group oppositions according to the **horizontal movement of the tongue** (classes are opposited; such oppositions are of isomorphic nature in both languages):

Front-back: [i:-u:] beat-boot, [as-a:] cat-cart, [i-y],[i-a],[i-o],[h-v],[h-o],[n-a].

Front-retracted-back-advanced: [i-v] kick-cook; front-central [e-3:] bed-bird, central-back [a-o:] tuck-talk, back[a:-o] heart-hot.

2) Group oppositions according to the **vertical movement of the tongue** at the same posotions heights close / high [i:-i] feel-fill, [u:-u] pool-pull, middle [a] foreward-forward, open/low, [o:-o] port-pot.

3) Group oppositions according to the **vertical movement of the tongue at different position heights**: close narrow – open broad: seed-sad, close narrow – mid narrow neat-net.

16. Phonemes, syllables, stress, intonation as criteria for phonological comparison.

On the basis of which we get different languages both oral and written: we can say that some phonemes of one language may be absent in another, others may resemble, but have difference in some points. The followings are the most characteristic features of English and Azerbaijani, English and Russian phonological systems.

Lexical stress is phonemic in English. For example, the noun "**in**crease" and the verb "in**crease**" are distinguished by the positioning of the stress on the first syllable in the former, and on the second syllable in the latter.

Stressed syllables in English are louder than non-stressed syllables, as well as being longer and having a higher pitch.

In traditional approaches, in any English word consisting of more than one syllable, each syllable is ascribed one of three degrees of stress: ***primary***, ***secondary*** or ***unstressed***.

Ordinarily, in each such word there will be exactly one syllable with primary stress, possibly one syllable having secondary stress, and the remainder are unstressed. For example, the word "am**az**ing" has primary stress on the second syllable, while the first and third syllables are unstressed, whereas the word "**or**ganiz**a**tion" has primary stress on the fourth syllable, secondary stress on the first, and the second, third and fifth unstressed.

This is often shown in pronunciation keys using the IPA symbols for primary and secondary stress (which are and respectively), placed before the syllables to which they apply. The two words just given may therefore be represented (in RP) as /əˈmeɪzɪŋ/ and /ˌɔːgənaɪˈzeɪʃən/.

Some analysts identify an additional level of stress (**tertiary stress**). This is generally ascribed to syllables that are pronounced with less force than those with secondary stress, but nonetheless contain a "full" or "unreduced" vowel. Hence the third syllable of "organization", if pronounced with /aɪ/ as shown above (rather than being reduced to /ɪ/ or /ə/), might be said to have tertiary stress. (The precise identification of secondary and tertiary stress differs between analyses; dictionaries do not generally show tertiary stress, although some have taken the approach of marking all syllables with unreduced vowels as having at least secondary stress.)

In some analyses, then, the concept of lexical stress may become conflated with that of vowel reduction. An approach which attempts to separate these two is provided

by Peter Ladefoged, who states that it is possible to describe English with only one degree of stress, as long as unstressed syllables are phonemically distinguished for vowel reduction. In this approach, the distinction between primary and secondary stress is regarded as a phonetic or prosodic detail rather than a phonemic feature – primary stress is seen as an example of the predictable "**tonic**" **stress** that falls on the *final* stressed syllable of a prosodic unit. For more details of this analysis, see Stress and vowel reduction in English.

It is necessary to mention that the pronunciation of Russian words is most conveniently denoted by means of Russian letters. The Russian (a) resembles the sound of the English (ɑ:); in the word "father", but not so deep. While pronouncing the Russian (a) the tongue is not retracted so far back as in the pronounciation of the English (ɑ). The first sound element in the words (i) and "eye" is very much alike the Russian (a). Compare: "май" and "my". The Russian (э) is similar to the English (e) as in the words "egg" – "это"; "let"- "лето". The Russian (о) resembles the English vowel in the word "law", but is shorter and more closed. One should be careful not to substitute the short (ɔ) as in the words "clock" and "not" for the Russian (о).

Generally, the sub-system of English vowels includes 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs. In Russian there are 6 monophthongs and no diphthongs.

In Russian as in English there are no general rules for **stress**. It may fall on the first, no the last or any medial syllable of a word. Compare: книги - books; закончил -finished; улицы - streets; фабрики - factories; уже - already; институт -institute.

Stress in Russian is very marked. The function of stress is, first of all, word-distinctive as in the words "замок", "замок". In English "man'kind"- человечество, " 'mankind"- мужское население.

Stress can also serve for form-distinction as in Russian "олимпийские игры", "десятая минута игры".

When speaking about **intonation** it is necessary to state that in both languages the falling tone is characteristic of declarative, imperative, exclamatory sentences and

also in special questions. The rising tone is found in general questions, e.g.: “Ты моё письмо получил?”; in interrogative sentences beginning with “разве”. “Разве вы знакомы?” In incomplete sentences without a predicate, but beginning with the conjunction (a): “А мы?”or “А они?”. In the corresponding English sentences the word-order is different in the first two sentences, i.e.: “Did you get my letter?” “Are you acquainted?” But in the third case the word-order is practically the same, ex.: “And you?” “And they?”

According to the phonological classification of the languages can be **vocalic and consonantal**. To the vocalic languages we can refer such languages as Dutch (the vowel inventory of Dutch is large, with 14 simple vowels and four diphthongs), English (“The Longman Pronunciation Dictionary” by ***John C. Wells***, for example, using symbols of “the International Phonetic Alphabet”, denotes 24 consonants and 23 vowels used in Received Pronunciation, plus two additional consonants and four additional vowels used in foreign words only), German, French, etc. To the consonantal languages belong Arabic (Modern Standard Arabic has only three vowels, with long and short forms of /a/, /i/, and /u/. There are also two diphthongs: /aj/ and /aw/), Persian, Atlantic group of Indian languages, etc.

Lecture 7. Typology of Morphological Systems. Typology of Parts of Speech.

1. Typology of the Noun in English and Azerbaijani.
2. Typology of the Noun in English and Russian.
3. Typology of the Adjective in English and Azerbaijani.
4. Typology of the Adjective in English and Russian.
5. Typology of the Adverb in English, Azerbaijani and Russian.
6. Typology of the Pronoun in English, Azerbaijani and Russian. Morphological properties of various groups of pronouns.
7. Typology of the Numeral. The use of numerals in Modern English, Azerbaijani and Russian. Similarity between Pronouns and Numerals.

As we know, Azerbaijani and English belong to different language families: English is a Germanic one, Azerbaijani is an Altaic one. It means that these languages genetically aren't cognate (related). In order to compare one language with another, we must find out such general features in both languages, that we can correlate (compare).

Russian is part of the Slavonic branch of the Indo-European language family. It is closely related to other Slavic languages such as Polish, Czech and Serbo-Croatian. Russian is spoken as a mother tongue by about 150 million people in Russia and the former republics of the USSR.

English and Russian are very different in many important aspects. In particular the grammar systems show significant variations. English has a fairly fixed word order. Meaning is expressed through the addition of words, for example, auxiliaries, and movement of words within limited boundaries.

Russian, on the other hand, conveys meaning largely through changes in the composition or words, e.g. by inflections or the addition of prefixes and suffixes. Its

word order is very fluid. Because of these differences Russians often find learning English a serious challenge.

According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech. In English we distinguish between **notional and structural** parts of speech (***V.L.Kaushanskaya***, 1973).

V.L.Kaushanskaya, R.L.Kovner, O.N.Kojevnikova in the book, which is "a practical course of English Grammar" give a general classification of the parts of speech. There are: **9 notional parts of speech** –

1) The noun;

2) The adjective;

3) The pronoun;

4) The numeral;

5) The verb;

6) The adverb;

7) The words of the category of state;

8) The modal words;

9) The interjection;

and **4 structural parts of speech**, which express relations between words or sentences, or emphasize the meaning of words or sentences; they never perform any independent function in the sentence; there are:

1) The preposition;

2) The conjunction;

3) The particle;

4) The article.

According to ***E.E.Izrailevich*** and ***K.N.Kachalova*** there are 9 parts of speech in English: the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb and the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. In the book "Practical Grammar

of the English Language" (1952) these authors call the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb and the adverb - **independent words**. The preposition and the conjunction they call **link-words**. The auxiliary verbs are supposed to be link-words. They thought that the article is also link-word, but it is not any part of speech, as the article is the noun's feature. In their opinion, the interjection refers neither to independent words, nor to link-words; as it has different meanings and syntactical functions.

Oruj Musayev in the book "English Grammar" (1975, 1977, 1979, 1986, 1996, 1999, 2007, 2014) gives a general classification of the parts of speech. He distinguishes between **notional, free and auxiliary** parts of speech. According to his classification the noun; the adjective; the pronoun; the numeral; the verb; the adverb; the words of the category of state belong to the notional parts of speech. The notional parts of speech perform certain functions in the sentence: the functions of the subject, predicate, attribute, object or adverbial modifier. The preposition; the conjunction; the particle; the article belong to auxiliary parts of speech. The modal words; the interjection and especially the words **"yes"** and **"no"** belong to free parts of speech. In his opinion the words "yes" and "no" are alike with the modal words, as they have no syntactical function in the sentence; they always express the speaker's attitude towards the action or reality.

To my mind, according to the criteria of form, meaning and function all words are divided into **notional** and **functional**, which reflects their division in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable.

Functional words are characterized by incomplete nominative meaning, they are non-self-dependent and they perform mediatory functions in the sentence.

On the principle of "generalized form" only unchangeable words are traditionally treated under the heading of functional parts of speech. As for their individual forms as such, they are simply presented by the list, since the number of these words is limited, so that don't need to be identified on any general scheme.

To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the interjection.

I think (Nigar Valiyeva) that the words **"yes"** and **"no"** belong to **functional parts of speech**, it depends from context, they may be either **conjunctions**, or **particles**.

Every conjunction has its own meaning, expressing some connection or other existing between phenomena in extralinguistic reality. The meaning of the conjunction is independent of preceding words.

A conjunction is a part of speech that connects words, phrases, or clauses that are called the conjuncts of the conjoining construction. A conjunction is a **discourse maker** as is mostly used for joining sentences. A conjunction is an invariable non-inflected grammatical particle and it may or may not stand between the items conjoined. The definition may also be extended to idiomatic phrases that behave as a unit the same function, for example: "as well as", "provided that".

A simple literary example of a conjunction: "the truth of nature **and** the power of giving interest" (***Samuel Taylor***, "Coleridge's Biographia").

It is common knowledge that **the prepositions** are most important element of the structure of many languages, particulary those which, like Modern English, have no developed case system in their nominal parts of speech. The prepositions in English are less closely connected with the word or phrase they introduce than, say, in Russian. This greater independence of English prepositions manifests itself in various ways.

The preposition is traditionally defined as a word expressing relations between words in the sentence. The weakness of the traditional definition is that it does not allow us to distinguish prepositions from subordinating conjunctions. For instance: "She never saw him after the concert" and "She never saw him after he left town".

In traditional analysis, the preposition is used with the noun phrase, not with the verb phrase. Such being the case, "after" in the first sentence a preposition, while

"after" in the second sentence is a conjunction. In other words, the status of "after" is determined by the linguistic status of the following phrase. Accepting this approach we shall have to treat the two uses of "after" as homonymous.

A new approach to prepositions and subordinating conjunctions is to treat the two traditional categories as prepositions. ***Rodney Huddleston*** and ***Geoffrey K.Pullum*** (2002, p. 600) include in the preposition category all of the subordinating conjunctions of traditional grammar with the exception of "whether" and "that". The prepositions are taken as heads of phrases and are comparable to verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs which also function as heads.

This approach to prepositions makes it possible to combine prepositions and subordinating conjunctions into one class and thus solve the problem of the discrimination of prepositions and conjunctions.

Sometimes the boundary line between a preposition and another part of speech is not quite clear. Thus, with reference to the words like "near" there may be doubtful cases form this viewpoint. For instance, there certainly is the adjective "near", used in such phrases as "the near future". On the other hand, there is the preposition "near", found in such sentences as: "They live near me".

Functionally, prepositions can be divided into grammatical, and non-grammatical (the latter are subdivided into spatial and non-spatial).

Grammatical prepositions have no identifiable meaning independent of the grammatical construction in which they occur. Compare:

1. He was interviewed by the police.

2. They were discussing the speech of the President.

3. She sent the letter to John.

In all these examples the prepositions have no identifiable meaning of their own: it is only in the co-text that we can say what meaning they express. In the first sentence - by marks the element that is the Agent; in the second sentence - of marks

the possessive relationship between the speech and the President; in the third sentence - to marks the Recipient.

In their grammatical functions, prepositions are similar to inflections in synthetic languages. Compare “interviewed by the police” – допрошены полицией; “the speech of the President” – речь президента; “sent to John” – отправила Джону.

As already indicated, non-grammatical prepositions can be divided into spatial and non-spatial. The term “spatial” including two types of space: non-temporal and temporal. Spatial non-temporal prepositions mark the position of entities with respect to each other: one entity is treated as a reference point (the deictic center) with respect to which another is located.

It is necessary to analyze **morphological features** of the prepositions. Structurally prepositions fall into two categories: simple or one-word. The prepositions “in, on, for, to, about, after”, etc. and composite or two-/ three word prepositions “ahead of, because of, according to, by means of, at the cost of, with reference to”, etc. However, not all scholars recognize the existence of composite prepositions.

Now speak about **syntactic features** of the prepositions. As far as phrases are concerned, the function of prepositions is to connect words with each other. On the sentence level: a preposition is never a part of a sentence by itself; it enters the part of sentence whose main center is the following noun, or pronoun, or gerund. It won’t be correct to say that prepositions connect parts of a sentence. They do not do that, as they stand within a part of the sentence, not between two parts.

In Azerbaijani we distinguish between **notional, structural and special** parts of speech (***Muxtar Hüseynzadə***, “Müasir Azərbaycan dili”, it consists of three parts, 1983). He gives a general classification of the parts of speech of the Azerbaijani language. According to his classification the noun; the adjective; the pronoun; the numeral; the verb and the adverb belong to the notional parts of speech. The conjunction; the postposition; the particle and the modal words belong to structural

parts of speech. The interjection and the imitations belong to special parts of speech. The imitations are the words imitate the sounds of the men, the animals, the sounds of the natural phenomena. There are two kinds of imitations: sound and view. Sound imitations: vız, tıq, çaq, şırr, pırr, gurr, tıq-tıq, çıq-çıq, şır-şır, xor-xor, taraq-taruq, etc. View imitations: bıldır-bıldır, gildir-gildir, puçur-puçur,par-par, işim-işim,etc.

1. Typology of the Noun in English and Azerbaijani.

As we know, the grammatical category is one of the most morphological features characterizing the given part of speech. The grammatical category is the dialectical unity of the grammatical meaning and the grammatical form. Now, we are going to speak of typological characteristics of the nominal grammatical categories of the noun in Modern English and Azerbaijani.

The five properties that are used as criteria for distinguishing parts of speech serve as the basis of comparison:

1) The lexico - grammatical meanings of nouns in both languages are similar.

2) The variety of lexico – grammatical morphemes is much greater in the Azerbaijani noun. A peculiarity of Azerbaijani is the abundance of suffixes, such as:

I group –lıq, -lik, -luq, -lük (insanlıq, rəhbərlik, qohumluq, gözlük, ayağıyüngüllük); -laq, (yaylaq, otlaq); -ça , -çə, (dəftərçə, meydança); -çı, -çi, -çu, -çü (arabaçı, oyuncaqçı, meyxanaçı, lüğətçi, neftçi, əməkçi, otelçi, quşçu, omonçu, quruluşçu, hücumçu, kömürçü, söyüşçü); -cıq, -cik, -cuq, -cük, -cığaz, -ciyəz, -cuğaz, -cüyəz (adacıq, daxmacıq, evcik, beyincik, (Oğuz-)Səlcuq, (burun) körpücük, gözcük (qapıda), qızcığaz, uşaqcığaz, evciyəz, quşcuğaz, gülciyəz); -lı, -li, -lu, -lü (adaxlı, dağlı, atlı, otaqlı, ovqatlı, dava-şavalı, şəhərli, əmzikli, əndazəli, azmərtəbəli, ovsunlu, otlu, örtüklü); -daş (yoldaş, vətəndaş, əməkdaş);

II group –iyyət (şəxsiyyət); -iyyat (ədəbiyyat); -dar (tərəfdar); -keş (zəhmətkeş); -at, -ət (məlumat, mühacirət); -stan (Dağıstan, Qazaxıstan, Özbəkistan, Tacikistan, Türkmənistan, Monqolustan, Kürdüstan); -iyyə (nəzəriyyə); -i, -vi (Nizami Gəncəvi,

Fizuli); -zadə (Ağazadə, Nağızadə, Vəlizadə, Yusifzadə); -şünas (dilşünas, hüquqşünas, diyarşünas, şərqşünas);

III group –izm (aristokratizm, avtomatizm, bürokratizm, fatalizm, materializm, kapitalizm, kommunizm, şovinizm); -ist (realist, maksimalist, kommunist, şovinist);

IV group –ıq, -ik, -uq, -ük, -q (tapşırıq, abdallıq, bambılılıq, minik, buruq, bölük, gözlük, balışüzülük); -ış, -iş, -uş, -üş, -yış, -yiş (çağırış, gəliş, buruş, gülüş, yaşayış); -ma, -mə (uydurma, gəlmə); -aq, -ək, -dayaq, -ələk (baxaq, vidalaşaq, gələk, görüşək); -caq, -cək (alınacaq, yelləncək, içəcək); -ım, -im, -um, -üm (yığım, ölüm); -gə (süpürgə, döngə); -ar, -ər (açar, yetər); -tı, -ti, -tu, -tü (bağırtı, göyərti); -qı, -qu, -ğı, -ğu, -ki, -kü, -gi, -gü (çalğı, vurğu, sevgi, seçki, bölgü); -qın, -ğın, -qun, -ğun, -gin, -kin, -gün, -kün (başqın, qırqın, qaçqın, uçqun); -ın, -in (biçin, axın); -id, -üd (keçid, öyüd); -ı, -i, -u, -ü (yazı, qorxu, çəki,ölü); -ıcı, -ici, -ucu, -ücü (atıcı, qurucu, sürücü, öldürücü); -ınc, -inc (qaxınc, sevinc); -acaq, -əcək (yanacaq, gələcək); -cə (əyləncə); -gəc (sürgəc); -ir, -ır (gəlir-mədaxil, yatır-xəzinə); -ıc (ayrıc); -ıntı, -inti, -untu, üntü (qazıntı, yeyinti, çöküntü, ovuntu).

3) In both languages we find the categories of case and number, but their distinctions, especially those of the category of case differ greatly in the two languages:

a) An English case contains 2 members, as against the Azerbaijani contains 6 members.

b) In English the singular number common case is not marked.

c) The productive positive number and case morphemes are standard in English, as: “-s; -es; ‘s” and non-standard in Azerbaijani, as: -lar, -lər (adamlar, böyüklər); -ıq, -ik (əlaçıyıq,mərdlik); -ız, -iz, -uz, -üz (atamız, tələbəsiniz).

d) Number and case are sometimes expressed by separate morphemes in English, for example: children’s ; while in Azerbaijani they are inseparable.

e) The case morpheme “‘s” has a certain freedom of distribution not observed in any case form of the Azerbaijani language.

f) Owing to narrowness of the Genitive case the only other case, i.e. the Common case is exceptionally wide. In fact, the extending of its meaning almost equals that of all the 6 cases of Azerbaijani nouns. Here the necessity of specification by prepositions and the great importance of prepositions as a characteristic feature of English should be mentioned.

g) The "of-phrase" in English can in fact replace the Genitive case. The difference between them is mostly stylistic. There is nothing similar in Azerbaijani.

4) English nouns, as well as, Azerbaijani nouns don't form into 3 gender sub-classes.

5) In both languages nouns can be divided into countables and uncountables. Uncountables in the compared languages have oblique number meanings through the analogy in form and combinability with countables. In English: the police are; Phonetics is; the family is (are); the people is (are).

6) The number of Azerbaijani nouns having no case, opposite is small. They are comparatively recent borrowing like-"palto, taksi, kenquru". But in English the majority of nouns have no case opposites.

7) In both languages the functions of different case grammenes are different. In English Possessive case grammenes are used exclusively as attributes. In Azerbaijani only a Nominative case grammene can be the subject, only an Accusative case can be a direct object; a Dative and a Prepositional cases can be an indirect object, a Genitive case can be an attribute, an Instrumental case can be an adverbial modifier.

In both languages according to its structure and morphological composition we distinguish simple, derivative and compound nouns.

Simple nouns: chair, table, room; su, kitab, at.

Derivative: reader, sailor, childhood; gözəllik, yaylaq, tarixçi, atlı, sirdaş, zəruriyyət.

Compound: appletree, snowball; maşınqayırma, rəsmxət, qayınata, sarıköynək, istiot.

Adlıq halı	**Nominative case**	**Именительный падеж**
Yiyəlik halı	**Genitive case**	**Родительный падеж**
Yönlük halı	**Dative case**	**Дательный падеж**
Təsirlik halı	**Accusative case**	**Винительный падеж**
Yerlik halı	**Instrumental case**	**Творительный падеж**
Çıxışlıq halı	**Locative / Prepositional case**	**Предложный падеж**

2. Typology of the Noun in English and Russian.

1) Though English and Russian belong to the same language family – **Indo-European**, their morphological systems differ greatly due to the specific historical development. Thus, in the English language the majority of words belonging to the notional parts of speech are characterized by one morpheme formations, in which the root morpheme can be used as a stem and as an independent word.

Root morpheme	Stem	Independent word	Derivative word
child	child	child (noun)	childhood
teach	teach	teach (verb)	teaching

But in Russian language the notional words consist of two morphemes – root and affixational.

Корневая основа	Основа	Аффикс	Отдельное слово	Словообразо-вательная морфема	Производное слово
город	город	нулевой	город	-ск	городской

сид	сид	-еть	сидеть	-ени	сидение

But in Russian notional words with three morphemes are very rare.

Корневая основа	Основообразовательная морфема	Основа	Аффикс	Отдельное слово	Словообразовательная морфема	Производное слово
неб	-ес	небес	-а	небеса	-н	небесный
тел	-ят	телят	-а	телята	-ин	телятина

2) The dialectal unity of the grammatical meaning and the grammatical form is called **the grammatical category**. Any grammatical meaning is expressed by a certain grammatical form. Ways of expressing grammatical meaning are different. One and the same grammatical meaning may be expressed by different grammatical forms and vice versa.

One and the same grammatical form may denote different grammatical meanings, for example: book<u>s</u>, child<u>ren</u>, f<u>ee</u>t; boy<u>s</u>, boy’<u>s</u>, speak<u>s</u>.

As we know, the grammatical category is one of the most morphological features characterizing the given part of speech. Here we are going to speak of typological characteristics of the nominal the grammatical categories of the noun and the adjective in Modern English and Russian.

The five properties that are used as criteria for distinguishing parts of speech serve as the basis of comparison.

1) The lexico - grammatical meanings of nouns in both languages are similar.

2) The variety of lexico – grammatical morphemes is much greater in the Russian noun. A peculiarity of Russian is the abundance of suffixes of subjective appraisal, such as: брат<u>ец</u>, билет<u>ик</u>, карман<u>щик</u>, дед<u>ушка</u>, доч<u>енька</u> и т.д.; book<u>let</u>- in English we have the suffix.

3) In both languages we find the categories of case and number, but their distinctions, especially those of the category of case differ greatly in the two languages:

a) A Russian case contains 6 member cases.

b) In English the singular number common case grammene is not marked. In Russian any grammene can be marked, such as: рука (ж.р.), окно (ср.р.).

c) The productive positive number and case morphemes are standard in English, as: "-s; -es; 's" and non-standard in Russian, as: столы, столов, стулья, стульев, книги, книг 0 .

d) Number and case are sometimes expressed by separate morphemes in English, for example: children's; while in Russian they are inseparable.

e) The case morpheme " 's" has a certain freedom of distribution not observed in any case form of the Russian language.

f) Owing to narrowness of the Genitive case the only other case, i.e. the Common case is exceptionally wide. In fact, the existence of its meaning almost equals that of all the 6 cases of Russian nouns. Here the necessity of specification by prepositions and the great importance of prepositions as a characteristic feature of English should be mentioned.

g) The "of-phrase" in English can in fact replace the Genitive case. The difference between them is mostly stylistic. There is nothing similar in Russian.

4) Russian nouns form into 3 gender sub-classes which is alien to English.

5) In both languages nouns can be divided into countables and uncountables. Uncountables in the compared languages have oblique number meanings through the analogy in form and combinability with countables. But in Russian there is always correlation between form and combinability, for example: "часы стали, сани едут, комитет заседает, США осуждают"; which is not the case in English, for instance: "the police are; Phonetics is; the family is/are; the people is/are".

6) The number of Russian nouns having no case, opposites is small. They are comparatively recent borrowing like: “пальто, дело, такси, кенгуру”. But in English the majority of nouns have no case opposites.

7) In both languages the functions of different case grammenes are different. In Russian only a Nominative case grammene can be the subject, only an Accusative case can be a direct object; only a Nominative or an Instrumental case grammene is used as a predicative. In English Possessive case grammenes are used exclusively as attributes. It is possible to say that Common case grammenes fulfill the functions of almost any part of the sentence.

3. Typology of the Adjective in English and Azerbaijani.

1) The lexico - grammatical meanings are essentially the same.

2) The Azerbaijani adjective has a greater variety of stem-building affixes than the English adjective. In English: the suffix “–ish” like “reddish, foolish”. In Azerbaijani: the suffixes –lı, -li, -lu,-lü (ağıllı, düşüncəli, duzlu, güclü); -sız, -siz, -suz, -süz (dadsız, prinsipsiz, susuz, üzümsüz); -kı, -ki, -ku, -kü (axşamkı, səhərki, çoxdankı); -cıl, -cil, -cul, -cül (qabaqcıl, ardıcıl, işcil, ölümcül); -lıq, -lik, -luq, -lük (həftəlik, aylıq, onluq); the prefixes bi- bivəfa, bihal, bisavad; na- namərd, namünasib, nanəcib, naxoş, nakişi; ba- basəfa, bamәzə; ərəb və fars mənşəli sözlər –kar, -baz, -pərəst, -pərvər, -dar.

3) In both languages the adjectives have no the category of number.

4) According to their structure and morphological composition the adjectives are divided into simple, derivative and compound.

Simple: good, red, black; ağ, qara, boş, isti, acı.

Derivative: beauti<u>ful</u>, hope<u>less</u>; duzlu, güclü, maraqlı.

Compound: four-wheeled, over-peopled; uzun-uzun, uca-boylu, istiqanlı, dikbaş, qaraqaş, göygöz, şəfaverici.

5) In English most adjectives have degrees of comparison: the comparative and the superlative degrees. ***O.Yespersen, A.I.Smirnitsky, M.A.Ganshina, N.M.Vasilevskaya, V.L.Kaushanskaya*** consider that the adjectives have 2 degrees of comparison, in the positive degree they have no any meaning of degree.

The positive degree is unmarked in English, whereas it is marked in Azerbaijani. Till 1948 we distinguish 5 degrees of comparison of the adjectives in Azerbaijani:

1) The positive degree;

2) The diminutive degree;

3) The comparative degree;

4) The superlative degree;

5) The strictive degree.

Ə.Dəmirçizadə in 1947 wrote that the adjectives have 3 degrees of comparison:

a) The positive degree – adi dərəcə - ağ kağız, böyük qardaş;

b) The diminutive degree – azaltma (kiçiltmə) dərəcəsi – qırmızımtıl, ağımtıl, bozumtul, göyümtül, qırmızımtraq, sarımtraq, gödərək, yastıraq, uzunsov, dəlisov, sarışın, qaraşın; analitik yolla "+ala, + təhər, +açıq": ala-yarımçıq, ala-babat, ala-çiy, ala-sütül; qırmızıtəhər, sarıtəhər, güytəhər; açıq-sarı, açıq-sürməyi, açıq-qırmızı;

c) The increase degree – çoxaltma dərəcəsi - ən gözəl, lap gözəl, çox gözəl, olduqça gözəl.

6) In both languages there are qualitative and relative adjectives according to their meaning. Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of a substance directly, not through its relation to another substance, as size, shape, colour, physical and mental qualities (little, large, soft, warm).

Relative adjectives denote qualities of a substance through their relation to materials (silken, wooden), to place (Italian, Asian), to time (monthly, weekly), to some action (preparatory, rotatory).

The investigation of the process of substantivization of the adjectives is actual theme today. Adjectives can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns. When adjectives are converted into nouns, they no longer indicate properties of substances, but come to express substances possessing these properties.

In English substantivized adjectives are divided into wholly and partially substantivized adjectives like: “a native, the native, natives, a native’s flat; the rich, the poor, the young, the old, the wise, the cold”. Wholly: a Russian-Russians, an Italian-Italians. Partially: the English, the French, the Chinese, the Japanese.

In Azerbaijani according to their meaning and grammatical characteristics adjectives fall under two classes: qualitative and relative.

In modern English there are the **synthetical and analytical forms** of the adjectives.

The synthetical forms of comparison in “-er” and “-(e)st” coexist with the analytical forms of comparison effected by the auxiliaries “more” and “most”.

The analytical forms of comparison perform a double function. On the one hand, they are used with the evaluative adjectives that, due to their phonemic structure (two-syllable words with the stress on the first syllable ending in other grapho-phonemic complexes than “-er, -y, -le, -ow” or words of more than two-syllable composition) cannot normally take the synthetical forms of comparison.

In this respect, the analytical comparison forms are in categorial complementary distribution with the synthetical comparison forms. On the other hand, the analytical forms of comparison, as different from the synthetical forms, are used to express emphasis, thus complementing the synthetical forms in the sphere of this important stylistic connotation. For instance: “The audience became **more** and **more noisy**, and soon the speaker’s words were drowned in the general hum of voices”.

Besides the already mentioned synthetic and analytical forms of degrees of comparison, there are irregular forms. A few adjectives have suppletive forms of

comparison that are derived from different roots like: “good - better - best, bad-worse – worst”.

4. Typology of the Adjective in English and Russian.

1) The lexico - grammatical meanings are essentially the same.

2) The Russian adjective has a greater variety of stem-building affixes than the English adjective. The so-called suffixes of subjective appraisal, as in “длинненький, длиннющий, длиноватый” are found in Russian, they are alien to the English adjectives, with the exception the suffix “-ish” like “reddish - красноватый, foolish-глуповатый”.

3) Russian adjectives have the categories of number, for example: длинный-длинные; gender: длинный-длинная-длинное; case: длинный-длинного-длинному. But English adjectives no longer possess these categories. The only category the English and Russian adjectives have in common is this the category of the degrees of comparison. In both languages this category is represented in three opposemes but there are some distinctions:

a) The positive degree is unmarked in English whereas it is marked in Russian. Compare: red- красный. In Russian language every full adjective is marked. It shows by its form that it is an adjective. But in English the form of the positive degree of the adjectives doesn’t show to what part of speech the word belongs.

b) The formations-combinations “более красивый, самый красивый” resemble the analytical form (more beautiful, most beautiful). But they can hardly be regarded as analytical forms since they are not in complementary distribution with corresponding synthetic forms. “Длиннее, более длинный” are rather stylistic synonyms.

4) In both languages there are qualitative and relative adjectives and some qualitative adjectives have no opposites of comparison, i.e. they form the sub-class of non-comparables. Otherwise, there is a great dissimilarity between two languages:

a) Most qualitative adjectives in Russian have short forms, for example: умный-умён; молодой-молод. There is nothing similar in English.

b) The proportion of relative adjectives is much greater in Russian. English common case nouns often render the meanings of Russian relative adjectives, for instance: школьная учительница-school teacher; домашние расходы-household expenses; настольная лампа-a table lamp.

c) Among the relative adjectives of the Russian language there is a group of possessive adjectives, such as: мамин, отцов; which have no English correspondences-equivalents.

5) The combinability of adjectives is to some extent similar in two languages. Still, there are some essential differences in English. We can speak only of two levels of combinability: lexical and lexico-grammatical. In Russian grammatical combinability is of great importance, too. For example: белый потолок, белая стена, белых стен.

The so-called "short" adjectives and the synthetic comparatives of Russian adjectives have no right-hand combinability with nouns. For example: This is a better translation. "Этот перевод лучше". (Нельзя сказать "лучше перевод").

A peculiar feature of the combinability of the English adjectives is its right-hand connection with the word "one". For example: a good one, a better one, the best one.

In both languages the typical functions of the adjectives in the sentence are those of attribute or predicative. But the Russian short adjectives and synthetic comparatives are seldom used as attributes. English doesn't have this sub-class of adjectives, but certain individual adjectives are very really used as attributes. It is impossible to say "a glad girl", but we can say "a little girl".

5. Typology of the Adverb in English, Azerbaijani and Russian.

The adverb is a part of speech characterized by the following features:

1) The lexico - grammatical meaning of qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states, qualities.

2) The category of the degrees of comparison.

3) Typical stem-building affixes, such as: “-ly” (quickly); “-ways” (sideways); “-wise” (clockwise); “-wards” (backwards); etc.

4) Its unilateral combinability with verbs, adverbs, adjectives, less regularly with adlinks and nouns.

5) The function of adverbial modifiers, sometimes other functions.

The category of degrees of comparison of adverbs is similar to that of adjectives. It is a system of three-member opposemes: “soon-sooner-soonest; actively-more actively-most actively”, showing whether the characteristic which the adverb contains is absolute or relative.

With regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adverbs fall into the comparables and non-comparables. The number of non-comparables is much greater among adverbs than adjectives. According to their meaning adverbs may be divided into three of lexico-grammatical sub-classes: qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

Qualitative adverbs like “loudly, quickly”, etc. usually modify verbs, less often adlinks. They show the quality of an action or state much in the same way as a qualitative adjective shows the quality of some substance;confer: speaks loudly-a loud speech; walks quickly-a quick walk. The connection between qualitative adverb and adjective is obvious. In most cases the adverb is derived from the adjective with the help of the most adverb-forming suffix “-ly”.

Like the corresponding adjective, qualitative adverbs usually have the opposites of the comparative and the superlative degrees. On the strength of this likeness ***A.I.Smirnitsky*** advances the view that “quick” and “quickly” might be treated as belonging to the same part of speech but having different combinability. In other words, “quick” and “quickly” might be regarded as adjectival grammatical opposemes

and "-ly" a grammatical morpheme of adverbiality. ***B.S.Khaimovich*** and ***B.I. Rogovskaya*** take issue with ***A.I.Smirnitsky*** over this theory. Their arguments are as follows:

1. The most typical featre of a grammatical morpheme distinguishing if form a lexico-grammatical one is its relativity. As we know, the morpheme "-s" in "books" denotes plurality because "books" is opposed to "book" with the zero morpheme of singularity. In the opposeme "quick" and "quickly" it is also possible to assert that "-ly" denotes adverbiality because "quickly" is opposed to "quick" with a zero morpheme of adjectivity.

But in "purpose-purposely; part-partly; night-nightly" "-ly" denotes adverbiality though it is not opposed to the zero morpheme of adjectivity, but rather to that of substance. In "first-firstly, second-secondly" "-ly" denotes adverbiality though it is opposed to numerality.

In the opposemes "admiring-admiringly, broken-brokenly",etc. the adverbiality of "-ly" is opposed to participiality. These facts show the adverbial meaning of "-ly" isn't relative and "-ly" is not a grammatical morpheme.

2. The suffix "-ly" is a lexico-grammatical morpheme which accounts for its being common to all the words of an adverb lexeme.

3. Though "-ly" is very productive, there are other lexico-grammatical morphemes forming the stems of qualitative adverbs from adjective stems or else adjectives and adverbs are related by conversion: "loud" (adjective)- "loudly, loud, aloud"; "long (adjective)-long, longways(adverb), longwise".

4. There are many adjectives ending in"-ly" related by conversion with corresponding adverbs: "early, daily, deadly", etc. There are other adjectives in "-ly" which have no corresponding adverbs, such as: "lovely, lonely, lively", etc.

5. The comparison of such words, as "high"-adjective, "high"-adverb, "highly"; "late-late-lately"; "hard-hard-hardly"; shows that the suffix "-ly" introduces changes in the lexical meaning of words so that words with or without "-ly" cannot belong to

the same opposeme or lexeme. The words “probably, possibly”, etc. derived from adjective stems are no longer adverbs, but modal words, so that the adjective “probable, possible” have no corresponding adverb, but they have corresponding modal words with the suffix “-ly”. All these and similar facts show that “-ly” is not an inflection but a highly productive stem-building affix. Therefore “quick-quickly” are not members of a grammatical opposeme. They have adjective stems, different combinability and different syntactical functions; naturally they belong to different parts of speech. These qualitative adverbs with or without “-ly” are a subclass of adverb with peculiar lexico-grammatical features. They are usually placed as close as possible to the verb or adlink they modify.

Quantitative adverbs like “very, too, rather, quite, nearly, twofold,” etc. show the degree, measure, quantity of an action quality, state, etc. The combinability of this subclass is more extensive than that of the qulitative adverbs. They modify not only verbs and adlinks but also adjectives, adverbs, numerals, modals, even nouns. “She knew only too well. He had become fully aware of her. It was nearly ten.”

The combinability of some adverbs of this subclass can be rather narrow. The adverb “very”, for instance, mostly precedes those adjectives and adverbs which have opposites of comparison. It doesn’t, as a rule, modify verbs, adlinks or numerals. Ex.: “It is very cold outside.” The combinability of the adverb “nearly” or “almost”, on the other hand, is so extensive that these words are close to particles.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote vaious circumstances attending an action. They are divided into two groups: a) adverbs of time and frequency (yesterday, tomorrow, before, after, again, often, etc.); b) adverbs of place and direction (upstairs, inside, behind, homewards, etc.).

Circumstantial adverbs are not inwardly connected with these verbs they modify. They do not characterise the action described in the sentence and usually referring to the situation as a whole. Unlike qualitative and quantitative adverbs, circumstantial

adverbs are not necessarily placed near the verb, they may occupy different places in the sentence. "*Yesterday* they had a meeting. It was warm *yesterday*."

When ***H.Sweet*** speaks of adverbs as showing almost the last remains of normal free order in Modern English, he means mostly circumstantial adverbs. Similarly when Curme says that "an adverb can stand in almost any position," his words mainly apply to circumstantial adverbs. Some circumstantial adverbs are often related by conversion with prepositions (in, out, behind, above), conjunctions (since, before, after), nouns (North, home), adjectives (late, far).

Only a small group of circumstantial adverb denoting indefinite time and place (soon, late, often, near, far) have opposites of comparison. Circumstantial adverbs are mostly used in functions of adverbial modifiers of time and place. "See you *tonight*. Are you going *home*? " But sometimes they can be used as attributes."The room *upstairs* is vacant. See the notes *above*."

The adverb is a part of speech which expresses some circumstances that attend an action or state, or points out some characteristic features of an action or a quality. In modern English as to their morphological structure adverbs are divided into: 1) simple (long, enough); 2) derivative (slowly, likewise); 3) composite (at once, at last); 4) compound (anyhow, sometimes).

In Modern Azerbaijani we distinguish:

1) Simple adverbs, for instance: "tez, gec, axşam, yuxarı, aşağı";

2) Derivative adverbs, which are built by means of suffixes, for example: - ca / -cə (yavaşca, rahatca, sakitcə, yüngülcə, rusca, ingiliscə); - casına / -cəsinə (dostcasına, qəhrəmancasına, açıqcasına, igidcəsinə); -yana / -yanə, -anə (dostyana, dahiyanə, şairanə); -dan / -dən (ucadan, astadan, bərkdən, birdən, çoxdan, hərdən); - la / -lə (zorla, ehtiyatla, vüqarla, cəsarətlə, diqqətlə); -akı / -əki (yanakı, çəpəki); - ən (daxilən, qəsdən, ruhən, qəlbən); - da / -də (ayda, ildə, gündə, həftədə, birlikdə, təklikdə);

3) Compound adverbs:

- By means of repetition of the simple words, like: az-az, çox-çox, ağır-ağır, asta-asta, yavaş-yavaş, yeyin-yeyin, tez-tez;

- By means of the repetition of the derivative words, like: ağıllı-ağıllı, qəmli-qəmli, yanıqlı-yanıqlı, mənalı-mənalı, dərdli-dərdli, bikef-bikef, yenicə-yenicə, indicə-indicə;

- By means of the repetiton of the words that are built by suffixation, like: üz-üzə, qabaq-qabağa, üst-üstə, birdən-birə, gündən-günə, ildən-ilə, haçandan-haçana, sonradan-sonraya, altdan-altdan, başdan-başa;

- By means of antonyms or the words which are close to their meaning, like: az-çox, əvvəl-axır, gec-tez, tək-tənha, dinməz-söyləməz, səssiz-səmirsiz, altdan-yuxarı, başdan-ayağa, açıq-aşkar, gecə-gündüz;

- By means of combination of the words, when one or two of them are not used, like: az-maz, tələm-tələsik, maddım-maddım, xısın-xısın, uzun-uzadı, dizin-dizin, için-için, oğrun-oğrun;

- By means of the words' repetition and using the suffix "-ba", like: anbaan, adbaad, taybatay, qarabaqara, yanbayan, dalbadal, üzbəüz, ilbəil, günbəgün:

- By means of the combination of the words with the different meaning, like: dilucu, əliboş, birbaşa, gözucu, ələstü, addımbaşı, hərdənbir, arabir, üzüyuxarı, başıaşağı, axşamçağı, gecəyarısı, bayramsayağı, etc.

In Modern English according to their meaning adverbs fall under several groups: 1) of time (today); 2) of frequency (often); 3) of place and direction (inside); 4) of cause and consequence (therefore); 5) of manner (kindly); 6) of degree, measure and quantity (very, almost); three groups stand aside: 7) interrogative (where, when, how, why); 8) conjunctive; 9) relative.

In Azerbaijani we distinguish: 1) of manner – "tərzi-hərəkət", like: "yaxşı oxumaq, pis bilmək"; 2) of time – "zaman", like: "dünən, bu gün, sabah"; 3) of place – "yer", like: "irəli, geri, yuxarı, aşağı, yaxın, uzaq, bəri, içəri, ora, bura, sağa-sola, orada-burada", for example: "Əsgərlər *irəli* yüyürdülər. Uşaqlar *geri* döndülər. *İçəri*

cavan bir oğlan daxil oldu"; 4) of quantity – "miqdar", like: "az, çox, xeyli, az-az, çox-çox, bir az, bir qədər, az-çox, birə-beş, az-maz, bir-bir", for example: "Uşaqlar bu gün *çox* (*xeyli*) çalışdılar. Qoca *bir qədər* pian idi dincəldi. Müəllim bu sözü bizə *dəfələrlə* demişdi".

6. Typology of the Pronoun in English, Azerbaijani and Russian. Morphological properties of various groups of pronouns.

Before beginning to analyze the pronoun as a separate part of speech in modern English, it's necessary to mention that more than once in the history of linguistics the existence of some pronouns as a separate part of speech has been denied by some grammarians, for instance ***L.V.Scherba***. However, attempts of this kind have not proved successful and at present time pronouns are recognized as a separate part of speech.

1) The main peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they denote reality; pronouns serve to denote substances, qualities, quantities, etc. without naming or describing them.

2) The other chief peculiarity of the pronoun is that as lexemes they have very general meaning which makes any pronoun capable to be used instead of nouns with different properties. For instance: the personal pronoun "I" can be used in reference with different persons but the person having different properties in every case.

3) The next characteristic feature of pronouns lies in their grammatical meaning. In fact some pronouns share essential peculiarities of nouns, such as: "I, she, mine, yours, somebody, nobody" (in the function of the subject) while the others have much in common with adjectives, such as: "his, which, whole, somebody's", etc. For this reason some grammarians call the first group noun-pronouns and the second group adjective-pronouns, and even some of the linguists think that the pronoun is not a separate part of speech; they should be distributed between nouns and adjectives.

Etymologically the word “pronoun” means “a word used instead of nouns”. But the role of pronouns is much greater; they can be used not only instead of nouns, but some other parts of speech as well. For example: the word “many” can be used instead of numerals “ten children-many children”.

Concluding the introduction to the pronoun, it’s necessary to mention ***V.L.Kaushanskaya***’s view point on the pronouns: “The pronoun includes a miscellaneous class of words, there’s no uniformity of morphological and syntactical characteristics in the groups of pronouns.”

Despite of different views on the pronoun the pronoun is treated as a separate part of speech in modern English and they are traditionally divided into the following groups:

1) Personal (categories: person, gender, number and case);

2) Possessive (person, gender, number; they have conjoint and absolute forms);

3) Reflexive (person, gender, number);

4) Reciprocal (case);

5) Demonstrative (number);

6) Defining (“other” has case and number, “everybody, everyone”-case, the rest don’t have categories);

7) Interrogative - only “who” has the objective case “whom”.

8) Conjunctive - only “who” has the objective case “whom”.

9) Relative - only “who” has the objective case “whom”.

10) Indefinite (“one”-case and number,“somebody, someone, anyone, anybody”-case);

11) Negative - (“nobody, no one” have case).

But we must bear in mind that one and the same pronoun may belong to different groups at the same time. For example: “which, whose”, etc. may be treated as interrogative, conjunctive and relative, the pronouns “that” may be demonstrative and relative, etc.

In Azerbaijani pronouns fall under the following groups: 1) personal – "şəxs"; 2) demonstrative – "işarə"; 3) interrogative – "sual"; 4) indefinite – "qeyri-müəyyən"; 5) defining – "təyin"; 6) relative – "nisbi"; 7) negative – "inkar".

7. Typology of the Numeral. The use of numerals in Modern English, Azerbaijani and Russian. Similarity between Pronouns and Numerals.

The numeral as a part of speech has the following properties:

1) The lexico - grammatical meaning of number;

2) The category of numerical qualification represented in the opposemes like "one-first, five-fifth", etc.

3) Unilateral combinability with nouns: "ten students- the tenth student";

4) The typical stem-building suffixes "-teen,-ty";

5) The syntactical functions, the chief of which is the function of the attribute.

The numerals in modern English are usually classified in two ways:

1. According to their structure:

a) Simple (from 1to 12, hundred, million, thousand);

b) Derivative (from 13 to 19, all the tens with ending "–ty");

c) Compound (from 21 to 99, excluding dozens);

d) Composite (with "and").

2. According to their meaning: into cardinal and ordinal.

Some authors also speak about fractional numerals (simple fractions 1/3 one-third, decimal fractions 2.35. - two and thirty five or two point thirty five).In Azerbaijani according to their structure the numerals divided into: simple, derivative and compound. Accordingly numerals are divided into cardinals-miqdar, ordinals-sıra, fractional-kəsr.

Some grammarians, for example ***A.I.Smirnitsky***, don't accept this classification considering that only cardinal numerals can form a separate part of speech whereas

ordinal numerals are adjectives. But it must be said that linguistic facts don't support this view and most grammarians treat the numerals as an independent class of words including both cardinals and ordinals.

We must say that numerals share certain peculiarities with pronouns, for example, we can say "five workers-some workers, five of the workers-some of the workers". Taking this fact into account acad.Scherba proposed to establish a part of speech called **quantitative words** which would include both cardinal numerals and such words, as "some, many, several", etc. This, however, does not seem a sufficient reason for uniting some pronouns and numerals into one part of speech and therefore ***L.V.Scherba*** could not find supporters.

Coming back to Humboldtian view of language and the typological classification, we could say that the morphological differences between languages are so striking that it could became the best mirror for the organic unity of languages and the speakers who spoke them.

Lecture 8. Typology of the Nominal Grammatical Categories of Native and Foreign Languages. The Categories of Number, Case and Gender. The Categories of Definiteness-Indefiniteness, Degrees of Comparison.

1. The Category of Number.
2. The Category of Case.
3. The Category of Gender.
4. The Category of Definiteness-Indefiniteness.
5. The Category of Degrees of Comparison.

Nominal grammatical categories are: the categories of number, case, gender in the compared languages, possessive – genitive in Azerbaijani which as a category in English.

1. The Category of Number.

In some modern European languages the decimal system (system of numbers) is based on usage of the fingers of two hands. And it leads to the conclusion that

counting was originally demonstrative and the system of numerals was connected with parts of the human body.

Modern English, Russian and Azerbaijani, as most other languages, distinguish between two numbers: singular and plural. The category of number shows whether the noun stands for one object or more than one.

Nouns as the head of a complex noun phrase follow number system in different languages. They are used in singular or plural forms. These forms are seen in possessive construction, as well as, in the other grammatical categories. In English language the sub classifications of number system are: nouns identified as:

a) Singular in form, either number;

b) Plural in form, singular in number;

c) Singular in form, plural in number;

d) Singular in form, singular in number;

e) Plural in form, either number;

f) Plural in form, plural in number.

A contrastive study of the number system and its sub classifications in Azerbaijani and English languages reveals both similarities and differences. The current study can be a great help for the grammarians and teachers of the mentioned languages in a multilingual situation.

In English and Russian the category of number is expressed with the help of flexions and suffixes, in English flexion “-s, es” sometime inner flexions are used: “tooth-teeth”, in Russian such flexions as “ы, а, и, я”.

Stress is used to express the category of number in Russian which may change nouns from singular to plural like “дом – дома”. Words which have no suffixes in singular may receive the in plural like “сын – сыновья”, “чудо – чудеса”, and in English they are “few child – children”, “ox – oxen”.

Besides borrowings in English have original forms of plurality “phenomena-phenomenon”. Changing of consonants may take place to express plurality: “Ухо-уши”, “друг-друзья”, “сук-сучья”, “knife-wife-wives”.

Supplitive forms may be used in both languages to express the category of number “человек-люди”, “ребёнок-дети”, “men-people”.

In both languages there are nouns which are used either in plural or in singular:

1) Abstract nouns like: “courage, fight”;

2) Collective nouns like: “police, poetry”;

3) Nouns denoting materials, products and minerals like: “milk, sugar, water”;

4) Some nouns are used only in plural in both languages like “ножницы, очки, spectacles”.

Some nouns are used only in singular in English: “news, advice, information, knowledge, permission”. But in Russian they have two forms: “новость-новости, совет-советы”. And some nouns are always used in plural in Russian: “часы, деньги, духи, дрожжи, сани”, but In English they may have either two forms “sledge-sledges”, or only singular like “money”.

In the compared languages the singular form of noun is a bare system with a zero inflexion. The plural of English noun is formed by “-s” added to the stem of nouns, but the plural of noun in Azerbaijani by “-lar”. A noun comprises a back – level vowel in the last syllable (***Peter Roach*** calls them broad vowels); requires the suffix “-lar”. Nouns of front - level vowel in the last syllable (narrowed vowels) requires “-lər”.

Number system of head nouns in Azerbaijani language The plural suffix is “-lar” for back vowel words and “-lər” for front vowel words for example: “kitab-lar – books”, “ev-lər – houses”.

When a singular word stands for things in general, such as in the expressions “reading books, writing letters”, etc. the plural noun in English is translated as a

singular in Turkish language. For example: “kitab oxuyuram - I am reading books/ a book”; “məktub yaziram - I am writing letters / a letter”.

Similarly, when preceded by a number or other quantity word the noun is in the singular form. For example: “iki gələm - two pens”; “çox kitab oxuyuram - I read many books”.

Comparing and contrasting number system of the noun in Azerbajani and English languages reveal both differences and similarities:

1) In noun groups that are plural in form, singular in number two languages are different except the group of countries and organizations such as “The United States Of America” and “The United Nations” that they share the same rule.

2) In noun groups identified as plural in form and plural in number they are not the same.

3) In noun groups identified as plural in form, either number they are not the same. In Azerbaijaini language the form of this group changes in singular and plural form.

4) The noun groups identified as singular in form, plural in number and singular in form, singular in number the two languages follow the same rules.

5) In noun groups identified as singular in form, either number they are different. In Azerbaijani language their number is singular as their form.

As a matter of fact, not all nouns in English form their plural by “-s / (-es)”, we can show:

1) There are several nouns, for example: man-men;

2) There are few nouns with plural “-en”, like: oxen, brethren;

3) Some nouns borrowed from Latin or Greek keep their original plural forms, like: formula-formulae; index-indices; crisis-crises; datum-data; phenomenon-phenomena. In Azerbaijani we don’t observe above-shown rules: formula-formula<u>lar</u>;

4) In English the plural of compounds is formed in different ways, whereas in Azerbaijani they are formed according to the general rule, for example: editor-in-chief

– editors-in-chief; looker-on – lookers on; lady-bird - lady-birds; marry-go-round – marry-go-rounds;

5) There are some nouns which have on plural: scissors, tongs, scales, fetters, spectacles, knicker-bockers or knickers. In Azerbaijani, such kinds of nouns are used both in singular and plural, for example: qayçı – qayçılar;

6) The English nouns "sheep, deer, swine", etc. have only singular forms. In Azerbaijani they have both singular and plural forms. Collective nouns of Azerbaijani and English languages denote a number or a collection of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit. English collective nouns (nouns of multitude), such as "cattle, poultry, police" are used as plurals, for example: The poultry of this farm are increased twice. Unlike English, these nouns can be used both in singular and plural forms in Azerbaijani.

The English noun "people" in the meaning of "adamlar" is plural, for instance: The weather was warm. The people were sitting at their doors. In this case we can't say "peoples". The word "people" in the meaning of "xalq" has both numbers in Azerbaijani. Some collective nouns "money, machinery, linen" are used in singular which isn't observed in Azerbaijani. If a noun of such kind in English is taken as a whole unit, the verb is in singular. The verb is plural if it is considered separately. As a whole unit, for example: My family is small.

English common nouns "fish, hair, ear" can't be used in plural if they denote one and the same kind of things. In Azerbaijani "fish, hair" have not such character said above, for example: These fishes are fresh. These fish aren't fresh.

In both cases, we've the same translation in Azerbaijani language. In case English countable nouns are used with numerals, they take –s. In Azerbaijani such combinations are used only in singular, like: five pens - 5qələm. There are some nouns which lost their plurality and remained singularity, for example: barrack(s), news, works.

They are some nouns in Russian which are used in plural. These nouns are always singular: election, funeral, wall-paper, ink, wood, etc. Studying the typology of nominal grammatical categories we arrive of the followings:

1) The category of number has limited character in English; it has more various useful characters in Russian and Azerbaijani;

2) In Russian sequence of tenses of the categories of number is widely used.

The category of number is even more universal than the category of gender because from the type in memorial men, people have always distinguished between one thing and more than one. In the majority of languages nouns are treated, looked upon as singular plural or collective.

Some ancient Indo-European languages sanscript, Greek and Russian apart from singular and plural had also dual number indicating two – this was used to denote things coming in pairs like “eyes, hands, feet, ears”.

In some American Indian languages the grammatical distinction between singular and plural does not exist at all. The ways of forming plural vary in different languages. Many languages use reduplication to express plurality. The use of the plural form where it exists doesn’t follow any logical system. As rule tatar, finish and congarian use singular forms instead of plural after numerals. A sentence “I see five boy” – is natural for these languages.

Russian has the genitive singular of the noun after numerals 2, 3, 4, but after four the genitive plural is used. The category of number has undergone a very complex development. And some linguists consider that this category was connected with parts of the human body.

In some African languages numbers are expressed by touching the fingers in a special way the wrist, elbow, neck and so on.

2. The Category of Case.

Case is the form of the noun built up by means of inflexion which indicates the relations of the noun to the other words in the sentence. In the earlier stages English had a more developed system of cases by means of which various functions of the noun and pronoun were marked.

Modern English nouns denoting living-beings and some nouns denoting lifeless thing have two cases: an uninflected form called **Common case**.

In old English there were: the Nominative, the Genitive, the Dative, the Accusative case forms. In the course of time the original Nominative, Dative, Accusative merged into one-inflected form. The old Genitive case is presented in Modern English by the inflected **Possessive case**.

Case system of Azerbaijani nouns differs from those of English in number and usage. In Modern Azerbaijani nouns have six case forms: the Nominative, the Genitive, the Dative, the Accusative, the Locative, the Ablative case forms.

English case systems cover only the nouns and some lifeless things and the pronoun. Azerbaijani case system had a wide usage than English. Its case system covers the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the infinitive, the participle. Except the noun, the pronoun, the infinitive, the rest above shown can have case inflexion.

The English Common case like Azerbaijani Nominative case is characterized by zero inflexions. When a noun in the Common case preceded the verb it is the subject. When a noun follows the predicate verb it is a direct object, for example: The students read the text well. Placed after a link-verb it is a predicative, for example: It is an interesting book. You may read it. Placed between a transitive verb and its object it's an indirect object. Preceded by the preposition to the noun may be:

a) A prepositional indirect object, for example: He gave a book to Peter.

b) An adverbial modifier of place, for example: Every Sunday he goes to the park. When a noun is used in the Common case with "by" it's a prepositional object indicating the agent of the action expressed by possessive predicate-verb, ex.: The

way to outer space was opened by him. With “of” it may be an attribute, ex.: At last they reached the station of the railway.

Thus, English nouns in the Common case can have the following functions: of the subject, the predicate, the object, the attribute and the adverbial modifier. The function of the Nominative case of Azerbaijani nouns is the subject. A noun in the Nominative case can be the subject of the sentence expressed by verb-predicate or compound nominal predicate.

The noun in the Nominative case has also the syntactical function of an attribute in the compared languages, for example: The silver spoon is on the table. When a noun is the indefinite Accusative it coincides with the Nominative case, but the function is the direct object, for example: Kitab bilik mənbəyidir. Here “kitab” is in the Nominative case and is the subject. But in the sentence, for example, “Əli kitab oxuyur”- “kitab” coincides with the Nominative case as “Əli” and has the function of the direct object.

Possessive case represents the Old Genitive case. It is much narrower in its meaning, use and function. In Old English the Genitive case had a very wide-range of meaning and function and it was freely used with old nouns denoting living-being as well as lifeless things.

In Modern English the use of Possessive case is restricted to nouns denoting living beings and its syntactical function is exclusively that of an attribute, for example: Jack’s brother. With nouns denoting inanimate thing and abstract nouns the Possessive case relation is conveyed by “of”- phrase, for example: The colour of the wall. The “of”- phrase may be used with nouns denoting living-being, for example: The father of Jack. Different from English nouns denoting living-being and lieless thingg nouns in Azerbaijani can have Possessive case.

Possessive case in English is formed by the “-s ”, the Genitive case in Azerbaijani is formed by “ın” for the nouns ending in a consonant. As we know, the suffixes of the Genitive case are added to the stem of the noun, as in English the noun.

The noun in the Possessive case precedes the noun it modifies, but in Azerbaijani it follows the noun. A noun in the Possessive case in English have the function of an attribute which rarely happens in Azerbaijani.

That a noun in the Genitive case in Azerbaijani with the word it modifier forms a complex part of the sentence. In some case a noun in the Possessive case in Azerbaijani can serve as an inner attribute to the word it precedes.

3. The Category of Gender.

Language is a huge part of being human, and for a long time linguists, philosophers, and others interested in how language works have studied how it affects us as human beings. The big question that still remains unanswered is whether language affects the way we think, or the other way around. It's hard to tell which one came first, but there seems to be more evidence for the former. The theory that language does in fact affect how we experience the world and our cognitive functions is called **linguistic relativity**.

The first people to discuss this issue were philosophers and thinkers from the early 1900-s. They talked about how language could be used as a way to understand a whole culture, essentially saying that you can determine a great deal about a culture simply based on how a language is structured. This soon turned into what is now known as the ***Sapir-Whorf*** hypothesis, which, simplified, argues that language affects the way we see the world.

Many linguists later turned away from that hypothesis and way of thinking about language, thanks to a study in 1969 that supposedly disproved it. However, in the 1980s, a new wave of linguists who defended the hypothesis, or at least parts of it, emerged.

There are countless ways in which it is believed that the particular language we speak affects how we think, but one in particular is the way we view, and experience, gender. Not all languages use gender the same way. English, for example, has no

gendered nouns (except some pronouns) and no gendered adjectives, while Spanish and all other Romance languages do.

Russian, in turn, hinges on gender so much so that it is imbedded in practically every aspect of a sentence. A handful of other languages work the same way, with gendered nouns, adjectives, articles, and even verb tenses. What many linguists, psychologists, and thinkers in general want to know is how this affects the way the speaker experiences gender.

If you've ever taken a linguistics course, you probably know something about ***Lera Boroditsky*** and her linguistic research. She studied how German and Spanish speakers talked about objects in English, a language with no gendered nouns. Boroditsky found that objects with masculine nouns in Spanish or German were described using stereotypically "masculine" adjectives, such as strong, big, and dangerous. Objects with feminine nouns were discussed using words like delicate, beautiful, and fragile, adjectives with a feminine connotation. This can be seen also in how artists portray concepts such as death and freedom. In languages where death is masculine, it is portrayed as a man, and vice versa. The argument here is that, though they weren't speaking in their native tongue, the participants still thought about certain objects as masculine or feminine.

Moving back to the actual study ***L.Boroditsky*** did, you can clearly see that the gendered nouns were given attributes associated with their gender. This may seem perfectly acceptable and even innocuous, but if you think about what that means for a bit more, you start to see the problem.

That problem is that the participants in the study had such a deeply ingrained idea of what it means to be male and what it means to be female, that they transferred these same human qualities to objects, merely because in their native tongue they shared a gender.

If native German speakers typically think of bridges, a feminine noun in German, as elegant, fragile, and beautiful, they must think the same for actual women.

The same goes for native Spanish speakers who used adjectives such as strong, dangerous, and sturdy to describe bridges, which are masculine in Spanish.

In fact, the concept of "machismo", where men are supposed to be strong, brave, and promiscuous, comes from the Spanish and Portuguese languages. Countries that speak these languages tend to have high levels of gender inequality and gender violence.

Though some criticize ***L.Boroditsky***'s studies as not being thorough enough since there could be many different words for the same object in a language, the general reception of this research is that it makes sense. If your language is structured in a way where certain nouns are feminine and others are masculine, you are bound to categorize things in your mind that way too.

Just look at the cultures who speak languages with gendered nouns, such as Spanish for example and you can see that in a lot of communities still adhere to strict gender norms and roles. However, some people have revolted against this in Spanish-speaking countries by changing gendered articles, nouns, and adjectives. Instead of "los amigos," one could write "las amigas" and avoid the annoying rule that even if just one person in a group of friends is male, the whole group must be referred to as male. Similarly, "los amigos" can be written as "les amiges." Either way, this trick is a bit limited in its scope as it only applies to written language.

One county that is taking steps to create gender neutrality within society via language is Sweden. Sweden made waves back in 2014 when the gender neutral pronoun "hen" was added to the official Swedish Academy glossary. Originally conceived back in the 1966 and becoming popular in 2010, it was mainly used in preschools at first, but has since grown in popularity and can be found in many publications. Sweden has always been a bit more forward-thinking than other countries, but this particular word carries a lot of weight.

What could be the consequences of using "hen" instead of gendered pronouns? The idea behind it was to create more of an equal playing ground for men and women

by not distinguishing them by gender. Some are skeptical of whether or not the introduction and use of a gender neutral pronoun will change anything, but many have seen an improvement in gender equality. Hen is also perfect for people who don't identify as male or female, much like the changing of a's and o's in Spanish to a's and e's.

The English language isn't going to get off the hook so easy, however. Just because it doesn't have as many gendered nouns as Spanish or German doesn't mean that they don't exist in English. Think about what you see and hear on the news. There is someone presenting the news, known as an "anchorman" on your TV.

There is a female equivalent for this, "anchorwoman," but the fact is, "anchorman" was the first version of the word and is typically used as the default version when unsure about gender. This is much better than it used to be, with words such as "doctress" being very prevalent in society. We still use "actress" today to describe a female actor, but many are starting to use the word "actor" exclusively, regardless of gender.

One of the issues with gendered language like this is that it emphasizes the gender of the person too much. This is much more evident when the person is female, however. For instance, with the word "actress," you can tell immediately that this person is female, and will subconsciously start trying to fit them into your idea of what women are like. If you didn't have this clue within the word, you would assume it was a man, or simply judge them as a person rather than try to fit them into your idea of how men and women are. This is the beauty of "hen" because it isn't just not using "actress" anymore and using "actor" instead, it is creating a whole new category where gender doesn't exist or matter, like "police officer."

Beyond those issues, there is another one that drives the others. That is the issue of male as the default. English has words like "mankind," "freshman," and "policeman," and they are still being used today.

Again, they might seem harmless, but the idea that if you don't know the gender of someone or something, it becomes male, is actually harmful. It makes it seem like to be male is to be normal and to be female is to be the exception, when demographically we know this to not be true at all. In terms of jobs, positions that still use gendered language like "policeman" are inadvertently creating a situation where female applicants don't feel welcome. The employer themselves may not realize it, but, since language affects our thoughts, seeing the word "man" makes them imagine the perfect candidate as male, or at least to have typically masculine qualities.

Gender is a huge part of being human, and always will be, which is why gender equality is that much more important. Language is an amazing tool as it truly can shape the way you think, so it makes sense to utilize it in order to make more progress on that front. Hopefully people like those who created "hen" in Sweden and those who created a revolutionary new ways to avoid expressing gender in Spanish will continue to do the amazing work that they are doing.

4. The Category of Definiteness-Indefiniteness.

By this category grammarians understand the definiteness or indefiniteness of the object named. The notion of definiteness-indefiniteness can be expressed by lexical means and grammatically, i.e. by the articles and the determiners.

The indefinite article expresses the indefiniteness of the object named. The definite article expresses the definiteness of the object named and singles it out of a class of similar objects.

The absence of the article is also meaningful and occurs when we would expect the indefinite article to be used with abstract nouns and nouns in the plural with which the indefinite article is not used since it is associated with the idea of "oneness".

Thus, the absence of the article means the absence of the indefinite article mostly and functions as such.

The determiners this, that, each, every, some, any, which, no, either, much, the conjoint possessive pronouns my, his, etc. are used to express definiteness or indefiniteness. For instance: That room was small. I took off my hat. One day, when we were in love; one wonderful morning in May...

Proper names are identified well enough not to need the articles or the determiners. But as soon as they are not, they are used with the article or some determiner, for example: The Browns are out of the town. She married a Jackson.

In English article is a sign which expresses the category of determination (definiteness - indefiniteness) grammatically.

It may get the meaning of determination or indetermination only in speech; all the other so called meanings of the articles are its functions. The article itself cannot particularize or classify the noun. The article is a form word, which shows how the noun should be understood (a class noun, a unique thing, etc). So, the context plays the most important part in the use of articles in English Speech.

In connection with **the article** there exist two main views:

1) The article is a word (possibly a separate part of speech) and the combination of "article + noun" is **a phrase.**

2) The article is the form element in the system of the noun. It is thus a kind of morpheme and the combination "article + noun" is **a morphological formation.**

The article serves to specify a noun. From this point of view the article may be divided into 3 classes:

1) The definite article (the);
2) The indefinite article (a);
3) The zero article.

The function of the definite article is **particularization**, that of the indefinite one is classifying and that of the zero article is generalization (**nomination**).

B.A.Ilyish remarks that such functions of the article as particularizing, generic, demonstrative are not brought about by the article itself but by the context or

situation, like: “The dog is a domestic animal” (general statement). “The dog has come home” (concrete action).

The indefinite article has the following functions:

1) The indefinite article is used with a word which names an object, referring it to a class of similar objects and is said to have the **nominating or classifying function** like: “This is a table. He works here as a teacher”.

In its nominating function the indefinite article may be used with a noun which has some descriptive attributes since the object named can possess a number of qualities or qualification which do not single it out of a class of similar objects but only narrow the class to which the object belongs, confer: He is a boy. / He is a nice boy. / He is a nice boy of twenty.

2) When the indefinite article is used with a noun which names an average class representative, it is said to have the **generalizing function** like: “A sentence is a language unit”. In this function the indefinite article comes very near to the meaning of the indefinite pronoun “any”, for example: Any sentence is a language unit.

3) The indefinite article is sometimes used with the nouns which name unique things or abstract notions like: There was a young moon.

It may be called the **aspective or stylistic function** of the indefinite article. In its aspective function the indefinite article may be used with proper names as well, for instance: He was met at the door by an angry Elizabeth.

In such cases the indefinite article is used in combination with some descriptive attributes to show that the characteristics ascribed by them to the person named is not permanent but temporary (Elizabeth was not always angry: she was angry at that particular moment).

When the indefinite article is used with a proper name without any attribute (or with the pronoun “certain”) the noun stands for a person, that is not familiar with either to both the hearer and the speaker, or to one of them. For example: Is there a Mrs. Langdon?

4) The indefinite article is also used to introduce “the new” in a communication. Then it is said to have the **communicating function** like: The door opened and a man entered the room.

In the Russian sentence we place the word that corresponds to the English word with the indefinite article at the end of the sentence. The indefinite article in this function is often used to introduce a person or a thing. For instance: “A boy wants to see you”. In a similar case with a noun in the plural form the indefinite pronoun “some” is used like: “Some boys want to see you”.

All the above mentioned functions of the indefinite article can exist separately or in combination with each other. In the sentence “There was a moon” the indefinite article has two functions: the communicating and the aspective.

The definite article expresses the definiteness of the object named or the familiarity with the object named and has one principle function.

The definite article singles the object named out of a class of similar objects. The noun with the definite article stands for an object, person or thing known from the circumstances, the situation, the context. The limitation expressed by the definite article is not necessarily based on the earlier introduction of the object named but on the situation. That’s why the definite article is the situational article.

In its limiting function the definite article is often used **with nouns modified by limiting attributes** the purpose of which is to single out the object or the person named like: “This is the house that Jack built. She was the smartest girl in the room”.

The definite article is also used with the names of particularization (the sun, the moon, the earth, the air, the world, the cosmos, etc). In this case the limiting function of the definite article is based on the exclusiveness of the object named.

2) Sometimes the definite article is used with a noun which stands **for the whole of a class of similar objects**. For example: “The telephone (as a means of communication) was invented by Bell in the 19th century”. This may be called the generic function of the definite article.

3) The definite article is usually used with a noun which **expresses "the known" in a communication** like: "The door opened and a man entered the room".

Instead of the definite article in English the **possessive pronoun** is sometimes used. The possessive pronouns are usually used with nouns naming parts of body, articles of clothing, etc. For example: "He laid his hand on his sword". Such possessive pronouns are not rendered into Russian and are not meant to express "possession".

This substitution of the article by possessive pronouns is only possible; however, when the objects expressed by the nouns with possessive pronouns belong to the subject of the sentence, otherwise we must use the definite article. Confer: He took the matter into his hands. / He took the child by the hand.

The absence of the article before a material or abstract noun has a nominating function like: "Life goes on".

5. The Category of Degrees of Comparison.

Linguistic Status of the Category of Degrees of Comparison is actual theme today. The problem of degrees of comparison has given rise to much controversy. First of all, there is no unity of opinion concerning the character of this category in Modern English. Some linguists think that degrees of comparison should be treated as a lexical category. In their opinion, "long - longer – longest" represent three different words, not forms of one and the same word.

Criticizing this point of view, ***A.I.Smirnitsky*** says that "long-longer – longest" is not different words, but forms of the same word because they have the same stem "long" and are consequently characterized by identical lexical meaning.

The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms known under the heading of degrees of comparison; the basic form - **the positive degree**, having no features of comparison; **the comparative degree** form, having the feature of

restricted superiority (which limits the comparison to two elements only); **the superlative degree** form, having the feature of unrestricted superiority.

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to some noun the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its material, colour, dimensions, position, state, and other characteristics both permanent and temporary.

The following features are commonly considered to be characteristic of adjectives:

1) Meaning:

a) Generalized lexico-grammatical primary meaning of non-temporal property, for example: black, big, clever, etc.

b) Generalized grammatical secondary meaning of non-temporal property, for example: comfortable, national, graceful, etc.

2) Combinability with:

a) Nouns, mostly in postposition, for example: He was a **pleasant** fellow (T.Mori);

b) Verbs in preposition like: married **young** (M.Burgess);

c) Adverbs of degree in preposition, for instance: ...he was a deeply **emotional** man (S.Sheldon);

d) Prepositional combinations in postposition, for example: It is **full** of clean paver (W. Deeping).

3) Syntactic Functions:

a) attributive,

b) predicative.

In attributive function, the adjective is part of a noun phrase: it generally precedes and modifies the head noun like: She had a **small** child in her arms (W.S. Maugham).

Predicative adjectives characterize a noun phrase that is a separate clause element. Predicative adjectives have two syntactic roles: subject predicatives and object predicatives. Subject predicatives complement a copular verb, characterizing the noun phrase in subject position like: She was **wonderful** to me (D. Robins).

Object predicatives follow a direct object, making a predication about that noun phrase, for example: He made the children **happy** (R.Quirk).

4) Morphological structure. As far as their morphological structure is concerned, adjectives fall under the following types: a) simple, b) derived, c) compound.

Simple adjectives have neither prefixes nor suffixes like: green, high, low, fat, etc.

Derived adjectives have either a prefix or a suffix or both. Derived adjectives are usually formed from nouns and verbs. The most productive adjective-forming suffix is -al, like: international, local, natural, formal, usual, etc.

Compound adjectives are made from a combination of more than one word and represent compact, integrated forms of expression, which are not easy to produce "online" except for lexicalized components, such as: tongue-tied, old-fashioned, etc.

Lecture 9. Typology of Verbal Grammatical Categories of Native and Foreign Languages.

1. The Category of Voice.

2. The Category of Tense.

3. The Categories of Person; Voice; Definiteness and Indefiniteness; Negation; Transitiveness and intransitiveness; Mood.

4. The Category of Order / Time Correlation.

5. The Category of Posteriority.

6. Analysis of the Verbid Systems.

7. The Specific Peculiarities of the Verbids.

Today we shall compare the basic features of the English verb with those of the Russian one. Their lexico-grammatical meanings are fundamentally the same in the compared languages. The verb serves to denote an action or a process.

As to their lexico-grammatical morphemes (stem-building elements) we must note a greater variety and abundance of stem-building affixes in Russian (suffixes and prefixes), such as: "- нича, - ича, -е, -ево, -ствова, в-, воз-, вы-, пере-, за-, из-, на-, над-, о-", т.д.

But in English the number of verb-building suffixes is limited. For example: "-ize, -ify, -en, -ate"; but prefixes are fairly numerous.

The most productive ways of forming verbs in Modern English are conversion and the use of lexico-grammatical word-morphemes like: "to take - to take off, to bring - to bring up, to give – to give in".

The dissimilarity between Russian and English words is more pronounced when we compare their paradigms and their grammatical categories. Although both in English and in Russian the verb exists as a system of systems, the corresponding (respective) structures of these systems are different.

Analyzing the verb in Russian the outstanding scholar ***V.V.Vinogradov*** characterizes it as "the most complex and capacious part of speech". The verb has different categories: voice, tense, mood, aspect, etc.

1. The Category of Voice.

The category of voice is the system of two-member opposemes showing the action is represented as issues from its subject, or as experienced by its object. Voice is the category which shows the close connection between language and speech. There are two voices in English. Unlike English in Azerbaijani they are six:

the Active voice – "məlum", like: Dünənki hadisəni eşitdi.;

the Passive voice – "məchul", like: Onun səsi haradasa kəsilib qırıldı.;

the Reflexive voice – "qayıdış", like: Lalə darandı. Uşaq yıxıldı.;

the Reciprocal voice – "qarşılıqlı", like: Uşaqlar tutaşdılar. Ana və bala qucaqlaşdılar.;

the Conjoint voice – "müştərək", like: Arılar vızıldaşır, qarğalar qarıldaşırdı.;

the Causative-Pressing voice – "icbar", like: Oxutdum, yazdırdı.

The Active voices in both languages shows that the action is performed by its subject, a doer of te action. Active voice of the verb is viewed by having no special suffixes. It shows that the subject is acted upon. In other word, the Passive voice is the recipient of the action. In English the Passive is performed analytically, in Azerbaijani synthetically "-ıl, -ın, -yıl", like: apardı-aparıldı.

Unlike English some intransitive verbs, in Azerbaijani after being made transitive by suffixes, they can be used in Passive as well "yatmaq – to sleep" are intransitive verbs, and can't be used in Passive.

In Azerbaijani this verb can have the forms "qaçılmaq" as a verb form is lacking in English. "Qaçırmaq" is transitive verb and can have Passive voice. Typology of languages of the category of voice differs from each other. Sometimes the English

Passive sentence renders into Russian as Active one, for example: This bridge was built by the workers of our factory.

2. The category of Tense.

The basic features of the category of tense appear to be the same in English and Azerbaijani. They are past, future and present. All the tense forms are expressed in two aspect forms: Common, Continuous. The Present tense of aspect reflects an action as simply occuring without concretizing it actions more general character refering to the present. The Present tense of Common aspect coincides with the Present tense which is called “indiki zaman”.

The Present tense of Common aspect is formed without inflexion, Present of the Common aspect in English is also used to express an action in future when it’s planned. The Present tense expresses it with verbs of motions. The Present tense in Azerbaijani can have the same function. Here we don’t see any limitation in choice of the verbs.

The Continuous aspect can be expressed either by Present tense or by Present Continuous. The Past tense of the Common aspect refers an action to the past. We don’t find one and the same way in expressing the past tense in Azerbaijani.

It depends on the situation that English past tense is used. The Past Indefinite of the Common aspect used with “yesterday, ago, before” is expressed by uncompleted past tense or by the past tense called “şühudi keçmiş”. If the past tense of the verb denotes a repeated action in the past it is rendered by “-ar,-ər” or “-dı,-di,-du,-dü”, ex.: We went there every day.

Depending on the context future tense may be rendered by “-acaq,-əcək”, ex.: Tom will write to you. It correspondences into English by the category of definiteness and indefiniteness.The category of mood reflects the relations of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker’s point of view. The member of mood in various works is given from 2 to 17.

3. The Categories of Person; Voice; Definiteness and Indefiniteness; Negation; Transitiveness and intransitiveness; Mood.

Analyzing the verb in modern Azerbaijani we must distinguish the following grammatical categories:

1) The category of person – "şəxs" and number – "kəmiyyət", there are 3 persons and 2 numbers;

2) The category of voice, there are 6;

3) The category of definiteness and indefiniteness;

4) The category of negation;

In Azerbaijani the verbal category of negation is built by means of the suffixes "- ma, - mə, - m". For example, oxuma, oynama, durma, zəng eləmə. The suffixes "- sız, - siz, - suz, - süz" are added to the word "yox" in the category of negation.

5) The category of transitiveness and intransitiveness;

6) The category of tense, there are 3 tenses: Past (the Past Indefinite – şühudi keçmiş, the Past Perfect – nəqli keçmiş), Present and Future (definite – qəti gələcək, indefinite – qeyri-qəti gələcək, which are expressed by means of the Future Indefinite tense);

7) The category of mood – şəkil kateqoriyası, ***Muxtar Hüseynzadə*** in the book "Müasir Azərbaycan dili" distinguishes 8 forms of the category of mood. They are:

1. Əmr – we name it the Imperative,it has the following suffixes: I p.sing. –ım,-im,-um,-üm, I p.pl. –aq,-ək,-alım, -əlim, II p.pl. –ın,-in,-un,-ün, IIIp.sing. –sın,-sin,-sun,-sün, IIIp.pl.-sınlar,-sinlər,-sunlar,-sünlər;

2. Şərt – we name it the Conditional, it has the following suffixes: "-isə (ədatı), -sa, -sə";

3. Xəbər - we name it the Indicative, it has the following suffixes:the Past Indefinite "-dı,-di,-du,-dü", the Past Perfect "-mış,-miş,-muş,-müş"; "-ıb,-ib,-ub,-üb",

the Present tense “-ır,-ir,-ur,-ür”, the Future Indefinite tense - a) qəti “-acaq, -əcək”, b) qeyri-qəti “-ar,-ər”;

4. Davam - we name it the Continuous, it has the following suffixes: -maqda, -məkdə, -sa, -sə, oxumaqdayamsa, işləməkdəsənsə;

5. Lazım - we name it the Obligatory, it has the following suffixes:-ası,-əsi;

6. Arzu - we name it the Desirative, it has the following suffixes: -idi,-imis gərək, barı, təki, nola (ədatları),-a,-ə, gərək yaza idim;

7. Bacarıq - we name it the Ability, it has the following suffixes:-a,-ə;

8. Vacib - we name it the Necessity, it has the following suffixes: -idi,-imiş,-isə, yazmalı idim, bilməliidilər.

In English two moods “xəbər” and “əmr” correspond each other by means of the Indicative and the Imperative moods. All the rest are corresponded into English by means of the Subjunctive mood.

8) Verbal derivations – fellərin törəmələri, here belong: the verbal noun – feli isim(məktəbə getmə, dərsin başlanması, qovurma, dondurma, çığırtma, bozartma, qızdırma, vurma, döymə, qazma, əsaslandırma, həll olunma, idarə etmə, qalma, girmə, təkmilləşdirmə), the infinitive – məsdər(-maq,-mək), the participle – feli sifət (danışan,görüləsi,oxuduğum,yazdığım,görünən(kənd), yerinə yetirilən (tapşırıq)

1. -an,-ən,-mış,-miş,-muş,-müş,

2. -ar,-ər,

3. -acaq,-əcək,

4. -malı,-məli,

5. -c(ığım),-dığın, -dığı, -dığımız,-dıqları),

the adverbial participle - feli bağlama – деепричастие (soyunmadan uzandı,görüb...,gələndə...,böyüyüb...,qalxıb).

The Indicative mood presents an action as a fact of reality. It convey minimum personal attitude to reality. The various shades of meaning of Subjunctive mood grammenes may acquire certain environment and type of clauses they are used in.

Subjunctive mood expresses an action as a non-fact, something desirable, imaginary, and problematic.

Unlike English the Azerbaijani mood has six forms: Imperative, Indicative, Obligatory, Desirative, Optative and Conditional.

In Russian they are Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive which have two types: Conditional and Suppositional. Russian Subjunctive mood can be expressed by the suffix "бы". To understand mood let's address to the time-table.

Forms of the verb	tense suffix	special suffix
Indicative	+	+
Imperative	-	+
Optative	-	-a gərək
Desirative	-	-ası
Obligatory	-	-malı
Conditional	-	-sa

In Azerbaijani according to its structure the verbs are divided into:

a) simple (yazmaq, oxumaq);

b) derivative (hirslə, başla, fikirləş, ayaqlaş, dillən, maraqlan, sağal, dincəl, bozar, göyər, oyna, yaşa, ələ, acı, turşu, bərk susamışdı, sonra qəribsədi, mənimsə, gülümsə, pıçılda, cingildə, hırılda, darıx, gecik, pisik, yanaş,toqqaş, çaqqış, gücən, hıqqan);

c) compound (1. hazır ol, daxil et, qəbul elə, yaxşı olar, 2. ot otlamaq, su sulamaq, ov ovlamaq, 3. vurub-çatmaq, bəzənib-düzənmək, çalıb-çapmaq, saralıb-solmaq, gəlib-çıxmaq, donub qalmaq, gəlib çatmaq, atılıb-düşmək, qurub-yaratmaq).

4. The Category of Order / Time Correlation.

The category of order is a system of two-member opposemes, such as: “writes - has written , wrote – had written , writing – having written , to be written – to have been written”, showing whether the action is viewed as prior to (Perfect) or irrespective of other actions or situations (non-perfect). The interpretation of this category belongs to the most controversial problems of English grammar. Linguists have different viewpoints on the perfect. Some authors, such as ***B.A.Ilyish, Q.N.Vorontsova*** and others think that it forms part of the aspect system.

So, ***B.A.Ilyish*** considers it the resultative aspect, but ***Q.N.Vorontsova*** – the transmissive aspect. This point of view is shared by quite a number of grammarians. Other linguists treat the perfect as belonging to the system of tense.

Thus, ***I.P.Ivanova*** regards the perfect as part of the tense - aspect system. Those who take the perfect as part of the aspect system face a very serious difficulty since proceeding from this point of view, it is difficult to explain the nature of the Perfect Continuous where two aspects (perfective and imperfective) seem to have merged into one which is hardly possible.

It is impossible to imagine a verb as having positive indications of two tenses, of two aspects, etc. at the same time. Though there is a considerable dissimilarity between the two above-mentioned views, they have something in common.

A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to draw attention to the fact that opposemes like “write – has written”, etc. represent a grammatical category different from that of tense, though closely connected with it. He calls it the category of time correlation. The Perfect serves to express priority, whereas the non-perfect leaves the action unspecified as to its being prior or not to another action, situation or point of view.

5. The Category of Posteriority.

It is a system of two-member opposemes like: “shall come – should come, will be writing – would be writing”, showing whether the action is posterior with regard to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.

As we know, a past tense verb denotes an action prior to the moment of speech, but a future tense verb names a posterior action with regard to the moment of speech. When priority or posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech it is called **absolute.** But there may be relative priority or posteriority with regard to some other moment. A form like "had written" expresses an action prior to some moment in the past, i.e. it expresses relative priority. But the form "should write" expresses posteriority with regard to some past action, i.e. relative posteriority. The first member of the opposeme "shall write -should write" has the meaning of **absolute posteriority**, and the second member has the meaning of **relative posteriority**.

These two meanings are the particular manifestations of the general meaning of this category. The grammenes represented by "should come, would come" are traditionally the Future-in-the-Past, a name which reflects their meaning of relative posteriority. But there is no agreement among linguists as to the place of these grammenes in the system of the English verb.

So, ***L.S.Barkhudarov*** and ***D.A.Stelling*** regard them as isolated grammenes outside of morphological categories.

V.N.Zhigadlo, I.P.Ivanova and ***L.L.Iofik*** treat them as some kind of dependent Future tense and classify them with those finite verb forms which depend on the nature of the sentence.

A.I.Smirnitsky tries to prove that they are not tense forms but mood-forms, since they are homonymous with the conditional mood forms.

Most grammarians think that they belong to the morphological category of posteriority and are neither tense – forms nor mood-forms, and they form a separate category in the system of the English verb.

6. Analysis of the Verbid Systems.

1. The verbid systems of the both languages are quite different. There is no counterpart of the English gerund in Russian. The English Participle system includes

7 grammenes represented by the words (writing – having written – being written – having been written – written; living – having lived) whereas the Russian Participle system contains hundreds of grammenes.

2. Analytical forms are predominant in the paradigm of the English verb. It is necessary to mention that out of 64 forms of the verb-lexem “write” - 59 are of analytical structure which constitute 92,2%. This is not the case in Russian, where among 358 forms of the paradigm of the verb “делать” only 38 are analytical 11,2%. The Russian verbids have no analytical forms. The only exception of being cases like “поехать бы”.

3. The sets of morphological categories are also different in the both languages. The English verb has the categories of order and posteriority not found in Russian, while the Russian verb possesses the categories of gender and case alien to English like: “читал, читавший, читавшего”.

4. Categories of the same name have essential distinctions in the both languages:

a) Voice in Russian represented in opposemes like “строит-строится” includes the Active voice and the Reflexive – neuter voice the “-ся” forms in Russian are polysemantic. They carry a number of meanings, connotations: reflexive - “умывается”; passive - “строится”; reciprocal -“встречаются”. Passive grammenes are more standard and common in English. Not only transitive, but intransitive verbs have passive opposites.

b) English and Russian aspects are not identical either though the general principle which underlines the differentiation between “писал - написал”- “wrote – was writting” is the same. In both languages they show the character of the action. In English the Continuous aspect is much more specific than the non-continuous aspect.

The Continuous aspect lays stress on the continuity of the action, but when no specification is intended the non-continuous aspect is used. In Russian the Perfective aspect is more specific. It emphasizes (underlines) the entirety of the action or some stage of the action or some stage of it. For example: “он спел – он запел”.

When there is no specification the Imperfective aspect is used, consequently, the Imperfective aspect has a much broader meaning than the Continuous aspect. Compare: “Дети летом спят в саду. - The children sleep in the garden in summer”.

Where the Continuous aspect would be out of place, the Perfective aspect is narrower than the non-continuous aspect which makes a bare statement of the action and used in speech; it may acquire different aspective colouring. Compare: “Он встретил друга. - He met his friend. He often meet his friend at the club”.

Unlike the English Participle, the Russian one has aspect distinctions, for instance: “делавший - сделавший”.

c) Though English and Russian tenses have much in common they differ in the distribution of absolute and relative meanings. Compare: “Он сказал, что живёт в Москве. - He said he lived in Moscow”. In the subordinate clause the Russian verb has a relative tense meaning, but the English verb has an absolute meaning like: “Когда буду в Москве зайду. - When I am in Moscow, I’ll drop in”. In the subordinate clause the tense meaning of the Russian verb “зайду” is absolute, but that of the English verb – relative.

d) English and Russian moods though fundamentally alike have a number of distinctions. Thus, the Russian Imperative mood includes number meanings not found in English. Compare: “читай – читайте”; “read” – for all. Russian Subjunctive mood (grammenes) are uniform, ex.: читал бы, читали бы. In English their forms are essentially varied, ex.: invite – should invite, would invite (for the 3-rd person), invited (Past Subjunctive) – had invited.

In Russian speech one and the same mood grammene serves to express different shades of non-fact. Compare: “Я настаиваю на том, чтобы он сделал это сам.” – problematic action. “Если бы он тогда сделал это сам”.- non-fact, contrary to reality.

English grammenes are differentiated. Some of them are used to present the action as problematic. For instance: “I insist that he should do it himself.”, but others are contrary to reality –“If he had done it himself, then it would be different now.”

e) Dissimilarity in the nature of the categories is coupled with considerable dissimilarity in the sub-classes of verbs in English and Russian. Thus, in Russian the division of verbs into transitive and intransitive is most essential with regard to the category of voice. In English more relevant is the division of verbs into subjective and objective verbs. The sub-classes of terminative and durative verbs distinguishable in English is less relevant for the Russian verb.

5. As to their combinability English and Russian verbs have a number of common properties; in both languages they are also associated with nouns and pronouns denoting the subjects and objects of the action expressed by the verb, they attach adverbs, etc. But in English owing to the existance of the gerund the verb may be modified by a noun in the Genitive case or a possessive pronoun attached to the verb as its attribute or it may be introduced by a preposition and all this is impossible in Russian.

The combinability of English verbids in the so-called constructions or complexes is quite peculiar. For instance: “for me to stay; of his father wanting”. The difference in combinability is the difference in function. In English the verb participates in different complexes with secondary predication which is not typical of Russian. For example: “I saw him come (coming). I am against Tom coming. I am against Tom’s coming. Tom was seen to come”.

In English owing to the gerund the verb may be used as a prepositional object, an adverbial modifier of concession, condition, etc., i.e. in these functions the Russian verbs are not used.

6. The category of person in English differs from the three-member Russian, counterpart in having two-member opposemes.

7. The Specific Peculiarities of the Verbids.

The infinitive, the gerund and the participle are called verbids in present-day English though they make up part of the English verb system, they have some features of their own. Here are the features distinguishing verbids from the finite forms:

1) The verbids have dual lexico-grammatical meaning; the gerund and the infinitive have verbal and nominal nature, the participle has verbal and adjectival character.

2) The verbids have peculiar morphemes, such as: “to,-ing, -ed, -en”.

3) The verbids have syntactical functions different from those of the finite verb; they are generally not used as predicatives independently, they can be a part of the predicate.

a) The Infinitive.

Originally it is a verbal main which for many centuries has been acquiring gradually more and more verbal force. In present-day English the infinitive is characterized by the following features:

1. It has dual lexico-grammatical meaning of an action, process, partially viewed as a substance.

2. It has the categories of voice, aspect and order.

3. It has the combinability resembling that of the noun, like a finite verb the infinitive can be combined with adverbs, nouns or pronouns denoting the doer or the object of the action, and like a noun the infinitive may be associated with the finite verb. For example: To start was impossible.

4. It has the word-morpheme “to”.

5. It has the syntactical functions of subject, object and predicative, etc.

6. It can be used in analytical forms of the verb (shall play, will read).

b) The Gerund.

Has the following properties:

1. It has dual lexico-grammatical meaning of an action, partially viewed as a substance.

2. It has the categories of voice and order.

3. It has the combinability resembling that of the verb and that of the noun.

4. It has the syntactical functions of subject, object and predicative, etc.

c) The Participle.

1. It has the dual lexico-grammatical meaning of a qualifying action.

2. It has the categories of voice and order.

3. It has special suffixes, such as: "-ing, -ed, -t, -en".

4. It has peculiar combinability resembling partly that of the adjective.

5. It has the syntactical functions of the attribute and some others.

6. It can participate in the analytical forms like "is going, has said, was asked".

Summing up all the verbal categories we can see some differences and resemblances between the languages.

Lecture 10. Typology of Syntactic Systems. The Notion of Syntactic Level. Typology of Syntactic Units: Phrases and Sentences.

1. The Analysis of the Main Parts of the Sentence.

2. Syntactical Classification of Languages.

3. Three Aspects of the Sentence.

1. The Analysis of the Main Parts of the Sentence.

First of all we shall compare the parts of the sentence. If we compare the subject in English with that of Russian we shall find a considerable difference between them. They are:

1) In modern Russian the subject is, as a rule, characterized by a distinct morphological feature – the Nominative case whereas in English it is for the most part indicated by the position it occupies in the sentence.

2) In modern Russian the subject is much or less obligatory as a part of the sentence than in English. One-member sentences are very numerous and of various types, such as: “Приду. Пишет. 3-е лицо.” In English a finite verb does not make a sentence without a subject (the only exception is the imperative mood - “Read. Write”.)

3) In English the subject may be a syntactical word-morpheme, a gerund, a complex which is naturally alien to Russian.

When comparing the predicates in English and Russian we must, first of all, note the absence of syntactical word-morphemes used as predicates and the scarcity of morphological word-morphemes in Russian. So, the division into structural and notional parts of predicates is not as essential in Russian as it is in modern English.

Secondly, there are many more sentences without finite verbs in Russian than in English, like: “Он студент. Она больна. Ему холодно”.

Thirdly, a Russian predication contains a predicate without a subject, much more often than in English. When comparing English and Russian predicative complements, we must bare in mind the following: in Russian the present tense link-verb is not, as a rule, used. In this case the sentence contains a zero structural predicate and a positive notional predicate as in: “Он студент, он влюблён, он в восторге и т.д.” The problem arises whether “студент, влюблён”, etc. may be regarded as predicative complements to a zero link-verb.

There being no gerund and no complexes in Russian they cannot naturally be used as predicatives. In Russian the grammatical combinability of the subject and the predicate plays a much more role than in English.

In Russian where case inflexions are the most important means of expressing the relations of nouns to other words in the sentence. Objects are usually divided into direct expressed by the prepositionless Accusative case and indirect object – by all other forms (cases). Indirect objects are divided into prepositional and non-prepositional (prepositionless). The number of verbs which may take a direct object is greater in English than in Russian.

It is partly due to the fact that the common case of nouns and the Objective case of pronouns in English correspond to the oblique cases of the Russian language. The Russian “сообщать, завидовать, помогать соседу” would be rendered by “to inform, to envy, to help the neighbour”, “обменяться словами (взглядами)” by “to exchange words (glances)”.

Comparison of English adverbials with those in Russian shows that despite some common features (meaning, types), there are a number of points, which differ adverbials in the two languages. In modern English there exist complex adverbial complements, not found in Russian. For example: “Mother permitting – в случае, если мама разрешит. - We’ll go for a walk”.

In modern English there is a peculiar type of adverbials expressed by nouns, adjectives, participles preceded by a conjunction, which does not occur in Russian.

For instance: “If invited – Будучи, I shall come. When a boy – (uşaqlıqda; когда был мальчиком) - he was fond of fishing. While reading, she never smiled”.

In modern English adverbials expressed by nouns without prepositions are not numerous, whereas in Russian they are quite common. For example: “Мы шли лугами. Одним зимним утром пришлось ему уйти. Они будут работать весь день”.

2. Syntactical Classification of Languages.

1) According to type of grammatical word-formation there are:

a) Synthetic (grammatical relations are expressed be forms of words);

b) Analytic (grammatical relatioins are expressed by means of prepositions, auxiliary words and word order);

2) According to the way of expressing subject-predicate relations there are:

a) Nominative (subject stands for the doer and in Nominative case in the Indo-European languages, Semitic languages);

b) Ergative (no positional difference between sub and object. Subject in Ergative case in the Caucasian languages);

c) Passive (neither subject nor object have special grammatical forming up with the syntactical unit where the predicate is the main component).

3. Three Aspects of the Sentence.

The sentence is the most complex unit in the system of the language. Being a language unit and also a unit of signs it is characterized by form and content. The form of the sentence is rather specific. The first job, the sentence does, is to establish how the words are connected in the sentence, how the sentence differs from the simple composition of the words. Such structural organization of the sentence may be called **structural aspect**. Together with the organizational side, formal indicators of grammatical meanings need to be learned, for example, affirmative-negative,

imperative-interrogative, personal-impersonal and some other contental features must find manifestation in the syntactic description of the sentence.

The second aspect of the sentence is **semantic**. The components of the sentence also have semantic features. Here, we mean subordinate clause and parts of the sentence. The parts of the compound sentence are also characterized by definite mutual semantic relations.

The pragmatic aspect of the sentence is its use in acts of speech. There are the differences between sentences: a declarative sentence also informs us of something, or an affirmative or an interrogative sentence in certain cases can be used with the same effect as an imperative sentence, etc.

There three aspects are generally considered basic ones because they include the three major sides of the sign: form, content and usage. So, the structural aspect is otherwise the form, the semantic aspect – content, and the pragmatic aspect – usage of the sentence.

In connection with the structure of the complex sentence and the means of subordination in it, it is necessary to speak about the so-called sequence of tenses, which is often treated as a form of feature of a complex sentence as a device of subordination. The rule of the sequence of tenses is usually defined as follows:

a) If the predicate-verb of the principal clause is in the Present or the Future tense, the predicate-verb of subordinate clause may be used in any tense required by the sense.

b) If the predicate-verb of the principal clause is in the Past tense, the predicate-verb of subordinate clause may be used in the Past tense, too.

This regularity is supposed to be mostly or exclusively characteristic of object subordinate clause.

The sequence of tenses is a morphological problem, but not a syntactical one, because the Past tense forms in the subordinate clause are used in accordance with the grammatical meanings they expressed.

The following Russian sentence will help us to see it, for example: “Я тебе всё расскажу, когда приду.” Here the predicate-verbs in the principal and the subordinate clause are both representatives of Future tense.

In the corresponding English sentences there would be a Future tense only in the principal clause, for example: “I’ll tell you everything, when I come”. Now, from the point of view of an Englishman the Future tense in the Russian subordinate clause might be regarded as depending on the Future tense of the principal clause as a means of subordination and a certain rule of the sequence of future tenses in Russian might be formulated.

The Future tense verb in the Russian subordinate clause is used in accordance with its meaning since it denotes an action, taking place after the moment of speech. If we deal with the Present tense form “come” in English subordinate clause, we must state that in certain syntactical surroundings a Present tense form may acquire a Future tense meaning. We may see something similar in the following two sentences: “He began to wonder what she was doing, how her children were getting alone.” “Он стал задумываться над тем, что она поделывает, как живут её дети.”

In the English sentence each Past tense verb refers to the past and is used in accordance with the tense meaning. It is not so in the Russian sentence the Present tense verbs: “поделывает, живут” have acquired a past meaning under the influence of the Past tense of “стал” in the principal clause.

That the sequence of tenses in English is not merely a formal device; the agreement in the subordinate clause with that of the principal clause is proved by numerous deviations from the rules of agreement, for example: “Did she know that I am her father?” There is no agreement in tense in the above sentence simply because all the verbs are used in accordance with their tense meaning.

Lecture 11. Typology of Phrases of Native and Foreign Languages.
Types of Phrases.

1. Syntax.
2. Types of Phrases.
3. Types of a Syntactical Relation.

1. Syntax.

The word "syntax" is derived from two words meaning "together"and "arrangement". One of the debatable problems concerning syntax of every language including English is its subject-matter, i.e. what must be learned under the title syntax.

First of all, it must be mentioned that under the influence of Latin Grammar, old English syntax concerned itself only with the study of word-groups, their structure and the relations between their elements. But later on grammarians began to take interest in the subject-matter of syntax and put forward different views on this question.

According to some scholars syntax must study only the sentence with all its peculiarities. For example, ***James Greenwood*** states that syntax is that part of Grammar which treats of the right placing and joining of words in a sentence. The same view is supported by ***B.S.Khaimovich*** and ***B.I.Rogovskaya*** when they say – syntax deals with the structure, classification and combinability of the sentence. But nowadays most grammarians consider that syntax must study the sentence as well as the phrase.

Accordingly in most grammar books we can come across the following definition of syntax: Syntax is the part of Grammar which treats of phrases and sentences. So, under the title "Syntax" we are going to discuss two basic syntactical units: the phrase and the sentence.

The problem of phrase is a fundamental one in Linguistics. It's a long time that grammarians began to learn the phrase. There exist different view points on that problem in linguistic literature, but still there's no general point of view on it and at present time the problem remains unsolved.

The theory of phrase or word-combination in Russian Linguistics has a long tradition going back to the 18-th century. According to this tradition, the term "word-combination" can be applied only to such groups of words which contain at least two notional words forming a grammatical unit, such as: "long letter, clever boys, high house".

From the survey of English and American linguistic literature it appears evident that western scholars have also dealt with the problem of phrase though their concept of the phrase differs from the one accepted in Russian linguistics.

According to western scholars every combination of two or more words constitutes a unit which must be called **a phrase**.

So, western grammarians do not see any difference between two types of word-groups, such as: "wise men" and "to the house". It must be stated that some Russian grammarians are of the same opinion about this problem as the western grammarians, for example, speaking about the definition of the phrase ***B.A.Ilyish*** writes: "We will term phrase every combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit but not an analytical form of some words. The constituent elements of a phrase may belong to any part of speech."

This view point is also found in the investigation of ***V.M.Zhirmunsky***. It's evident that this conception which has become a tradition in Russian linguistics concerning the phrase is more acceptable, i.e. a phrase is a word-combination which contains at least two notional words because in the combination "form" word + "notional" word – the components cannot be considered equal in rank as the first element has almost lost its lexical meaning.

Accordingly, not only the analytical forms of the verbs but also the combinations "preposition + noun" or "pronoun, article + noun", etc. cannot be considered a phrase. Another debatable problem concerning the phrase is written a predicative combination forms a phrase or not.

2. Types of Phrases.

Phrase is a combination of two or more notional words that convey an idea. There are seven types of phrases with variations, such as: absolute phrase, appositive phrase, noun phrase, infinitive phrase, gerund phrase, participle phrase and prepositional phrase.

An **Absolute phrase** is a modifying parenthetical or subordinate phrase of a root sentence that includes a subject but does not have an acting verb so cannot stand on its own as sentence. For instance: "Their effort to regain the lead successful, the team continued to score until they pulled ahead by a wide margin".

An **Appostive phrase** is one that restates a preceding term, or expands or explains it, in a parenthetical statement. There are three variations of appositive phrases, such as: "Her dog, *a bull mastiff*, looks ridiculous with a pink bow stuck to her head" features a noun phrase. "His favorite hobby, *knitting*, is rather unusual for a man" includes gerund phrase. "The Tahitian's ambition, *to become an ice skater*, is unexpected" has an infinitive phrase. These three types of phrases are explained below: the distinction in the phrase types as applied above, as opposed to the types described below, is that each type serves as the basis for an appositive phrase, on their own they need not be appositive or set off.

A **Noun phrase** consists of a person, place, or thing and any modifiers, for instance: "This is *a grammar lesson*". It may include one or more adjectives. It might include a noun and a modifying clause, like: "This is *a lesson that explains the various types of phrases*". It might take the form of one of three other types of phrase: infinitive, participial and prepositional.

Many noun phrases are continuos, they consist of words in sequence. However, a noun phrase may be discontinuous, meaning that it is broken up into more than one element, like: “This *lesson* is one *that explains the various types of phrases*”.

An **Infinitive phrase** includes the word to and a verb as the basis of a modification of a root sentence, like as: “His effort *to pass the bill* doomed his political ambitions” includes an infinitive phrase that functions as an adjective modifying the previous noun. “He plans *to see the movie*” features an infinitive phrase that functions as the sentence’s object. “*To write of the experience* is to dredge up unpleasant memories” has an infinitive phrase that functions as the sentence’s subject. “*To say as much* is to adit guilt” includes an infinitive phrase that serves as predicate nominative, or a substitute subject. “I went to the store to buy some ice cream” features an infinitive phrase that stands as an adverb modifying the verb “went”.

“Did you *have to walk* on the way home”. “I *felt* him *to be* an honest man. You *ought to help* your friend”.

“Can you afford *to go* on such an expensive trip. I couldn’t bear *to damage* him”.

“If we *are to remain* friends you must tell me the truth”. – Əgər dost qalmağımızı istəyirsiniz siz gərək mənə həqiqəti deyəsiniz”.

“Bind knew that if Willough by demanded it, he *had to give* the report”. – Baind bilirdi ki, əgər Uillibi tələb etsə,o, hesabat verməlidir.

“I *have to get* up at 6 every day”. – Mən hər gün səhər saat 6-da durmalıyam.

“I had imagined we should *have to hold* a large house-party for the occasion. I wouldn’t look through the letters – disappointment *had to be postponed* hope kept alive as long as possible”.

In Modern Azerbaijani we distinguish infinitive phrases, such as: “şeir yazmaq, duyub yaratmaq, oxuduqca savadlanmaq, danışa-danışa qaçmaq”.

Oxumaq, *öyrənmək*, *bilmək* hər bir insana lazım və vacibdir (adlıq hal).

Sevmək, *sevilmək* istəyirəm (qeyri-müəyyən təsirlik hal).

Oxumağı hamı sevir (müəyyən təsirlik hal).

Oxumaq üçün şərait lazımdır (qeyri-müəyyən yiyəlik hal).

Oxumağın öz qaydası vardır (müəyyən yiyəlik hal).

Vaqif haqdan dilər lütfü kərəmlər,
Belə yerdə qalan vallah, vərəmlər.
Yenə yada düşər bizim sənəmlər,
Getməyin binası, hayıf ki, yoxdur! (Vaqif).
Pərvanə tək özün oda *salmağa*,
Yaslanıban eşiyində *qalmağa*,
Bir belə gözələ qurban *olmağa*,
Vaqif kimi qəllaş kimsə gərəkdir (Vaqif).
Mayis oxuyub ali təhsil *almağı* hər şeydən yüksək tuturdu.
Belə tez *qayıtmaqda*, yəqin ki, bir məqsəd vardır.
İntizar *çəkməkdən*, yol *gözləməkdən*,
Könlümün nə tabı, nə taqəti var (Vaqif).

The objective with Infinitive construction, for example:

"They did not want *her to marry* this man" (J.London, "Martin Eden").

"You will allow *me to see* you again?" (Ch.Dickens).

"I want *you to give* me some information" (J.London).

"Minny made *Sarah sit* in the one comfortable chair close to the fire" (Mazo de la Roche).

"She asked *him to cease* attempting to write, that he would grant her wish" (J.London, "Martin Eden").

"Old Jolyon saw *his brother's face change* …" (J.Galsworthy).

The Subjective with the Infinitive Construction, for instance:

"*She* didn't seem *to be* so enthusiastic over it" (J.London, "Martin Eden").

"*They* were seen *to* just *touch* each other's hands" (J.Galsworthy).

"*They* are said *to come* tonight".

"*I* shall soon be forced *to think* that he was deliberately lying".

"*He* had been heard *to discuss* the possibility".

"*I* believe they have been instructed *to report* to you by October".

"*Douglas* was invited *to have* a drink with a Cabinet Minister".

"*The boy* (he) was seen *to work*".

The "for-to" Infinitive Construction, like:

"There are too many special fields *for any one man to master a tithe of them*" (J.London, "Martin Eden").

"*For people to live* means to create, to go forward constantly".

"*For you to go* there just now would be to walk into a trap with your eyes open" (E.L.Voynich "The Gadfly").

"*For you to say* that is all right, but I do know it" (E.Hemingway "Cat in the Rain").

"*It* is necessary *for us to see you*. *It* was difficult *for him to do anything else. For me to hear him* was disturbing".

"It is all right *for you to say* that, but I do know it. However, it is of no use *for us to discuss* that" (E.L.Voynich "The Gadfly").

"That was *for us to go there*. That was *for him to finf out*".

"That's why we arranged *for you to meet* Domenichino in the town" (E.L.Voynich "The Gadfly").

"He stepped *for me to pass*. He took a taxi *for us not to walk to the station*".

A **Gerund phrase** includes a verbal, a hybrid that functions as a noun (or adjective). There are three distinct functions, for example: "*Juggling knives* is not recommended as a relaxation technique" includes a gerund phrase as the subject of the sentence. "I'm *going for a walk off a short pier*" features a gerund phrase as the sentence's object. "She's saving up for *a vacation in Antarctica*" has a gerund phrase as the object of a preposition.

"*Looking for food* had lasted for more that two hours" (R.Kipling, "Jungle Books"). – *Qida axtarmaq* iki saatdan artıq davam etdi.

"*Eating* is always good" (R.Kipling, "Jungle Books"). – *Yemək* həmişə yaxşıdır.

"*An elephant's trumpeting* is always nasty, especially on a dark night" (R.Kipling, "Jungle Books"). – *Filin bağırtısı* həmişə vahiməlidir, xüsusilə də qaranlıq otaqda gecədə. – In the function of subject.

"The main thing is *getting* there in time" (Ch.Dickens, "Dombey and Son"). – Əsas şey ora vaxtında *çatmaqdır*.

"His idea is *finding* the alibi" (Ch.Dickens, "Dombey and Son"). – Onun fikri alibi *tapmaqdır*.

"He began *asking* her abit governess" (Ch.Dickens, "Dombey and Son"). – (mürəkkəb feli xəbərin ikinci komponenti funksiyasında) – O, qulluqçu barədə ondan *sorğu-sual etməyə* başladı.

"M.Bouc began *listening* attentively" (Ch.Dickens, "Dombey and Son"). – Müsyo Buk diqqətlə *qulaq asmağa* başladı.

"He started *thinking* about American lady" (Ch.Dickens, "Dombey and Son"). – O, Amerikalı qadın haqqında *düşünməyə* başladı. – In the function of compound verbal predicate.

"Don't you mind my *smoking*"- said the valet (Agatha Christie, "Murder on the Orient Express"). – Mənim *siqaret çəkməyimə* etiraz etmirsiniz, deyə qulluqçu soruşdu. – In the function of the object.

"Excuse me, *for making* you wait, Dr.Sonstantine" (Agatha Christie, "Murder on the Orient Express"). – Doktor Sonstantin, sizi *gözlətdiyimizə görə* üzr istəyirəm. – In the function of prepositional object.

"I had no intention *of staying* at that inn" (Ch.Dickens, "Dombey and Son"). – Mənim o mehmanxanada *qalmaq* niyyətim yox idi.

"Nagaina saw that she had lost her chance of *killing* Teddy" (R.Kipling, "Jungle Books"). – Naqayna başa düşdü ki, Tedini *öldürmək* şansını əlindən buraxmışdır.

"Will you now tell me your reason *of going* there?" (Conan Doyle, "Selected Stories"). – Sən indi mənə oraya *getməyinin* səbəbini deyə bilərsənmi? In the function of the attribute.

A **Participial phrase** consists of verbals ending in "-ing" or "-ed", or another irregular form of a verb, and seves as an adjective. The participial phrase in: "*Having been lied to before*, I was wary" modifies the word "I". The phrase may be parenthetical within a sentence, too. For instance, in: "You *knowing what you now know*, are in a better position to judge", the particial phrase modifies the word "you".

There was the sound of rocking a chair in the room, and of a woman singing (Greenwood, "True History of a Little Ragamuffin").

"There broke out the wailing of a baby and skirl of a concertiana rising and falling" (J.Galsworthy, "The İnn of Train").

"Only the policeman patrolling slowly and at intervals took an interest in that waiting figure" (J.Galsworthy, "Man of Property").

In Modern Azerbaijani we distinguish participial phrases, such as: "Otaqda bir stulun cırıltısı eşidilir, bir qadın isə oxuyurdu".

In English we distinguish four participial constructions, such as: the Subjective Participial Construction, the Objective Participial Construction", the Nominative Absolute Participial Construction", The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction", like: "The mistress being dead, Jane Eyre had to look for a new place". "The lesson being over, we went home". "The solution proves changing its colour at higher temperature". "*The wind having ruined our hut*, we were obliged to rebuild it". "*The meeting having finished*, we left the hall". "*The work having been done*, the workers set off with light hearts". "*Mother permitting*, the children will go to the swimming-pool". "The strange greetings being over, old Jolyon seated himself in a wicker chair". "The strange greetings being over, old Jolyon seated himself in a wicker chair". "The weather being cold and frosty, the children stayed at home". "The

daughter was sitting, with her eyes fixed on the ground". "Presently he came to a standstill, with his hands deep *plunged into* his pockets" (J.Galsworthy).

A **Prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition and a noun or pronoun that serves as the preposition's object, and often one or more adjectives, like: "I went for a walk *in the dark woods*". Prepositional phrases are often located at the head of a sentence. "*When the sun went down*, I hurried back". "Want to improve your English *in 5 minutes a day*"?

According to their structure we distinguish some definite types of the phrase in Modern English. The most usual type of it is "**noun + noun**". It can be divided into two sub-types depending on the form of the first element which may be in the Common case or Genitive case. The type noun in the Common case + noun may be used to denote one idea as modified by another in the widest sense, for example, "speech sounds, army unit", etc. In this case the first element may be a proper name, such as: "London bridge". The sub-type noun in the Genitive case + noun has a more restricted sense: "women's doctor".

Another very common type of the phrase in modern English is "**adjective + noun**" which is used to express all possible kinds of things with their properties, for example, "high mountains, blue sea, stupid children".

In a similar way we can mention some other types of phrases, such as: "**participle + noun**" (broken cup, playing children); "**infinitive + noun**" (to write a letter); "**infinitive + adverb**" (to go fast); "**numeral + noun**" (five boys); "**pronoun + noun**" (many books, my plate, this city); "**adverb + adjective**" (very calm).

The phrases consisting of two elements may be enlarged by adding a third component, for example, the phrase "high houses" may be enlarged by the addition of an adjective in front: "new high houses". It can be enlarged once more: "large new high houses", etc.

As we have already mentioned above, a phrase must contain at least two notional parts of speech, on the other hand, a phrase must be based on the logical and

grammatical subordination. This means that the meaning denoted by the phrase must not contradict to reality and it must keep definite grammatical rules. In other words, there must be a grammatical relation between the components of the phrase in every case.

3. Types of a Syntactical Relation.

We can observe four types of such relations between the components of a phrase in most languages including English. They are agreement, government, adjoining, enclosure.

Agreement is a method of expressing a syntactical relation which contains in making the subordinate word take a similar grammatical form to that word to which it is subordinate. In modern English we can observe agreement only and mainly between the components of the phrase, demonstrative pronoun + noun: this look – these looks. That's why the role of agreement in English is not significant

Government is the use of a certain form required by its head-word but not coinciding with the form of the head-word itself. The only case that may be called government in modern English is the use of the Objective case of personal pronouns and the pronoun "who" when they are subordinate to the verb, for example: meet them, follow him.

Adjoining is the most usual example of it is the relation between an adverb and its head-word which is mostly a verb, for example: work quickly, etc.

Enclosure is the mostly widely known case, which is the putting of a word between the article and the noun and this word is usually an adjective, for example: an interesting film. Sometimes an adverb in the function of an attribute can also be enclosed, for example: the then government, an on-the-spot investigation.

Lecture 12. Typology of Lexical Systems. The Word as a Main Vocabulary Unit.

Azerbaijani, English and Russian differ from each other in many ways, including their writing systems, the sounds they utilize, the order in which elements are arranged in sentences, and the ways in which various meanings are expressed. Of all these aspects of language, however, people are usually most conscious of words as linguistic units.

The likeness of many Russian and Sanskrit lexical units cannot be treated within the framework of the common Indo-European stock of words comprising such words as "cow" – "корова", "milk"- "молоко", "wolf" – "волк", "sun" – "солнце" and some words denoting kinship, like: "mother, sister, brother", etc. These and several other words were noticed, as has been mentioned above, by the first Europeans who visited India as far back as the 16-th century. Those observations, however, did not initiate then a regular typological study of languages.

What would you do, for example, if you were asked to translate the following sentences into a language you know nothing about? For example:

Gözdən iraq, könüldən uzaq. = Out of sight, out of mind. / Long absent, soon forgotten. / Seldom seen, soon forgotten. / Far from eye, far from heart. / What the eye doesn't see the heart grieve. / Seldom seen, soon forgotten. / *Cf.* Salt water and absence wash away love. – С глаз долой, из сердца вон.

Kor atın kor nalbəndi olar. – Like priest, like people. / *Cf.* Like master, like servant. / Like teacher, like pupils. – Каков поп, таков и приход. / По Сеньке шапка.

Rüşvət qapıdan girəndə, iman bacadan çıxar. – Money makes the mare (to) go. – От доброго приноса и правда с кольцом (на цепи) живёт. / Судью подаришь - правду победишь. / Дары и мудрых ослепляют. / Соблазн велик - совесть молчит. / Тот прав, за кого праведные денежки молятся.

Kor həvəs ancaq zərər gətirər. = Blind zeal can only do harm. – Хотеть - не вредно, вредно - не хотеть.

Rüşvətxorun amalı da, imanı da puldur. – Money talks. – Денежки молитва, что острая бритва, все грехи сбреет. / Положи две денежки на шапочку да дядюшке челом, а дядя сам знает о чём.

Kor kora kor deməsə, bağrı çatlar. – Blind leaders of the blind. / The kettle calls the pot black. / The pot calls the kettle black. / *Cf.* If the blind lead the blind, both shall fall into the ditch. – Чернец чернца осуждает, а сам гологуз. / На чужой горбок не насмеюсь, на свой не нагляжуся. / Горшок над котлом смеётся, а оба черны. / Калмык татарина маханиной корит. / Горшок котлу завидует, а оба черны. / Горшок с котлом не наспорится. / Слепец слепцу глаза колет, а оба зги не видят. / Горшок котёл сажей корил. / *Ср.* Оба хороши.

Soğan olsun, nağd olsun. – Never quit certainty for hope. / Better an egg today than a hen tomorrow. / A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. / A little is better than none. / Half a loaf is better than no bread. / *Cf.* You can't feed the hungry with words. / A fine cage won't feed the bird. / A fine cage does not fill a bird's belly. / A hungry belly has no ears. / Fine (kind, soft) words butter no parsnips. / It's no use preaching to a hungry man. / Many words will not fill a bushel. – Лучше иметь синицу в руке, чем журавля на небе. / Ближняя соломка лучше дальнего сенца. / *Ср.* Соловья баснями не кормят.

Most people would prepare for such a task by obtaining a bilingual dictionary and translating each word in the sentence. A translator may have problems, especially when proverbs or metaphors are involved. For example, when the sentences above were translated word by word into Russian by a machine, the machine gave he following translations: Невидимый идиот. Водка держится хорошо, но мясо испортилось.

The matter is that the English word "spirit" has two meanings: "спирт" и "дух" and the machine knew only the first meaning. Obviously, words alone do not

constitute language. Yet, we are all probably more aware of words that of sounds, syntax, or even meaning itself. But what is a word? Are words the smallest unit of meaning in both languages? How does the speaker of a language produce words? Where do new words come from?

Any human being, given the time, could list thousands of words in his native language. If this list then passed on to another speaker, the second person would undoubtedly agree that at least 99% of the items on the list were, indeed, words. Linguists and dictionary makers have tried to describe the concept "word", but all of their attempts have failed in some way. We all know what a word is, yet no one can explain it. The difficulty is caused by different applications of the term "word". Linguists often apply it to a whole group like: "write, writes, wrote, will write", etc. This entire group is then regarded as one word. But when speaking about every word being separated from its neighbours in speech, we, naturally, mean individual members of such a group, not the group as a whole.

The whole group is never used as a unit of speech. Thus, we must either distinguish the word as a unit of language and the word as a unit of speech, or we have to choose a unit common to both language and speech and designate it by the term "word". We may say that a unit like "write" is a word with regard to both language and speech. The group "write, writes, wrote, will write", etc. is not a word, but **lexeme**, a group of words united by some common features.

The other difficulty is caused by the definition of a word. This difficulty is explained by the fact that the word is an extremely complex and many-sided phenomenon. Within the framework of different linguistic trends and theories the word is defined as the minimal potential sentence, the minimal free linguistic form, the articulated sound-symbol, the grammatically arranged combination of sound with meaning, etc. None of these definitions is generally accepted.

As for the criterion according to which the word is identified as a minimal sign capable of functioning alone (the word understood as "the smallest free form", or

interpreted as the “potential minimal sentence”), it is irrelevant for the bulk of functional words which cannot be used “independently” even in elliptical responses.

Summing up what has been said above; we may point out some of the properties of the word which are fundamental from the point of view of their systemic status.

According to ***B.S.Khaimovich*** and ***B.I.Rogovskaya*** the word is the smallest naming unit. The word is a nominative unit of language; it is formed by morphemes; it enters the lexicon of language as its elementary component. One of the main properties of a word is its double nature. It is material because it can be heard and seen, and it is immaterial or ideal as far as its meaning is concerned.

We shall regard **the material aspects** of the word (written and oral) as its **forms**, and its **meanings** as its **content**. When defining the word as “the smallest naming unit”, we refer primarily to its content, whereas in pointing out the most characteristic features of words we deal chiefly with the form.

The word “books” can be broken up in two parts: book - and –s. The content of the first part can be rendered by Russian “книг-” and the meaning of the second part is “plurality”. So, each of the two parts of the word “books” has both form and content. Such meaningful parts of the word are called **morphemes**. If we break up the word “books” in some other way, e.g. “boo-ks”, the resulting parts will not be morphemes, since they have no meanings. Thus, the word is the smallest naming unit and the morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit.

Morphemes may be classified in more than one dimension. Firstly, morphemes are **bound** and **free**. A free morpheme is one that may constitute a word by itself. A bound morpheme is one that must appear with at least one other morpheme, bound or free, in a word. In English the word “cats”, “cat”- is free, since “cat” is a word in its own right, and “-s” is bound, as it is not a word in its own right.

Free morphemes therefore necessarily constitute mono-morphemic words. Secondly, morphemes may be divided into **roots** and **affixes**. Root morphemes may

be bound or free. A word has at least one lexical morpheme. It may also have grammatical and lexico-grammatical morphemes.

The lexical morpheme is regarded as the root of the word; all the other bound morphemes are affixes: **prefixes, suffixes** and **infixes**. Position is not the only difference between prefixes and suffixes in English and Russian. Suffixes play a much greater role in the grammatical structure of the English language.

First, they include grammatical morphemes besides lexico-grammatical. Secondly, the lexico-grammatical suffixes are more closely connected with grammatical morphemes than prefixes are. The addition of a suffix to the root mostly changes the set of grammatical morphemes attached, which is not typical of prefixes. Confer: “teach” and “teacher”, on the other hand, “give” and “forgive”, on the other. An infix is an affix placed within the word, like “-n-” in stand.

Words without their grammatical morphemes (mostly suffixes, often called endings or inflections) are known as **stems**. A stem may consist of the root alone, as in the words “boy, rooms” or it may be more complicated, as in “boyish, remove”, etc.

In accordance with their structure the following 4 types of stems are usually distinguished:

1. **Simple**, containing only the root, as in “day, dogs; кошка, книга”.

2. **Derivative**, containing affixes or other stem-building elements, as in “boyhood, rewrite; книжный, лесник”.

3. **Compound**, containing two or more roots, as in “write-wash, motor-car, brother-in-law”.

4. **Composite**, containing free lexico-grammatical word-morphemes or otherwise having the form of a combination of words, as in “give up, at last, in spite of, two hundred and twenty-five”.

The stems of “blue-eyed, lion-hearted” are both compound and derivative and are called **compound derivatives**.

The means employed in English to distinguish the words of a lexeme are similar to those used to distinguish the stems of different lexemes. The chief of them are: affixation, sound interchange and suppletivity.

The words “play and plays” are related by affixation: the word “plays” differs from the word “play” in having the affix, more exactly suffix, “-s” is added to the stem of the lexeme.

The words “foot and feet” are related by sound interchange (or internal inflexion). But sometimes words of the same lexeme have different roots, for example: I-me, go-went. This unusual phenomenon is called suppletivity.

The other way of lexeme-building is conversion. Conversion is a way of forming new lexemes from already existing ones by means of changing the paradigm, the lexico-grammatical meaning, the combinability and the function, or only the last 3 features, for example: “doctor” noun – “doctor” verb; “smooth” adjective – “smooth” verb; “home” noun – “home” adverb”.

Lecture 13. Typology of Word-Classes and Morphological Characteristics of Foreign and Native Languages. Typology of Word-Building Means of Native and Foreign Languages.

As we know, English and Azerbaijani belong to different language families. It means that these languages genetically aren't related. With some other below mentioned, English is a Germanic one, it has three subgroups:

1) North Germanic or Scandinavian (here belong Spanish, Swedish, Norwegian);

2) West Germanic includes English spoken today in Great Britain and abroad, Netherlands, and Dutch.

3) East Germanic, which has left no trace.

Being a language of Altayic group, Azerbaijani forms Oghuz group. This group includes several sub-groups:

1) Oghuz – Turkman, includes mainly modern Turkman;

2) Oghuz - Bulgar, here belong Gagauz, Bulgarian, Turkish;

3) Oghuz – Saljuk, Azerbaijani, and Osmanli Azerbaijani is spoken by more than 40 million people in the world. Approximately 8 million people live and speak Azerbaijani. The rest of the population lives in Iran, Iraq, Russia, etc.

According to the morphological classification they belong to different system English being analytic, Azerbaijani – agglutinative one. Suffice to compare some sentences to understand what those language systems mean. In "yazılmış" the suffix "ıl" expressing voice, "mış" tense, "dır" signifies person. But in English the sentence is expressed by different relations of the words, no suffixes are used.

Ideas they are expressed analytically.In some cases to find agglutination in English and analetism in Azerbaijani is possible. For example: in Azerbaijani "Sabah çalış daha tez gəl" we can't find a suffix between words. Even English word "earlier" is expressed by two words "daha tez". In English we can find some retains of the

synthetic elements in different grammatical categories. Compare: 3-rd person, sing., degrees of adjectives, etc.

Therefore, it's imposiible say that English is purely analytic. While including English into analytic type, Azerbaijani into agglutinative we mean the former is richer in analitism than the later and vice-versa.

In English analytical forms are proper to words. To express some analytical forms in Azerbaijani we use agglutinative word-structure. Morphology deals with the parts of speech, their inflexions. Though grammarian being studied it for 2000 years, the criteria used aren't yet agreed upon. In compared languages notional parts of speech are the same. In other word, they coincide.

Functional parts of speech are the conjunction, the preposition, an article and the particle. In Azerbaijani they are the conjunction, the particle, modal words, and the postposition. Some scholars consider modal words and interjections (some include words of affirmation and negation) to be free part of speech. Connective "imizi, idi, isə, ikən" coincides with different parts of speech in English. For example: "He was a good man". The difference between "idi" and "imiz" is that the forms expresses certainty, the later probability. For instance: "This girl turned to be a teacher".

The syntactic function of "idi" and "imiz" in Azerbaijani and "was/were" in most cases is the same in compared languages, link-verb – to a predicative. "İkən" being considered the connective and given center the title with "imizi, idi" coincide with English conjunction "while". For example: "While we dined, the band was playing". "İsə" pining some interrogative pronouns like "kim, nə" and adverb "hara, haçan, necə" form in the first case – indefinite pronouns. In the second case, compound pronominal adverbs as "hara isə" – "somewhere", "necəsə" – "somehow".

The next problem is the functional parts of speech, the postposition. Postpositions which require a word in the Nominative case are equal to English prepositions. "İkə, üçün, haqqında" can be given as examples of the postpositions. In English the preposition is placed before the word with which it is connected. In

Azerbaijani postpositions always stand after the word which they are connected. As Azerbaijani has a developed case system, postposition serves to make precise the meanings expressed by case inflexions.

One of the problems in English is the part of speech – the adlink. In Azerbaijani we don't have it. Some grammarians don't recognize adlink as separate parts of speech, for instance: ***M.Y.Blokh, H.Quirk*** and ***J.Svartvig***.

B.A.Ilyish, B.S.Khaimovich and ***B.I. Rogovskaya*** consider them to be a separate part of speech with prefix "a-". English adlink coincides with Azerbaijani participle – "the wounded is alive". Besides this part of speech we can dwell on the words affirmation and negation in both languages.

Being an adapted system the vocabulary is constantly adjusting itself to this changing demands and conditions of human communication and cultural and other needs. We'll give a presentation. This process of self-regulation of the lexical system is the result of overcoming contradictions between the state of the system and the demands it has to meet. The speaker chooses from the word-stock such words that in his opinion can express his thought. The development isn't confined to coming new words on the existing patterns but in adapting the very structure of the system to its changing functions.

The new meaning of word formation changes their states. This is manifest in the set of combined forms. In the past there were only bound forms of borrowing from Latin and Greek mostly used to form technical terms. Some of them turn into free changing word.

When some word becomes frequent element in compounds, the discrimination of compounds, the difference between affixes and semi-affixes is blind. On the morphological level words are divided into the groups, the number of morphemes which compose them. There are:

1) Root or morpheme words; their stem contains one free morpheme, like: "dog, hand";

2) Derivatives contain no less than two morphemes of which at least one is bound; for example: “handful”;

3) Compound words consist of not less than 2 free morphemes, the presence of bound morphemes is possible; for example: “dog-cheap” - very cheap; “dog-days” - hottest part of the year; “handbook” – *Amer.* “blue-book” means guide;

4) Compound derivatives consist of not less than two free morphemes and one bound morpheme referring to their whole combination:

Pattern – stem + stem + suffix, for example: “dog-begged”; “left-handed”.

We can show the analysis on the word formation level showing not only the morphemic constituents of the word but also the structural pattern on which it’s built. This may be carried out of term of proportional oppositions, like:

“Un-” + adjective, for instance: “uncertain, uneasy”;

Noun + “-ly”, for exmple: “womanly, masterly”;

Adjective + “-man”, like: “gentleman”.

We can arrive at a conclusion that in comparative typology the analysis of words may be grouped not according to their root-morphemes, but to affixes as well. The next step is classifying words not in isolation, but taking them within actual utterances. Here, the first contrast to consider is the contrast between notional words and form or functional words.

Actually, the definition of the word as a minimum free holds good for notional words only. It’s only notional words that can stand alone and yet have meaning and form a complete utterance. They can make a different object of reality and actions or the process in which they take part. In sentences they function syntactically as some primary or secondary member. Even extended sentences are possible which consist of notional words; they can also express the attitude of speaker towards reality.

The form words are lexical units which are called words, although they don’t conform to the definition of the words because they are used in combination with

notional words. This group comprises auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions and relative adverbs in English.

Primarily, they express grammatical relationship between words; this doesn't imply that they have no lexical meaning of their own. The border-line is not very clear and doesn't correspond to that various parts of speech.

Thus, most verbs are notional, but auxiliary verbs are formed words. Whether link verbs should be treated as form-words? Personal, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns testify are notional words. Reflexive pronouns seem to be form words, building up such analytical verb-forms as "I want myself," but this is open to discussion as to prop-word (determiners- one, those) some think that they are separate third group.

It is typical of the English language the boundary between notional and functional words lies within the semantic structure of one and the same word so that they appear.

As notional words and form words are in both languages the systematic use of form words is one of the main device of English and Azerbaijani languages structures surprised in importance only by fixed word-order. Form words are studied in typology of languages which concentrate their attention upon notional words.

The classes suggested by ***Ch.Fries*** are based on distribution. In other words, they are syntactic position. The bulk of word utterances constitutes by classes. Except numbers to give no names: 1) water; sugar; ink; 2) felt; arranged; sees; 3) general; good; better; young; 4) their; here; now; first.

The percentage of total vocabulary in 4 classes is over 93%, but the remaining 7% are constituted by 154 form-words. This though few in number, occur very frequently. Observing the semantic structure of words of this group we find a deal of semantic likeness not only in denotative meaning, but also in the ways meanings are combined.

Comparative typology of languages, word-building means a new way of forming words. One of the useful way is the type Noun-Verb, like: “work - to work”; “dream - to dream”.

A.A.Ufimtseva shows some other productive ways of forming new words in English (Adjective – Noun, like: “round – dairəvi”, “round – yumru”); Verb-Noun, like: “to try” – “a try”. However, in Azerbaijani one can find out the following types: Verb –Noun, like: “gəzmək-gəzinti”; Noun – Verb, like: “çağırış-çağırma”; Adjective – Noun, like: “soyunma-otağı”.

Besides, those ways of forming new words, there are non-productive ways in both languages.

Lecture 14. Typology of Phraseological Units (Isomorphic and Allomorphic Features).

1. Phraseological unit.

2. Kinds of idiomatic expressions.

3. Typology of set-phrases of non-phraseological character in English, Azerbaijani and Russian.

4. Typology of the phraseological word-combinations in the compared languages.

5. Typology of the idioms in the compared languages.

6. Typology of proverbs and sayings in the compared languages.

7. Culture through proverbs.

1. Phraseological unit.

Phraseological unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready made unit. It is functionally and semantically inseparable. Characteristic features of phraseological units or set-phrases are non-motivation for idiomaticity and stability of context. Structurally, they may be in all languages:

1) **One-word idioms** (bərəkallah!; шишка, high-up; baron; bullet; top; туз, magnate; burdurma; lord; bashaw; bic-bala; bicok; dazbaş; gossip; deyişmə; babble; nömrə; burnuyelli; burnudik; sınmaq; break up);

2) **Word-group idioms** (Nuh əyyamında; bərk gedən; fat cat; A kateqoriyalı; ad çıxarmaq; ad eləmək; number one; ad qazanmaq; Ten Commandments; day demə; bald as a billiard ball; çaşka-lojka olmaq; adam olmaq; bığyağı vermək; bald as a Dutch cheese; десять заповедей; bazar açmaq; petty talk; behişti satın almaq);

3) **Sentence idioms** (Adam ağır zəhmətlə alim olur.; Everyone needs stand-by.; Дорого яичко к великому дню.; Nuhu taxtda, Suleymanı qundaqda görüb.; Cook the hare before catching him.; Ad mənim oldu, yar özgənin.; Time and tide wait for no

man.; Беда на голову с языка валится.; With time and patience the leaf of mulberry becomes satin.; Видел(а) Ноя на троне, а Соломона в пелёнках.; Beware of a silent dog and still water.; Легче сказать, чем сделать.; Sirrini dostuna demə, dostunun da dostu var.; Let your secret die with you.; Не раскрывай секрет другу, у друга тоже есть друг.);

4) **Metaphorically generalised proper names** (sometimes geographical names) as Jack Ketch (Hangman).

Common in the compared languages are paradigmatic classes of idioms:

a) **Substantival** (the Trojan horse, троянский конь; bulvar adamı; bar qızı; bulvar romanı; burma saç; burnu aşağı olmaq; burnu qaf dağında; на сносях);

b) **Verbal** (to have one's heart in one's mouth, брать быка за рога; burnunun ucu göynəmək; to put the brake on; душа надрывается; сердце разрывается; to assail one's nostrils; burnunda danışmaq; to go up in the air; to put on airs; to get one's back up; çax-çux eləmək; to set up one's bristles; sinədəftər etmək; to get one's goat; войти (вломиться, полезть, удариться) в амбицию; sino getmək);

c) **Adverbial** (by and again, сквозь и всюду; burnunun ucunda; ağzımın içində; right under someone's nose; dünyanın qutaran yerində; before someone's nose; at hand; в двух (в трёх, в нескольких) шагах; два шага от; под боком).

In the compared languages they can perform such functions as:

a) **The subject** - *Hobson's choice* is an idiom.

b) **The predicative / predicate** - That was a *Hobson's choice* for him.

c) **The object** - He recollected the idiom "*Hobson's choice*".

d) **The adverbial modifier** - He will do it *by hook or by crook.*

2. Kinds of idiomatic expressions.

Idiomatic expressions exist in the compared non-cognate languages either as:

1) **Absolute equivalents** having all components the same and absolutely identical or slightly different meaning in some languages of a historically, culturally

and mostly geographical close regions, like: “Axilles dabanı (bir adamın ən zəif cəhəti) – a heel of Achilles / the Achilles’ heel of someone / the joint in someone’s armour / the chink in one’s armour / the crock in someone’s armour (a single weak, vulnerable point) – * ахиллесова пята / слабое место (наиболее уязвимое место у кого-либо)”;

2) **Near equivalents**, i.e. when having in some (usually different) languages one or more components missing or different as in other (contrasted) languages, for example: “to kiss the post - поцеловать замок”; “Adəm babadan, Nuh - Nəbidən qalıb. – When Adam was a boy. / When queen Anne was alive. / In the year dot (one). – Со времён сотворения мира осталось. / Отголоски Домостроевских времён. / Времена царя Гороха.”; “Adəmdən Xatəmə – since the beginning of time / since time immemorial – испокон веков / от Адама до последнего пророка Магомеда (издавна, с незапамятных времён)”;

3) **Genuine and approximate idiomatic analogies** which have in English, Russian and Azerbaijani similar meaning but different componental structures, like: “a fly in the ointment – ложка дёгтя в бочке мёда”; “axmaq (ağlı başında olmayan adam haqqında, gic, səfeh) – silly baggage / blockhead / dunderhead / dullard / fool / fat head / far gone / nuts – еловая голова / дубовая голова / голова соломой набита / тупица / олух / дурень / дура / чурбан (глупый человек)”.

There are also:

1) **National idioms**, for instance: “to cut off with a shilling; at large (ambassador); to get up and go; gözüm səndən su içmir; sapa gəlməyən; nəfsi çəkmək; вольный стих; ваша не пляшет!; флаг тебе; əlin məharəti – * the sleight of hand – ловкость рук; əlində fırladıb atmaq (bir qızla görüşüb, sonra onu tərk etmək) – *Cf.* love her and leave her – * поматросить и бросить (побыть некоторое время в любовной связи с девушкой, а затем бросить её); Əli aşından da etmək, Vəli aşından da – to dupe someone / to make an ass of someone / to leave someone out in the cold (in the basket) / to give someone the sack to hold / not to give someone what

he expected (hoped) to get / to leave someone in squalor / to leave someone high and dry / to leave someone standing / to get nothing for one's pains / *Cf.* to leave someone out in the cold (in the basket) / *Amer.* to give someone the sack to hold (to have neither this nor that) – оставить при пиковом интересе / оставить на бобах (остаться ни с чем); əlinə keçəni oxumaq – * to get one's hands on (to read everything and anything) – читать всё подряд что попадается под руку; əlaməti olaraq – to signify smth. – * в знак чего-либо"; "Əli, Vəli ya Pirvəli – 1. (hər yetən, qabağına ilk çıxan) – any Tom, Dick or Harry (anybody) – Иванов, Смирнов или Сидоров / любой встречный - поперечный (всякий, кто угодно); 2. (kim olur olsun) – Tom, Dick or Harry – Иван, болван, профан (кто бы ни был)"; "Əlidən götürüb Vəliyə vermək (bir borcdan qurtarıb başqa borca düşmək) – to rob Peter to pay Paul – облагодетельствовать одни долги, сделав новые (взять у одного, чтобы отдать другому)"; "Əlinin papağı Vəlinin başında, Vəlinin papağı Əlinin başında – everything is upside-down at sixes and sevens / a muddle / confusion turmoil / maze – не разбери-поймёшь / тришкин кафтан (неразбериха, путаница, сумбур, отсутствие порядка)"; "* dovşana deyir: "qaç", tazıya deyir: "tut" – 1. an instigator – подстрекатель, натравливающий одного против другого; 2. a double faced advice (tactic of befriending with both adversaries) – слуга двух господ"; "konservator (heç nəyi dəyişməyən adam) – * fuddy-duddy – консерватор (человек, который не хочет что-либо менять)";

2) **International idioms**, for instance: "Pandora's box"; "Gordian knot"; "İtlə dost ol, çomağı yerə qoyma. – He that lies down with dogs must keep a stick. – Собаку мани, а палку держи."; "Ayını əvvəl öldür, sonra dərisinə qiymət qoy. = Catch the bear before you sell his skin. / *Cf.* Do not boast until you see the enemy dead. / First catch your hare then cook him. / Boast not before but after the battle. = Не продавай шкуры, не убив медведя. / Не поймав медведя, шкуры не продают. / *Ср.* Продают шкуру не убитого медведя. / Медведь в лесу, а шкура продана. / Не хвались, идучи на рать, а хвались, идучи с рати. / Хвали горку, как

перевалишься. / Не говори “гоп”, пока не перепрыгнешь. / Хвались урожаем, когда рожь в засеку посыплешь.”; “dovşan kimi qorxaq – as timid as a mouse – труслив как заяц (очень робкий, стеснительный человек)”; “Dovşana “qaç” deyir, tazıya - “tut”. – Running with the hare, and hunting with the hounds. – Сам в кон ставит, а другим споспешенья желает. / *Ср.* Умеет угодить на неугодного и на угодного.”; “Quş nəğməsi ilə tanınar. – A bird may be known by its song. – Видна птица по полёту.”; “Quş dimdiyi ilə, insan biliyi ilə tanınar. – A bird may be known by its song. – Птице даны крылья, а человеку - разум. / Красна птица пером, а человек - умом. / Видна птица по полёту.”; “Qurddur, qoyun dərisinə girib. – Wolf in the sheep’s skin is wolf. – Волк и в овечьей шкуре не укроется. / Знать волка и в овечьей шкуре”; “Qurdla dost olan, ulamaq öyrənər. = Who keeps company with the wolf will learn to howl. / *Cf.* You cannot lie down with dogs without rising with fleas. / He that lies down with dogs must rise up with fleas. / He that lives with cripples learns to limp. = С волками жить по-волчьи выть.”; “Arı qəhrini çəkməyən, balın qədrini bilməz. – He who would catch fish must not mind getting wet. – Кто любит мёд, тот заводит пчёл.”; “Arı yalançını sancar. – Bee stings a liar. – Пчела на злого хозяина жалуется.”; “At almamış, tövlə tikir. – Don’t cry out before you are hurt. – Заведи сперва хлевину, а там и животину. / Не купив коровы, да завёл подойник.”; “At izi it izinə qarışmaz. – One cannot make the leopard change his spots. / What is bred in the bone never gets out of the flesh. / *Cf.* No matter how long you feed a wolf he’ll always have his eye on the forest. / Feed the wolf as much as you like, but he’s always hankering after the forest. – Кто волком родился, тому лисой не бывать. / Кто родом кулак, тому не разогнуться в ладонь. / *Ср.* Сколько волка ни корми, а он всё в лес гдядит.”; “At olmayan yerdə eşşək də atdır. – All’s good in a famine. / *Cf.* Any port in a storm. / Among the blind the one-eyed is king. / There’s a small choice in rotten apples. / Any port in a storm. / Half a loaf is better than no bread. / A bit in the morning is better than nothing all day. = Когда нет лошади и осёл скотина. / Нет коня, и осёл скотина. / *Ср.* На безрыбье и рак -

рыба. / В поле и жук - мясо. / Где нет певчей птицы, там и лягушка за соловья сойдёт.”; “At ölər, meydan qalar, igid ölər, ad-san qalar. = The horse dies the arena remains; the hero dies his fame remains. / A glorious deed never dies. = Когда погибает лошадь, остается поле, когда погибает герой, остается его имя.”.

3. Typology of set-phrases of non-phraseological character in English, Azerbaijani and Russian.

The term “set phrase” implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

Set phrases are often words with a unique referent, like: “Red Sea, Black Sea, Yellow Sea”. (By the way, there are 51 seas in the world.) There is no clear dividing line between a commonly used phrase and a set phrase. It is also not easy to draw a clear distinction between set phrases (carry equal stress on each word) and compound words (stressed on the one syllable).

Set phrases are usually called “collocations”, that is, words that are commonly used together. They can be:

1) **Verb-noun** combinations, like: “take a bath, make a promise”;

2) **Adjective-noun** combinations, like: “innocent bystander, белый гриб”;

3) **Preposition-noun** (on board) combinations, like: “at hand, / within two paces of someone or smth. / within one’s reach / quite near / near by / within a stone’s throw / on the one’s doorstep / at one’s elbow”.

Collocation comprises the restrictions on how words can be used together, for example which prepositions are used with particular verbs, or which verbs and nouns are used together, like: “strong tea, but not powerful tea”.

Set phrases should not be confused with idioms. In idioms, the meaning is completely non-compositional whereas in set phrases their elements are semantically motivated.

To non-stable phraseological units belong:

1) Idioms, one of the words of which has unusual meaning, like: “close right at hand; it is beyond one’s depth / it is out of one’s depth – не твоего ума дело / не по зубам”;

2) Non-idiomatic non-stable combinations of words, which are characterized by the frequent co-occurrence of the word group (penknife – cib biçağı – перочинный нож).

In English, Russian and Azerbaijani sphere of stylistically neutral and official lexicon two-member expressions are predominant.

4. Typology of the phraseological word-combinations in the compared languages.

First of all, we analyze **free and non-free word combinations.** The vocabulary of a language includes not only words but also stable word combinations which also serve as a means of expressing concepts. They are phraseological word equivalents reproduced in speech the way words are reproduced and not created anew in actual speech. An ordinary word combination is created according to the grammatical rules of the language in accordance with a certain idea. The general meaning of an ordinary free word combination is derived from the conjoined meanings of its elements.

Here every notional word functions as a certain member of the sentence. Thus, an ordinary word combination is a syntactical pattern. A free word combination is a combination in which any element can be substituted by another, for instance: “I like this idea. I dislike this idea. He likes the idea. I like that idea. I like this thought”.

But when we use the term free we are not precise. The freedom of a word in a combination with others is relative as it is not only the syntactical pattern that matters. There are logical limitations too. The second group of word combinations is semi-free word combinations. They are the combinations in which the substitution is possible but limited, for example: “to cut a poor / funny / strange figure”.

Non-free word combinations are those in which the substitution is impossible, like: “to come clean, to be in low water”.

It is necessary to mention various **classifications of the phraseological units**. A major stimulus to intensive studies of phraseology was ***V.V.Vinogradov***'s research. The classification suggested by him has been widely adopted by linguists working on other languages.

The classification of phraseological units suggested by ***V.V.Vinogradov*** includes: - standardised word combinations, i.e. phrases characterised by the limited combinative power of their components, which retain their semantic independence: "to meet the request / requirement, подавать надежду, встречная просьба" - **phraseological unities**, i.e. phrases in which the meaning of the whole is not the sum of meanings of the components but it is based on them and the motivation is apparent: "to stand to one's guns, прикусить язык, выводить на чистую воду, держать камень за пазухой"; - **phraseological fusions**, i.e. phrases in which the meaning cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its components: "tit for tat; to fall between two stools / to sit on the fence / to serve two masters / to run with the hare and hunt with the hounds; сидеть между двух стульев; сломать жизнь; быть на седьмом небе от счастья, радости".

Phraseological unities are very often metaphoric. The components of such unities are not semantically independent; the meaning of every component is subordinated to the figurative meaning of the phraseological unity as a whole. The latter may have a homonymous expression - a free syntactical word combination, for example: "Nick is a musician. He plays the first fiddle. It is his wife who plays the first fiddle in the house".

Phraseological unities may vary in their semantic and grammatical structure. Not all of them are figurative. Here we can find professionalisms, coupled synonyms.

A.V.Koonin finds it necessary to divide English phraseological unities into figurative and non-figurative.

Figurative unities are often related to analogous expressions with direct meaning in the very same way in which a word used in its transferred sense is related

to the same word used in its direct meaning. Scientific English, technical vocabulary, the vocabulary of arts and sports have given many expressions of this kind: “in full blast; to hit below the belt; to spike someone’s guns”. Among phraseological unities we find many verb-adverb combinations: “to look for; to look after; to put down; to give in”.

Phraseological fusions are the most synthetical of all the phraseological groups. They seem to be completely unmotivated though their motivation can be unearthed by means of historic analysis. They fall under the following groups:

Idiomatic expressions which are associated with some obsolete customs, like: “the grey mare, to rob Peter to pay Paul”. Idiomatic expressions which go back to some long forgotten historical facts they were based on, like: “to bell the cat, Damocles’ sword”. Idiomatic expressions expressively individual in their character, like: “My God!”, “My eye!” Idiomatic expressions containing archaic elements, like: “by dint of (dint – blow); in fine (fine – end)”.

Analyzing the phraseological systems of the non-cognate languages, like modern Azerbaijani, English and Russian ***N.Ch.Valiyeva*** suggested the following classification of the phraseological units. It includes:

1) **Phraseological word,** which consists of only one word, such as:

acıdil – backbiter / slanderer / wicked / spiteful tongue – язва / злой язык / острый язычок;

şirindil – smooth-tongued – сладкоречивый;

bədheybət (kifir adam haqqında) – his mug is extremely ugly and vulgar and asks for a good punch / having a face that would stop a clock / *Cf.* a bag of bones not fit to be seen – морда (рожа, харя) кирпича просит (о безобразной, вульгарной, возможно пьяной физиономии) / ни кожи ни рожи (некрасивый, худой человек);

bərk-gedən (uğurlu insan haqqında) – a modern man, who keeps pace with innovations / one who catches up yet with the latest style – человек, идущий в ногу со временем (современный преуспевающий человек);

lüt (yoxsul) – as poor as Job / as poor as a church mouse / as poor as a rat / as poor as charity / as bare as the palm of your hand / as naked as a picked bone / without a penny to bless him – гол как сокол (очень беден, ничего не имеет);

kəlan – 1. (çoxluq mənasında) – a hundred and one – уйма; 2. (varlı insan haqqında) – a money-bag / ace / high(-er)-up / baron / magnate / lord / top / bashaw / *Amer.* fat cat / *Amer.* zillionaire – денежный мешок / туз / шишка / магнат / воротила / заправила / владыка / властелин / хозяин;

kəllə (çox dərs oxuyan, biliyi çox, yaşına görə həddindən artıq intellektual olan insan haqqında) – highbrow / longhair / egg-head / *Amer.* point(y)-head – ботаник / умник / заумный / эрудит / *Ср.* сноб (о том, кто много учиться и много знает);

2) **Phraseological word combinations,** which consists of two or more words, such as:

abır-həya gözləməmək – to offend the proprieties – нет стыда в глазах / креста нет;

acı həqiqət (xoşagəlməz məsələ, qəbul edilməsi ağır olan həqiqət) – the bitter truth / the home truth (usually a true but unpleasant fact about a person, told by somebody else) / *Cf.* bitter pill to swallow (something hard to accept, disappointment) – горькая правда / *Ср.* горькая пилюля / горький мёд (истина);

kəllə kəlləyə gəlmək (güzəştə getməmək) – to kick against the pricks / to cannon (run) into each other / to come across one another / to run into someone (to collide with someone) – идти лоб в лоб / лезть на рожон (не сходиться, упрямиться, не уступать);

qabırğa olmaq – 1. (dəvət almamış bir kəsə qoşulmaq) – to cling to someone like a leech / try to get a food ration (a drink, *etc.*) out of someone – падать (упасть) на хвост (примазываться к кому-либо с целью поесть или выпить на дармовщину); 2. (artıq olmaq) – a superfluous third / *Cf.* a third wheel (to be unwanted man) – быть третьим лишним;

paza keçmək (gözlənilmədən bir kəsə bərk aşiq olmaq) – to fall in love with someone – влипнуть / зацепиться (неожиданно сильно влюбиться);

söz almaq – 1. (bir kəsi danışmağa vadar etmək, bir kəsə hansısa məlumat verməyə imkan, şərait yaratmaq) – to make someone talk / to force someone to tell smth. / to try to make someone tell smth. / to loose (loosen) someone's tongue – (по)тянуть за язык / развязывать (развязать) язык (побуждать, заставлять кого-либо разговориться, давать возможность кому-либо заговорить свободно, без стеснения, непринуждённо); 2. (iclasda, yığıncaqda çıxış etmək üçün) – to take the floor / to step out / to come forward / to emerge (address) a meeting / rise to speak / to catch the speaker's eye – брать (взять) слово (по собственному желанию выступать на собрании, заседании *и т.п.*); 3. (vəd almaq) – to make someone promise / to exact a promise from someone (to receive a promise) – брать (взять) слово (получать от кого-либо обещание, уверение в чём-либо);

zəhlə tökmək (bir kəsi rahat buraxmamaq, daima ondan bir şey xahiş etmək) – to give smb. a pain in the neck / to pursue someone everywhere (to annoy, to pester) – не давать прохода (назойливо преследовать просьбами, вопросами, разговорами);

3) **Phraseological sentences – proverbs and sayings,** which consists of sentence, such as:

Ac qal, topal qal, kör qal, fəqət torpaqsız qalma. – *Turk.* Aç kal, topal kal, kör kal, fakat topraksız kalma. = Be hungry, be lame, be blind, but never be without land. / Better die standing than live kneeling. – Будь голодным, будь хромым, будь слепым, только никогда не будь без земли (родины).

Abad kənd tüstüsündən bəlli olar. – *Lit.* A village is known by the barking of the dogs. / *Cf.* Nothing will be hidden. – Видно деревню по лаю собак.

Abdal at mindi, özünü bəy saydı. – One comes of peasant stock and becomes prince (lord). – Вышел из грязи - попал в князи. / Надела свинья хомут и думает - лошадь.

Pazı paznan çıxarırlar. – Like cures like. / Habit cures habit. / One fire drives out another. / Desperate diseases must have desperate remedies. / One nail drives out another. / Fight fire with fire. / Take a hair of the dog that bit you. – Клин клином вышибают. / Клин клином выколачивают. / *Ср.* Чем ушибся, тем и лечись.

Özün bişirmisən, özün də dad. – Drink as you have brewed. / You got yourself into the mess, so get yourself out of it! / You made the broth, now sup it! – Сам заварил кашу, сам и расхлёбывай! / Кто заварил кашу, тот и расхлебай.

Rahat oturana nə vali gələr, nə hakim. – He lives long that lives well. – Живи смирнее - будет прибыльнее. / Живи тихо - да избывай лихо.

Səhv eləmək qəbahət deyil, qəbahət onu düzəltməməkdir. – *Lit.* To be wrong is not a sin, a sin is not to correct a mistake. / *Cf.* A miss is as good as a mile. – Не беда ошибиться, беда не исправиться.

Şərab dənizdən çox insan məhv edib. = Bacchus has drowned more men than Nepture. = Бакус утопил больше людей, чем Нептун. = Вино погубило больше людей, чем море.

Üzünün əti tökülsün! (Ayıb olsun!) – Fie for shame! / A shame and a disgrace! / It’s a crying shame! / Shame! / For shame! / Shame on you! / You ought to be ashamed of yourself! / Aren’t you ashamed of yourself? – Стыд и срам (позор)! / Позор и срам тебе! / Как тебе не стыдно! / Постеснялся (-ась) бы! (Вам должно быть очень стыдно!)

Semantic Classification of Phraseological Units:

1) Phraseological units referring to the same notion, for example:

“Hard work” – “to burn the midnight oil; to do back-breaking work; to hit the books; to keep one’s nose to the grindstone; to work like a dog; to work one’s fingers to the bone”.

“Compromise” – “to find middle ground; to go halfway”.

“Independence” – “to be on one’s own; to have a mind of one’s own; to stand on one’s own two feet”.

“Experience” – “to be an old hand at something; to know something like the back of one’s palm; to know the rope”.

2) Professionalisms, for instance: “on the rocks; to stick to one’s guns; breakers ahead”.

3) Phraseological units having similar components, for example: “a dog in the manger; dog days; to agree like cat and dog; to rain cats and dogs”.

To fall on deaf ears; to talk somebody’s ear off; to have a good ear for; to be all ears.

To see red; a red herring; a red carpet treatment; to be in the red.

4) Phraseological units referring to the same lexico-semantic field, for example:

“**Body parts**” – “to cost an arm and leg; to pick somebody’s brain; to get one’s feet wet; to get off the chest; to rub elbows with; not to have a leg to stand on; to stick one’s neck out; to be nosey; to make a headway; to knuckle down; to shake a leg; to pay through the noser; to tip toe around; to mouth off”.

In Azerbaijani there is a great deal of the phraseological units, which one component is a part of body, for example **196** units with the component “ayaq”: “ayağa bağlanmaq; ayağa dolaşmaq; ayağa döşənmək; ayağa durmaq; ayağa düşmək; ayağa qaldırmaq; ayağa qalxmaq; ayağa salmaq; ayağa vermək; ayağa verməmək; ayağa yıxılmaq; ayağı açılmaq; ayağı bağlanmaq; ayağı bağlı olmaq; ayağı dəyməmək; ayağı dəyməyəcək; ayağı düşmək; ayağı düşməmək; ayağı gördan sallanmaq; ayağı ilə gəlmək; ayağı ilə (bir kəsin) qapısını açmaq; ayağı ilə tələyə düşmək; ayağı işləmək; ayağı kəsilmək; (bir) ayağı qəbirdə olmaq; (bir kəsin) ayağı ora dəyməyəcək; ayağı sürüşkən qadın; ayağı uğurlu olmaq; ayağı üstə dayana bilmək; ayağı üzəngidə; ayağı yanmaq; ayağı yer almaq; ayağı yer tutan xəstə; ayağı yer tutmaq; ayağı yerdən üzülmək; ayağı yerə dəyməmək; ayağı yüngül olmaq; ayağıağır; ayağıçarıqlı; ayağım keyiyib; ayağın altından yerin qaçması (gözləmədiyi halda zərbə almaq); ayağına aparmaq; ayağına bağlamaq; ayağına bir daş; ayağına çıxmaq; ayağına cidar olmaq; ayağına çağırmaq; ayağına daş bağlanmaq; ayağına daş

olmaq; ayağına döşənmək; ayağına durmaq; ayağına duzaq olmaq; ayağına düşmək; ayağına getmək; ayağına gəlmək; * ayağına qalxmaq; ayağına qapanmaq; (bir şeyi bir kəsin) ayağına yazmaq; ayağına yer vermək (hər hansı bir işdə ilk addımlarını atmaq); ayağına yıxılmaq (yaltaqlıq etmək, riyakarlıq etmək); * ayağında qalmaq; ayağından çəkmək; ayağından silmək; ayağını açmaq; ayağını basmaq; ayağını basmamaq; ayağını başından aşırmaq; ayağını boğazına dirəmək; ayağını çəkmək; ayağını dirəmək; ayağını düz atmamaq; ayağını kəsmək; ayağını qarmaq; ayağını qazmaq; ayağını yan basmaq; ayağını yerdən götürmək; Ayağını yorğanına görə uzat; ayağının altı qaşınmaq (bir yerdə uzun müddət qərar tuta bilməmək); ayağının altı möhkəm olmaq; ayağının altına baxmadan (qaçmaq); * ayağının altına dəmir at; ayağının altına düşmək; ayağının altına ərsin at; ayağının altına xalça döşəmək (bir kəsi yaxşı qarşılamaq); ayağının altına maşa at; ayağının altında qurban kəsmək; ayağının altında torpaq yanır; ayağının altında yer yanır; ayağının altından torpaq qaçmaq; ayağının altından zəminə qaçmaq; ayağının altından zəminə qaçır; ayağının altını görməmək; ayağının altını qazımaq; ayağının altını oymaq; ayağının altını öpmək; ayağının tozu da, iyi də qalmasın; ayağının tozu da ola bilməz; ayağının tozuna dəyməz; ayağısürüşkən(dir); ayağısürüşkənlik eləmək; ayağıyüngül; ayaq açıb yerimək; ayaq açmaq; ayaq almaq; ayaq-altı olmayan yer (gözdən uzaq yer); ayaq altına almaq; ayaq altına düşmək; ayaq altına salmaq; ayaq altında qalmaq; ayaq-ayağa getmək; ayaq basmağa yer yoxdur; ayaq basmaq; ayaq basmamaq; ayaq çalmaq; ayaq çəkmək; ayaq dirəmək; ayaq döymək; ayaq götürmək; ayaq kəsmək; ayaq olmaq; ayaq saxla! (dayan!, gözlə!); ayaq saxlamaq; ayaq sürmək; ayaq sürümək; ayaq tərəfdə; ayaq tutmaq; ayaq üstə; ayaq üstə qaldırmaq (müalicə etdirmək); ayaq üstə qalmaq; ayaq üstə möhkəm dayana bilməmək (haqqını tələb edə bilməmək, özünü müdafiə etmək iqtidarında olmamaq); ayaq üstə mürgüləmək (yarı yuxulu olmaq); ayaq üstə olmaq; ayaq üstə ölmək (çox yorğun olmaq); ayaq vurmaq; ayaq yığılmaq; * ayaqaçdı; ayaqaltı etmək / eləmək; ayaqaltı(sı) olmaq; ayaqda qalmaq; ayaqda sürünmək; ayaqdan ağır; ayaqdan başa qədər; ayaqdan cəld; ayaqdan

çəkmək; ayaqdan diri; ayaqdan düşmək; ayaqdan-dırnaqdan düşmək; ayaqdan olmaq; ayaqdan salmaq; ayaqdan tutmaq; ayaqdan yapışmaq; ayaqdan yüngül; ayaqqabıları yamamaq (təmir etmək); ayaqqabılarını qabağında cütləmək (bir kəsi evdən qovmaq); ayaqqabılarını cütləyib qabağına qoymaq; ayaqqabılarını yalamaq (yaltaqlanmaq); ayaqqabını corabsız geyinmək; Ayaqqabınının ayağını vurduğunu onu geyinən bilər; ayaqla (piyada); ayaqlarda sürünmək (alçalaraq bir şeyi xahiş etmək); ayaqları altında (tam itaətində); ayaqları ardınca getməmək (yorğunluğa və ya xəstəliyə görə asta yerimək); ayaqları ardınca sürünmək; ayaqları dalınca gəlməmək; ayaqları dolaşmaq (ayaqları dolaşa-dolaşa yerimək); ayaqları güclə ardınca gəlmək; ayaqları ilə səs vermək (öz narazılığını çıxıb getməyi ilə bildirmək); ayaqları sözünə baxmır; ayaqları yer almaq; ayaqları yer tutmaq; ayaqları yerdən üzülmək (əminliyi, inamı, arxanı itirmək); ayaqları yerə mıxlanmaq; ayaqları yerə mismarlanmaq; ayaqları yerə yapışmaq (tərpənmədən dayanmaq); ayaqlarına dinclik vermək (oturmaq, uzanmaq); ayaqlarına düşmək; ayaqlarına qapanmaq; ayaqlarına yıxılmaq; ayaqlarını bir başmağa dayamaq; ayaqlarını bir başmağa dirəmək; ayaqlarını dalınca sürümək; ayaqlarını dartmaq; ayaqlarını güclə sürümək; ayaqlarını sürüyə-sürüyə yerimək; ayaqlarını uzatmaq (ölmək); ayaqlarını yerə vurmaq (etiraz bildirəndə); ayaqlarını yorğanına görə uzatmaq; ayaqlarını yuyub, onun suyunu içməyə də razı olmaq; ayaqlarının altını sabunlamaq; ayaqlarının ikisini də bir başmağa dirəmək; ayaqlarının ucunda; ayaqlaşa bilməz; (bir kəslə) ayaqlaşmaq; ayaqüstü; ayaqüstü etmək; ayaqyalın; ayaqyeri qoymaq; ayaqyolu; ayaqyoluna düşmək; ayaqyoluna getmək".

"**Fruits and vegetables**" – "red as a beet; a couch potato; a hot potato; a real peach; as cool as a cucumber; a top banana".

In Azerbaijani there is a great deal of the phraseological units, which one component is fruit or vegetable, for example "Alma öz ağacından uzaq düşməz; Armud vaxtında dəyər, xəstənin könlü tələsər; Armudun yaxşısını meşədə ayı yeyər; xiyar; meyvəsini dərmək; nanə yarpağı kimi əsmək; qarpıza dünmək; pomidor".

"**Animals**" – "sly as a fox; to be a bull in a china shop; to go ape; to be a lucky dog; to play cat and mouse".

In Azerbaijani there is a great deal of the phraseological units, which one component is animal, for example "ayı yuvasına kösöv soxmaq; bülbül kimi ötmək; camış kimi yemək; Canavardan ev iti olmaz, onunki meşəlikdir; dovşanı nallamaq; Dozanqurdunun da balası özünə əzizdir; Donuzdan bir tük də qənimətdir; durna qatarı; eşşəyi qoyub, palanı döymək; fil qulağında yatmaq; ilan ağzından çıxan kimi; itlə pişik kimi yaşamaq; Keçi can hayında, qəssab piy axtarır; Qurd ağacı içindən yeyər; mal tırığı; Sərçəyə cib-cib öyrətməzlər; qu quşunun nəğməsi".

Structural Classification of Phraseological Units.

English phraseological units can function like verbs "to drop a brick; to drop a line; to go halves; to go shares; to travel bodkin", phraseological units functioning like nouns "brains trust, ladies' man", phraseological units functioning like adjectives "high and dry, high and low, ill at ease", phraseological units functioning like adverbs "tooth and nail, onguard; by heart", phraseological units functioning like prepositions "in order to; by virtue of", phraseological units functioning like interjections "Good heavens! Gracious me! Great Scot!".

Azerbaijani phraseological units can function like **nouns** "naxoş, naqqal, nahaq iş"; **adjectives** "naxışı korlayan, pərdəarxası qüvvələr"; **verbs** "pərdə saxlamaq, özünü yeddinci qatında hiss etmək, pənco-pənco vurmaq, nağıl açmaq, pər qatmaq"; **adverbs** "Allaha təvəkkül, Allah tərəfi ..., naqolay vəziyyətdə olmaq, namaz üstə, ...pərdəsi altında"; **interjections** "Qadan alım, Qurban olum, Başına dönüm, Allah, sən saxla!, Allah sənə yar olsun!, Pərvərdigar!, Allah şeytana lənət eləsin!, Allah vursun!, Allah ümüdünə!, Allaha pənah!, Allaha şükür!".

Another structural classification was initiated by ***A.V.Koonin***. He singles out Nominative, Nominative and Nominative-Communicative, Interjective, Communicative phraseological units. Nominative phraseological units are of several types. It depends on the type of dependence.

The first one is phraseological units with constant dependence of the elements, for instance: “the Black Maria; the ace of trumps; a spark in the powder magazine”.

The second type is represented by the phraseological units with the constant variant dependence of the elements, for example: “dead marines/men; a blind pig/tiger; a good/great deal”.

There also exist phraseological units with grammar variants, for example: “Procrustes’ bed = the Procrustean bed = the bed of Procrustes”.

Another type of the Nominative phraseological units is units with quantitative variants. They are formed with the help of the reduction or adding the elements, for examle: “the voice of one crying in the wilderness = a voice crying out in the wilderness = a voice crying in the wilderness = a voice in the wilderness”.

The next type of the Nominative phraseological units is adjectival phraseological units, for instance: “mad as a hatter; swift as thought; as like as two peas; fit as a fiddle”.

The function of the adverbial phraseological units is that of an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances, like “as cool as a cucumber; from one’s cradle to one’s grave; from pillar to post; once in a blue moon”.

Nominative and Nominative-Communicative phraseological units are of several types as well. The first type is verbal phraseological units. Verbal phraseological units refer to this type in such cases:

a) When the verb is not used in the Passive voice, like: “to drink like a fish; to buy a pig in a poke; to close one’s eyes on something”;

b) If the verb is not used in the Active voice, like “to be reduced to a shadow; to be gathered to one’s fathers”. Nominative and Nominative-Communicative phraseological units can have lexical variants, like: “to tread / walk on air; to close / shut books; to draw a red herring across the trail / track; to come to a fine / handsome / nice / pretty pass; to sail close / near to the wind; to crook / lift the elbow / the little finger”.

Grammar variants are also possible, like: “to get into deep water = to get into deep waters; to pay nature’s debt = to pay the debt of nature”. Examples of quantitative variants can also be found: “to cut the Gordian knot = to cut the knot; to lead somebody a dance = to lead somebody a pretty dance”; “человек с мозгами – человек с умом”, “мозги на месте – башка работает – голова на плечах”, “светлая голова – с головой”.

Lexico-grammar variants are also possible: “to close / shut a / the door / doors on / upon / to somebody.

Interjective phraseological units are represented by: “by George! By Jove! Good heavens! Gracious me!”

Communicative phraseological units are represented by proverbs and sayings. For example: “Rome was not built in a day. An apple a day keeps a doctor away. That’s another pair of shoes. More power to your elbow. Carry me out”.

Analyzing the lexico-grammar variants we must mention the synonyms in Phraseology. **Synonymy in phraseology** has been greatly enriched by various processes of the meaning shift, by the influx of foreign words and phrases. Absolute synonyms which have the same meaning and connotation are comparatively rare, like: “over head and ears = up to the neck”; “a pretty kettle of fish = a nice pair of shoes”; “dili ağzında qurumaq – dil-dodağı qurumaq”; “dili ağzına girməmək – dili ağzına sığmamaq”; “gözləri ayaqlarının altını görməmək – gözləri ayaqlarının altını seçməmək”.

Relative synonyms denote different shades of different degrees of common meaning, like: “to come to a conclusion; to jump at a conclusion; to leap at a conclusion” or “быть в полном рассудке / быть в твёрдом рассудке / быть в здравом рассудке / быть в своём уме” or “ağlı başından çıxmaq – ağlı çıxmaq –ağlı başından getmək”.

There is every reason to establish **a stylistic differentiation of synonyms**. The synonyms of a particular phrase are not always interchangeable with that phrase as

their use depends on the linguistic situation, the audience addressed, the speaker's attitude towards the subject. Some of them are stylistically neutral, others have an emotional connotation.

In stylistic synonyms the difference is not so much in the meaning as in the emotional colouring, like: "word of honour" (neutral) – "as I live by bread" (colloquial); "ağlı azmaq" (neutral) – "ağlı başdan çıxarmaq" (colloquial); "to be in high spirits" (neutral) – "to be on high ropes (colloquial)"; "голова варит – котелок варит"; "заснуть вечным сном" (neutral) – "протянуть ноги" (colloquial); "to be in one's right mind" (neutral) – "to be in one's right senses" (colloquial); "gözləri təəccübdən böyümək" (neutral) – "gözləri kəlləsinə çıxmaq" (colloquial); "zəhlə tökən" (neutral) – "kefinə soğan doğrayan (başqasının kefini pozan adam) – a wet blanket (dull or boring person) – кайфоломщик (человек, портящий другим людям настроение) / мозгодёр" (colloquial).

Analyzing the synonyms in Phraseology we must mention in the appropriate form the antonyms. **Antonyms in Phraseology** can be opposed to each other in their concrete meanings, for example: "an old sea wolf – a young calf of a mate"; "ağlı kəsmək – ağlı (bir şey) kəsməmək"; "ağlı başında olmaq – ağlı başında olmamaq"; "все дома – не все дома"; "bağ-bostan vəd etmək – bağ-bostan vəd etməmək"; "kefi saz olmaq – kefi qara olmaq".

The elements of the phraseological units-antonyms are expressed by the same part of speech, for example: "safe and sound – dead and gone; dead from the neck up – as wise as a serpent"; "* тяжёлый случай – лёгкий случай"; "a blind alley – тупик" – "the way out of a situation – выход из положения"; "kefinə soğan doğramaq – kefinə soğan doğramamaq".

It is not investigated yet whether it is possible to use the negative particle not to form an antonym. We can use the negation in to step into somebody's boots but we cannot use it in the expression to take a leaf from somebody's book though it has the same meaning. In the Azerbaijani and Russian languages it is possible to use a

negation in the following examples: “kəkliyi azmaq (artıq yeməkdən gəyirmək) – kəkliyi azmamaq”; “с лёгким сердцем – с нелёгким сердцем”; “kefini açmaq - kefini açmamaq”; “держать хвост пистолетом – не держать хвост пистолетом”; “kürəyindən çıxartmaq (nəyin bahasına olursa olsun qisas almaq) – to pay someone back in his own coin / to repay someone / to return someone (to take revenge on) – платить той же монетой (во чтобы то ни стало отомстить, выместить)” – “kürəyindən çıxartmamaq”; “kürəyini işə vermək – kürəyini işə verməmək (iş görməmək) – to shirk one’s work / to slack one’s work – отлынивать от работы / сочковать (не желать заниматься каким-либо трудом)”; “kürəyini yerə vurmaq – kürəyini yerə vurmamaq” ; “mat qalmaq – mat qalmamaq”; “nəzərə almaq – nəzərə almamaq”; “mat qoymaq – mat qoymamaq”; “yol vermək - yol verməmək”; “yola nərdivan qoymaq – yola nərdivan qoymamaq”.

5. Typology of the idioms in the compared languages.

Difference in terminology as “set-phrases”, “idioms” and “word-equivalents” reflects certain differences in the main criteria used to distinguish types of phraseological units and free word-groups. The term “set phrase” implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

There is a certain divergence of opinion as to the essential features of phraseological units as distinguished from other word-groups and the nature of phrases that can be properly termed “phraseological units”.

The habitual terms “set-phrases”, “idioms”, “word-equivalents” are sometimes treated differently by different linguists. However these terms reflect to certain extend the main debatable points of phraseology which centre in the divergent views concerning the nature and essential features of phraseological units as distinguished from the so-called free word-groups.

The term “set expression” implies that the basic criterion of differentiation is stability of the lexical components and grammatical structure of word-groups.

The term “word-equivalent” stresses not only semantic but also functional inseparability of certain word-groups, their aptness to function in speech as single words.

The term “idioms” generally implies that the essential feature of the linguistic units under consideration is idiomaticity or lack of motivation.

Uriel Weinreich expresses his view that an idiom is a complex phrase, the meaning of which cannot be derived from the meanings of its elements. He developed a more truthful supposition, claiming that an idiom is a subset of a phraseological unit.

Ray Jackendoff and ***Charles Fillmore*** offered a fairly broad definition of the idiom, which, in ***Ch.J.Fillmore***’s words, reads as follows: “…an idiomatic expression or construction is something a language user could fail to know while knowing everything else in the language”.

W.L.Chafe also lists four features of idioms that make them anomalies in the traditional language unit paradigm: non-compositionality, transformational defectiveness, ungrammaticality and frequency asymmetry.

The term “**idiom**”, both in this country and abroad, is mostly applied to phraseological units with completely transferred meanings, that is, to the ones in which the meaning of the whole unit does not correspond to the current meanings of the components.

According to the type of meaning phraseological units may be classified into:

a) Idioms;

b) Semi-idioms;

c) Phraseomatic units.

Idioms are phraseological units with a transferred meaning. They can be completely or partially transferred.

Semi-idioms are phraseological units with two phraseosemantic meanings: terminological and transferred.

Phraseomatic units are not transferred at all. Their meanings are literal.

Other types of phraseological units are also distinguished:

a) Phrases with a unique combination of components;

b) Phrases with a descriptive meaning;

c) Phrases with phraseomatic and bound meaning;

d) Set expressions (clichés);

e) Preposition-noun phrases;

f) Terminological expressions.

Semantic complexity is one of the most essential qualities of phraseological units. It's resulted from the complicated interaction of the component meanings (meaning of prototype, of semantic structure etc.). All these components are organized into a multilevel structure.

Idioms contain all information in compressed form. This quality is typical of idioms, it makes them very capacious units (idiom is a compressed text). An idiom can provide such a bright explanation of an object that can be better than a sentence. We can compare idioms with fables.

Idioms based on cultural components are not motivated, like: the Good Samaritan, Lot's wife, the Troy horse.

Phraseological meaning contains background information. It covers only the most essential features of the object it nominates. It corresponds to the basic concept, to semantic nucleus of the unit. It is the invariant of information conveyed by semantically complicated word combinations and which is not derived from the lexical meanings of the conjoined lexical components.

According to the class the word-combination belongs to, we single out:

a) Idiomatic meaning;

b) Idiophraseomatic meaning;

c) Phraseomatic meaning.

The information conveyed by phraseological units is thoroughly organized and is very complicated. It is characterized by:

1) Multilevel structure;

2) Structure of a field (nucleus + periphery);

3) Block-schema.

It contains 3 macro-components which correspond to a certain type of information they convey:

a) The grammatical block;

b) The phraseological meaning proper;

c) Motivational macro-component (phraseological imagery; the inner form of the phraseological unit; motivation).

Phraseological unit is a non-motivated word-group that cannot be freely made up in speech but is reproduced as a ready made unit.

Reproducibility is regular use of phraseological units in speech as single unchangeable collocations.

Idiomaticity is the quality of phraseological unit, when the meaning of the whole is not deducible from the sum of the meanings of the parts.

Stability of a phraseological unit implies that it exists as a ready-made linguistic unit which does not allow of any variability of its lexical components of grammatical structure.

6. Typology of proverbs and sayings in the compared languages.

A proverb is a short familiar epigrammatic saying expressing popular wisdom, the truth or a moral lesson in a concise and imaginative way. Proverbs have much in common with phraseological units because their lexical components are also constant, their meanings are traditional and mostly figurative and they are introduced into speech ready-made.

That is why some scholars following ***V.V.Vinogradov*** think proverbs must be studied together with phraseological units. Another reason why proverbs must be taken into consideration together with phraseological units is that they often form the basis of phraseological units. A proverb is always a sentence. Very often they are realised in superphrasal units.

Proverbs may have different contents. For instance: “war, fools, lazy-bones”.

War is condemned: War is sweet to them who know it not. War is the sport of kings.

Fools are laughed at: Fools grow without watering. He who is borne a fool is never cured.

Lazy-bones are criticised: Idleness is the root of all evil.

Proverbs teach to be economical: A penny saved is a penny gained. Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves.

Proverbs teach to work hard: He that will eat the kernel must crack the nut. He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. He that would catch fish must not mind getting wet. He would search for pearls must dive below. İş insanın cövhəridir. İş kefdən irəlidir. Business first, pleasure afterwards. Business before pleasure. Work done, have your fun. Work’s done, now for some fun.

Grammatical Structure of Proverbs.

1. Simple affirmative sentences. For instance: Appetite comes with eating. A cat may look at a king. Money makes the mare go. A little pot is soon hot. The voice of one man is the voice of no one. Друзья познаются в беде.

2. Simple negative sentences. You cannot judge a tree by its bark. Plenty is no plague. Hungry bellies have no ears. Нет науки без муки.

3. Compound sentences. God sends meat and the devil sends cooks. Nothing venture, nothing gain. Hope is a good breakfast but a bad supper.

4. Complex sentences. He is lifeless that is faultless. He that lies down with/sleeps with dogs must rise up with fleas. If the things were to be done twice all would be wise. As the fool thinks, so the bell clinks.

5. Imperative sentences. Don't teach your grandmother to suck eggs.; Look before you leap.; Don't cross the bridges before you come to them.; İşin(iz) avand olsun!; Good luck to you!; Every blessing and success attend you!; May all day go round!; Break a leg!; Ни пуха ни пера! (Пожелание удачи).; Elm ağlın çırağıdır. Səndən hərəkət, məndən bərəkət.

6. Interrogative sentences. Can the leopard change his spots?; What can you expect from a hog but a grunt?; Sən hara, bura hara (hardan belə?); What wind has brought someone here?; What bring someone here?; What's blown someone in?; Каким ветром (какими ветрами) занесло?; Axmaq tapmısan?! – Take me for a fool?! – Нашёл дурака?! / Нашёл дуру?!

A.V.Koonin suggests the following classification of English proverbs:

1) Proverbs with the constant dependence of their elements. They are the most wide-spread. Their characteristic feature is that they are monosemantic, for example: A burnt child dreads the fire. A great ship asks deep waters.

2) Proverbs with the constant-variant dependence of their elements. Among them there are proverbs with lexical variants, for example: Every cloud has a / its silver lining. The parson / priest always christen his own child first. Rats desert / forsake / leave a sinking ship.

Grammar variants are represented by the following examples: Constant dropping wears away/will wear away a stone. Small rain lays / will lay great dust.

There are proverbs with quantitative variants:

First catch your hare then cook him = First catch your hare. There is no rose without a thorn = No rose without a thorn.

Some lexico-grammar variants have been registered:

A burden of one's choice is not felt = The burden one likes is cheerfully borne. Do in Rome as the Romans do = When at Rome do as the Romans do. Still waters run deep = Still waters have deep bottoms. There are spots even in the sun = There are spots on the sun.

There are literally thousands of **sayings** in English. Most sayings are effective thanks to their shortness and directness. They use simple, vivid language, often based on everyday domestic situations, making them easy to understand and remember. The term "**saying**" conveys the idea of any expression of wisdom or truth, usually handed down by earlier generations. The origin of a saying is, in most cases, unknown. Many English sayings have come from other languages, and vice versa.

Proverbs like sayings surround us every day. A **saying** is a short, clever expression that usually contains advice or expresses some obvious truth. Many traditional sayings are still in general use today. Most of the sayings are well known in English, though some of them come from other languages.

Proverb is a brief, simple and popular saying, or a phrase that gives advice and effectively embodies a commonplace truth based on practical experience or common sense. A proverb may have an allegorical message behind its odd appearance. The reason of popularity is due to its usage in spoken language as well as in the folk literature.

What is the difference between Saying and Proverb?

A saying is something that has been said, and there are many different types of sayings such as adage, maxim, aphorisms, proverbs, etc. Out of all the sayings, it is proverbs that are believed to be the most popular around the world. Sayings are pithy statements that express a universal value. Proverb is mostly common sense wisdom while saying can be broader to contain maxim and adage too.

So, **all proverbs are** basically **sayings**, but **not all sayings are proverbs**. Main difference between proverb and saying is that proverb expresses common thinking, and saying expresses only thinking of partial character. Sayings may be classified

under a number of different terms, of which proverb is probably the best known. Other types of saying are **adage, maxim, motto, epigram, aphorism** and another.

Sayings are communicative phrasal units of a non-proverbial character.

They can be represented by affirmative sentences: The answer is a lemon. The world is a small place. That is a horse of another colour. All is fish that comes to his net. Часом густо, а часом і пусто. Сорока на хвості принесла.

Interrogative sentences: Do you see any green in my eye? What's the good word? Where do you hail from?

Negative sentences: Не нашого поля ягода.

Imperative sentences: Carry me out! Put that in your pipe and smoke it!

There are some definitions, for example, ***Mantra Amantrais*** a motivating chant, like: "I think I can, I think, I can" you repeat over and over to yourself on the last stretch of every marathon you run. Amantrais usually any repeated word or phrase, but it can also refer more specifically to a word repeated in meditation. Mantra comes from a Sanskrit word meaning a "sacred message or text, charm, spell".

Maxim is a literary device, a simple and memorable line, quote or rule for taking action and leading a good life. Simply put, it is a thought with moralistic values that intends to motivate individuals. Maxim is, in fact, a type of saying or a brief statement of a great thought about life, for example: "He, who hesitates, is lost".

Maxim helps characterizing characters. Writers, politicians, philosophers, artists, sportsmen and individuals use such sentences in their respective fields that they become maxims. These maxims bring a pinch of wit, making statements more appealing to the audience.

A motto is a slogan or favourite saying, like: "When life hands you lemons, make lemonade". It is a favorite saying of sect or political group.

Function of Motto: A motto is something you might see on a t-shirt or bumper sticker – a short sentence or phrase that has meaning for that person. Some mottoes have to do with politics, religion, or another belief. Sometimes people write their

motto on a large banner or sign. President John F.Kennedy's motto was: "Ask not what your country can do for you, but what you can do for your country".

Mottoes are similar to proverbs, slogans. Proverbs play very important roles in different types of literary works. The most important **function of proverbs is to teach and educate the audience**. They often contain an expert advice with a role for educating the readers on what they may face if they would do something. Hence, proverbs play a didactic role, as they play a universal role in teaching wisdom and sagacity to the common people.

Since proverbs are usually metaphorically and indirect; therefore, they allow writers to express their message in a less harsh way. Think of a proverb as a little tidbit of wisdom that just about everyone, no matter where they are from, can offer.

There is a proverb for just about every circumstance, and proverbs can be applied to any situation. English and American proverbs are almost second nature when delivered. The origins are quite often little known, yet the expressions are popular.

Ethnic proverbs, on the other hand, may be a little deeper to digest, and require non-natives of the proverb's country of origin, to think about the meaning in order to better understand how it applies to their lives.

Form or pattern of proverb examples:

1) **Opposite parallel.** The same statement or instruction is given twice, but in opposite ways. For example: "Hatred stirs up trouble". "Love overlooks the wrongs that others do".

2) **Similar parallel.** The same statement or instruction is given twice in similar ways. The same idea is restated in different words. Sometimes, the second line makes the point more strongly than the first line did. For example: "God's people avoid evil ways, and they protect themselves by watching where they go".

3) **Single statement.** Some proverbs are a single statement describing some truth. These are often short, bold statements or simple warnings. For example: “Even fools seem smart when they are quiet”.

4) **Statement with an explanation.** The first line is a concrete image which is then explained by the second line. For example: “An angry ruler is like a roaring lion – make either one angry or you are dead”.

5) **Comparison.** Some proverbs use striking images that compare one thing or person to another. These are called “metaphors”. For example: “A beautiful woman who acts foolishly is like a gold ring on the snout of a pig”. “A ruler who mistreats the poor is like a roaring lion or a bear hunting for food”. “YOU are my life”. “The face of London”. “ The pain of the ocean”. “Card of Baku”.

“The clock had struck, time was bleeding away. England has two eyes, Oxford and Cambridge. They are the two eyes of England, and two intellectual eyes”.

6) **Descriptive list.** Usually three or four answers that follow a statesment based on an unspoken question. There are three or four things I cannot understand. For example: “How eagles fly so high or snakes crawl on rocks, how ships sail the ocean or people fall in love”.

7) **“If ... then” statement and “or ... else” instruction.** The second part explains the consequences of doing or not doing something. The “or ... else” instruction is usually implied but not stated. For example: “It’s better to take hold of a mad dog by the ears than to take part in someone else’s argument”.

We have compared the same proverbs and sayings in three compared languages: English, Russian and Azerbaijani. The meaning or interpretation shown for each saying is believed to be the generally accepted interpretation of the saying, though for some sayings the interpretation may be more subjective than for others.

As we can see, the key words are different. It depends on every country, ways of life, habits, traditions and customs. For instance:

1) Bir gül ilə bahar olmaz. = One swallow does not make a summer. = Одна ласточка весны не делает. / Первая ласточка ещё весны не делает. / Одна ласточка лета не приносит.

2) Bir oxla iki dovşan vurmaq. – Kill two birds with one stone. = Убить двух зайцев. (Одновременно выполнить два дела, добиться осуществления двух целей).

3) Cücəni payızda sayarlar. – Never (don't) count your chickens until (before) they are hatched. / *Cf.* Never cackle till your egg is laid. / Gut no fish till you get them. / Never try a fish till it's caught. / Catch the bear before you sell his skin. / First catch your hare then cook him. / Never spend your money before you have it. / Don't halloo till you are out of the wood. / Praise a fair day at night. = Цыплят по осени считают. / Не считай утят, пока не вылупились.

4) Cürətli şəhər alar, cürətsiz küncdə qalar. – *Lit.* Cities are captured by boldness. / *Cf.* Cheek brings success. / None but the brave deserve the fair. / Fortune favours the bold (the brave). / Nothing venture, nothing win (have). / Nothing sake, nothing draw. / Faint heart never won fair lady. / He that hesitates is lost. / Grasp the nettle and it won't sting you. – Смелость города берёт. / Трус никогда не завоюет сердце благородной дамы. / *Ср.* Риск - благородное дело. (В любом деле побеждают смелые, решительные люди.)

5) Çağırılan yerə ərinmə, çağırılmayan yerə getmə. – An uninvited guest is worse than a Tartar. / Never go there, where you are not invited. / *Cf.* He who comes uncalled, unserved should sit. – На незвано не ходи, на нестлано не ложись. / Незванный гость хуже татарина. / Непрошенный гость хуже татарина. / К обедне ходят по звону, а к обеду (в гости) по зову. / Где любят, там не учащай, где не любят, туда ни по ногу.

6) Çünki oldun dəyirmançı, çağır gəlsin dən, Koroğlu. – You can't back out once you've begun. / You never know what you can do till you try. / *Lit.* If you call yourself a mushroom - into the basket you go. / *Cf.* Once you've put your hand to the

plough, don't look back. / Once you pledge don't hedge. / In for a penny, in for a pound. / Those who play bowls must expect to meet with rubbers. / You can't back out now that you've begun. / In for a penny, in for a pound. / Over shoes, over boots. / If you say the coat fits, you must wear it. / Do or die. / You have to stick to your guns. – Взялся за гуж, не говори, что не гож. / Назвался груздем, полезай в кузов. / Пошёл в кони, так вози и воду. / Взялся стадо пасти, так паси и нашу корову. / Севши в пиру на ряду, не говори, что плясать не могу. / Пошёл в попы, так служи и панихиду. / Явился быть грибком, так полезай в бурачок.

7) İki dovşan dalınca qaçmaq. (Eyni vaxtda iki məqsəd güdmək). – *Lit.* Run after two hares. – Гнаться за двумя зайцами. (Одновременно преследовать две разные цели).

8) İki dovşan dalınca qaçan, heç birini tuta bilməz. – If you run after two hares, you will catch neither. / Dogs that put up many hares kill none. / *Cf.* Grasp all, lose all. / All covet, all lose. – Двух зайцев гонять - ни одного не поймать. / За двумя зайцами погонишься - ни одного не поймаешь.

9) İki eşşəyin arpasını bölə bilmir. – *Lit.* Know no more than pigs know about oranges. / Not know one's arse from one's elbow. / Honey is not for the ass's mouth. / *Cf.* It is not for asses to lick honey. / Not know the first thing about. / Not know chalk from cheese. / Not know bugger all about (smth.). – Понимает как свинья в апельсинах. / Слишком тонкое блюдо для грубого вкуса. / Ни уха, ни рыла не смыслит. / На трёх свиней корму не разделит. / На руке пальцев не сочтёт. / Индюшки от воробья не распознаёт. / От ижицы аза не различит. (Ничего не понимает.)

10) İki qoçun (qoyunun) başı bir qazanda qaynamaz. = *Lit.* Two sheep's heads cannot get in one and the same boiler. / Two heads of sheep are too much for one boiler. / Two dogs over one bone seldom agree. / *Cf.* Two devils cannot live in one and the same marsh (bog). / Two bears don't go in one the same den (lair). / Two cats don't go in one the same bag. = Две бараньи головы в один котёл не лезут. / *Ср.*

Два чёрта в одном болоте не живут. / Два медведя в одной берлоге не улягутся. / Две кошки в одном мешке не улягутся.

11) Könlü balıq istəyən ayağını suya salar. – *Lit.* He who would catch fish must not mind getting wet. / If you like to slide down-hill you've got to pull up your sled. / No cross, no crown. / A cat in gloves catches no mice. / He that will eat the kernel must crack the nut. / He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. / *Cf.* After the feast (dinner) comes the reckoning. / He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. / He that would have eggs must endure the cackling of hens. / He who would eat the nut must first crack the shell. / He who would search for pearls must dive below. / If you dance you must pay the fiddler. / If you can a tune you must pay the piper. – Любишь кататься, люби и саночки возить. / Не рагрызёшь ореха, так не съешь и ядра. / Кто любит мёд, тот заводит пчёл. / Любишь мёд - переноси и пчелиное жало. / Любишь смородину - люби и оскомину. / Любить тепло – в лес за дровами ехать. / Без труда не вытащишь и рыбки из пруда. (Успех даётся трудом.)

12) Qaranquş gəldi-gedərdir, sən sərçənin qədrini bil. – A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. – Одна птица в руках стоит двух в кустах.

13) Qiymətli yük yüngül olar. – Little bodies may have great souls. / A little body often harbours a great soul. / *Cf.* Little pigeons can carry great messages. / Small rain lays great dust. / It is not the quantity that matters, but the quality. – Мал золотник, да золото весят, велик верблюд, да воду возят. / Велик верблюд, да воду возят, мал соболь, да на голове носят. / Мал золотник, да дорог.

14) Qocalıqda yorğalıq eləyir. – A grey beard, but a lusty heart. / No sinner like a hoary sinner. / *Cf.* There is no fool like an old fool (to the old fool). / A curst cur (dog) must be tied short. = Седина в бороду (в голову), а бес в ребро. (О пожилом мужчине, который начинает интересоваться женщинами). / И стара кобыла до соли лакома. / Не к лицу бабке девичьи пляски. / Не к лицу старой кобыле

хвостом вертеть. / Стар кот, а масло любит. / Глядит мышиным жеребчиком. / Годы от соблазна не затулье. / Не к лицу корове телячьи козлы.

15) Qocaya gedən quyruq yeyər, cavana gedən yumruq. – *Lit.* Better live with the wise old, than the stupid young. – За молодым жить весело, за старым хорошо. / Муж стар, жена молодая - дожидайся детей, муж молод, жена стара - дожидайся плетей. / Стар муж, так удушлив; молод, так не сдружлив.

16) qoyun kimi baxmaq – 1. (təəccübdən çaşmış kimi baxmaq) – to stare like a stuck pig / to be amazed / dumbfounded / to be blown away – вытаращить глаза / стоять на ушах / на уши встать (от удивления); 2. (başa düşmədiyinə görə çaşıb qalmaq) – to make a stupid (dull, dense) face – сделать морду ящиком (изобразить недоумение, непонимание)

17) Məhəbbət hər şeyə üstün gələr. – Love will creep where it may not go. – Любовь не знает преград, любовь всё побеждает.

18) Sevgini və kasıblığı gizlətmək çətindir. – * Love and poverty are hard to hide. / * Love and a cough cannot be hid. – Любовь и бедность скрывать трудно. / Любви да кашля не утаишь.

19) Soğan olsun, nağd olsun. – Never quit certainty for hope. / Better an egg today than a hen tomorrow. / A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. / A little is better than none. / Half a loaf is better than no bread. / *Cf.* You can't feed the hungry with words. / A fine cage won't feed the bird. / A fine cage does not fill a bird's belly. / A hungry belly has no ears. / Fine (kind, soft) words butter no parsnips. / It's no use preaching to a hungry man. / Many words will not fill a bushel. – Лучше иметь синицу в руке, чем журавля на небе. / Ближняя соломка лучше дальнего сенца. / *Ср.* Соловья баснями не кормят.

20) Soğan yeməmisən, için niyə göynəyir. – *Cf.* He that commits a fault thinks everyone speaks of it. / An uneasy (guilty) conscience betrays itself (gives itself away). / He that has a great nose thinks everybody is speaking of it. / If the cap fits, wear it. – На воре шапка горит. / Вольно же вам принять это на свой счёт.

21) Tərif halva deyil, ağız şirinlətsin. = Praise is not pudding. = Хвала не пудинг, в рот не положишь. / Одно – похвала на словах, другое -на деле. / Из спасиба шубы не сошьёшь.

22) Tərləməmiş heç nə qazanmaq olmaz. – Nothing to be got without pains. / No pains, no gains. / Nothing venture, nothing have (gain, win). / No sweet without some sweat. / He who would catch fish must not mind getting wet. / No cross, no crown. / A cat in gloves catches no mice. / He that will eat the kernel must crack the nut. / He that would eat the fruit must climb the tree. – Без труда ничего не даётся. / Без труда чести не получишь. / Без труда не вынешь и рыбку из пруда.

23) Təzə bardağın suyu sərin olar. – A new broom sweeps clean. / *Cf.* New lords, new laws. – Новая метла чисто (хлёстко) метёт. / Снова и ложка красна. / Снову метла резко мела, а обилась - притупела. / Снову и гребень дерёт, а причешется - мирится.

24) Toxun acdan xəbəri olmaz. – *Lit.* The full man does not understand the hungry. / It is ill speaking between a full man and a fasting. – Сытый голодного не разумеет.

25) Topal ilə gəzən axsamaq öyrənər. – A man is known as the company he keeps. / *Cf.* He that lies down with dogs must rise up with fleas. / Who keeps company with the wolf will learn to howl. / *Lat.* Qui cum canibus concumbunt cum pulicibus surgent. – *Букв.* С собакой ляжешь, с блохами встанешь. / С кем поведёшься, от того и наберёшься.

As it is seen the most popular proverbs in English, Russian and Azerbaijani there are the proverbs with the images of fish, wolf, dog and so on. Translating of the proverbs of a definite language into non-cognate languages is a very difficult work! First of all, it depends on interpreter's knowledge of the text, not only proverbs and sayings, but any other texts must be carefully looked through, if it is a written text. If it is oral speech, an interpreter has to be very attentive and carefully listen to the speech. There are many cases, when a proverb does not have clear meaning.

That is why an interpreter has to know the peculiarities of the language he / she translates into. If he / she does, there would not be any problems to find the proverb with the same meaning. There is no language without proverbs and sayings. It is the large part of every language, and it is a very interesting work to translate them, because in every language proverbs and sayings have different lexical and grammatical peculiaritites.

7. Culture through proverbs.

Fossil discoveries in South African rocks show that life existed on earth 3,4 billion years ago. Yet man is the only species that talks. He is Homo loquens. There are some pseudo-linguistic theories about how man first acquired speech.

It is well-known that there are thousands of languages and dialects throughout the world. Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature not only as it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users, but also, we must mention that it grows and develops together with the development of society. Language is oral, arbitrary, recurrent and adequate. It is also a non-instinctive method of communication.

Natural human languages are productive in two senses. First, in every human language there is no upper limit to the number of novel sentences that can be created. The capacity of hundreds of thousands of words and complex grammatical rules to generate an infinite number of different sentences should not be surprising. Just consider the possibilities we have for composing new melodies and musical compositions from the few notes of the ordinary musical scale. The second way in which all languages are productive is that the same ideas or thoughts can be expressed in any language. What can be said in English can also be said in German, in French, in Azerbaijani or in Russian. Of course, if a language doesn’t have a word for a particular concept, then several words may be needed to express the concept.

Language is closely connected with thinking though is not identical with it. One can often observe the wrong interpretation of the subjective when the subjective is treated as something distorting the true reflection by man of the surrounding world. Whereas the role of the subjective in the reflection of the surrounding world is great.

A certain amount of the subjective is always present in any reflection and the true understanding of the objective without the elements of the subjective would be impossible. This problem needs a special study and explanation.

As we know using and manipulating coded information can take many different forms. At one extreme is the conscious, idle daydreaming that we all do occasionally. At the other is the creative thought, usually unconscious, of scientists, writers, and artists thought that produces new ideas, inventions, literature, and art. While the complexity and the products of these two kinds of thinking are quite different, they do have something in common with all thought: the manipulation of coded information in memory. The coded information is a symbolic representation of a past experience, of state of the world, or even of an imaginary state of the world. These symbolic representations are the contents of thought. Thus, thinking is the manipulation of symbolic representations. These representations may be verbal, imaginable, or abstract.

For example, one of the form thinking is like talking. If you're planning to go to the beach next weekend, you might talk silently to yourself, listing all the things you need to pack. When the content of thought consists of imagery, then thinking can be like perceiving. For instance, you may have coded the location of objects in your room in terms of visual imagery. If you are then asked whether the door is to the right or left of your bed, you can generate a visual image of the room, inspect it in your mind's eye, and then know the answer.

There is a third kind of coding that is neither verbal nor imaginable. This is the code we use when we think but are not consciously aware of thinking in either words or images. Indeed, when we think in this abstract mode, we are unable to describe

exactly what is going on. All that we are usually aware of is beginning to work on some problem or another, and then suddenly coming up with an idea or a solution. This kind of thinking is the most difficult to study because it is open to introspection or conscious report.

Nevertheless it is an important mode of information processing – perhaps the most important – because it is not limited to a particular form of coding. This language of mind may be the basis for the more concrete manifestations of thought in words and images.

Gordon E., Raymond G. in the book "Ethnologue: Languages of the World" showed that Ethnologies lists 6,912 living languages in the world today.

Languages with over 100 million speakers.

Languages			**Speakers (in millions)**
	1-st language	**2-nd language**	**Total**
Mandarin	**873**	**178**	**1,051**
English	**340**	**168**	**508**
Hindi / Urdu	**242**	**224**	**466**
Arabic (all varities)	**206**	**246**	**452**
Spanish	**322**	**60**	**382**
Russian	**145**	**110**	**255**
Bengali	**171**	**34**	**211**
Portuguese	**177**	**15**	**192**
Indonesian	**23**	**140**	**163**
German	**95**	**28**	**123**
Japanese	**122**	**1**	**123**
French	**65**	**50**	**115**

These languages are spoken by over 4,041,000,000 people, or 61% of the current world population (Gordon, Raymond G., 2005).

It must be mention that the information which people have about their language is their linguistic competence. The information about the situation and about the people involved in the conversation is contextual knowledge. Both linguistic competence and contextual knowledge are necessary for understanding, but they are not enough. People must also know the principles of conversational exchanges. ***H.P. Grice*** was among the first philosophers of language to point out that people who participate in a conversation follow the "Cooperative Principle" (1975). Speakers are assumed to be informative, truthful, relevant, and concise. Listeners assume that speakers do try to be informative, truthful, relevant, and concise. When a speaker seems to violate these maxims of conversation, the listener is led to seek some alternative interpretation. This is known as a conversational implicature.

We are also influenced by the situation in which we receive messages, by our cultural and social relationship with the participants, by what we know and what we assume the sender knows. These factors take us beyond the study of language, in a narrow sense, and force us to look at other areas of inquiry - the mind, the body, society, the physical world - in fact, at everything. There are good arguments for limiting a field of study to make it manageable.

Philosophical grammarians had typically maintained that languages vary little in their deep structures, though there may be wide variability in surface manifestations. Thus there is, in this view, an underlying structure of grammatical relations and categories, and certain aspects of human thought and mentality are essentially invariant across languages, although languages may differ as to whether they express the grammatical relations formally by inflection or word order, for example.

Furthermore, an investigation of their work indicates that the underlying recursive principles that generate deep structure were assumed to be restricted in certain ways. For example, by the condition that new structures are formed only by

the insertion of new "propositional content," new structures those themselves correspond to actual simple sentences, in fixed positions in already formed structures. Similarly, the grammatical transformations that form surface structures through reordering, ellipsis and other formal operations must themselves meet certain fixed general conditions. In short, the theories of philosophical grammar, and the more recent elaborations of these theories, make the assumption that languages will differ very little, despite considerable diversity in superficial realization, when we discover their deeper structures and unearth their fundamental mechanisms and principles.

The issue raised by Whitney against Humboldt and philosophical grammar in general is of great significance with respect to the implications of linguistics for general human psychology. Evidently, these implications can be truly far-reaching only if the rationalist view is essentially correct, in which case the structure of language can truly serve as a "mirror of mind," in both its particular and its universal aspects. It is widely believed that modern anthropology has established the falsity of the assumptions of the rationalist universal grammarians by demonstrating through empirical study that languages may, in fact, exhibit the widest diversity. Whitney's claims regarding the diversity of languages are reiterated throughout the modern period. Martin Joes, for example, is simply expressing the conventional wisdom when he takes the basic conclusion of modern anthropological linguistics to be that languages can differ without limit as to either extent or direction.

I think that if we contemplate the classical problem of psychology, that of accounting for human knowledge, we cannot avoid being struck by the enormous disparity between knowledge and experience, in the case of language, between the generative grammar that expresses the linguistic competence of the native speaker and the meagre and degenerate data on the basis of which he has constructed this grammar for himself. In principle the theory of learning should deal with this problem; but in fact it bypasses the problem, because of the conceptual gap.

The problem cannot even be formulated in any sensible way until we develop the concept of competence, alongside the concepts of learning and behavior, and apply this concept in some domain. The fact is that this concept has so far been extensively developed and applied only in the study of human language. It is only in this domain that we have at least the first steps toward an account of competence, namely the fragmentary generative grammars that have been constructed for particular languages. As the study of language progresses, we can expect with some confidence that these grammars will be extended in scope and depth, although it will hardly come as a surprise if the first proposals are found to be mistaken in fundamental ways.

We also know that the grammars that are in fact constructed vary only slightly among speakers of the same language, despite wide variations not only in intelligence but also in the conditions under which language is acquired.

As participants in a certain culture, we are naturally aware of the great differences in ability to use language, in knowledge of vocabulary, and so on that result from differences in native ability and from differences in conditions of acquisition; we naturally pay much less attention to the similarities and to common knowledge, which we take for granted. But if we manage to establish the requisite psychic distance, if we actually compare the generative grammars that must be postulated for different speakers of the same language, we find that the similarities that we take for granted are quite marked and that the divergences are few and marginal.

What is more, it seems that dialects that are superficially quite remote, even barely intelligible on first contact, share a vast central core of common rules and processes and differ very slightly in underlying structures, which seem to remain invariant through long historical eras. Furthermore, we discover a substantial system of principles that do not vary among languages that are, as far as we know, entirely unrelated.

The central problems in this domain are empirical ones that are, in principle at least, quite straightforward, difficult as they may be to solve in a satisfactory way. We must postulate an innate structure that is rich enough to account for the disparity between experience and knowledge, one that can account for the construction of the empirically justified generative grammars within the given limitations of time and access to data. At the same time, this postulated innate mental structure must not be as rich and restrictive as to exclude certain known languages.

There is, in other words, an upper bound and a lower bound on the degree and exact character of the complexity that can be postulated as innate mental structure. The factual situation is obscure enough to leave room for much difference of opinion over the true nature of this innate mental structure that makes acquisition of language possible. However, there seems to me to be no doubt that this is an empirical issue, one that can be resolved by proceeding along the lines that I have just roughly outlined.

Language is the means of the forming, developing and keeping of the culture. Culture lives and develops in the language. But at the same time the language develops in the culture. So, language and culture are closely interrelated.

People must possess a certain level of global competence to understand the world they live in and how they fit into this world. This level of global competence starts at ground level – the university and its faculty with how they generate and transmit cross-cultural knowledge and information to people. The core of cross-cultural communication is to establish and understand how people from different cultures communicate with each other. Effective communication with people of different cultures is especially challenging.

Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing and interpreting the world. Thus the same words can mean different things to people from various cultures, even when they talk the same language. When the languages are different and translation has to be used to communicate, the potential for misunderstanding

increases. The study of cross-cultural communication is fast becoming a global research area. As a result cultural differences in the study of cross-cultural communication can already be found.

Intercultural learning develops in learners the knowledge for recognising, valuing and responding to linguistic and cultural variability through processes of inferring, comparing, interpreting, discussing and negotiating meaning. Going beyond cross-cultural education, interlectual learning requires not only observation, description, analysis and interpretation of phenomena in the context of human communication and interaction, but also requires active participation in explaining and interpreting. Learning other languages gives the learners insight into the people, culture and traditions of other countries and helps them to understand their own language and culture.

Intercultural dialogue is not a conversation between two cultures, but a close interaction of them. Intercultural dialogue is a process that comprises an open and respectful exchange of interaction between individuals, groups and organizations with different cultural backgrounds or world views. Intercultural dialogue is the communication between the representatives of the various cultures from different countries. In multicultural society several cultures live together and co-exist.

For example, Oxford Brookes University has a student body of approximately 18,000 of whom 17% are international. The University has in recent years made substantial efforts to internationalize its curriculum in order to develop cross-cultural capability and global perspectives amongst its UK and international students. The research shows that the student experience becomes more authentically internationalized because the task invites a more international perspective and the students have to develop strong cross-cultural communication skills and boost intercultural dialogue. English language proficiency is not considered by staff and students to be the only determinant of success in tertiary education (Bressan, E. 2010).

Our Azerbaijan Republic is multicultural as it is the acceptance and encouragement of many cultures in a society. Living in multicultural society has also some advantages. People can get to know many cultures, their lifestyles, traditions, habits, cuisine and music. Experiencing and understanding different cultures is the first part of acceptance.

In a truly multicultural society one can find people of different backgrounds or religions living together and even getting married. In our country you can easily find just married couples from different religions, cultures, nations. And we respect all of them.

Some countries welcome foreign cultures more than other. For instance, in Azerbaijan you can find information written in many different languages, however, in Germany you will mainly find information in German and sometimes in English. Today the USA is obviously a melting pot of different societies. The USA has certainly developed into one big multicultural society as with many cultures, so with various languages.

It is very important to know that cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. I think, as we live in the 21-st century we have to be a cultural awareness in order not to fall in cultural shock when we'll meet the different representatives of various nations.

Cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. Increasing cultural awareness means to see both the positive and negative aspects of cultural differences.

Cultural diversity is a defining feature of human societies, and different approaches to accommodating diversity have sparked heated debates all over Europe. Although the questions framed and discussed specifically as multicultural ones vary across time and place, the notion of culture equality has developed into site of controversy in several countries.

Cultural diversity could be a source of problems, in particular when the organization needs people to think or act in a similar way. Diversity increases the level of complexity and confusion and makes agreement difficult to reach. On the other hand, cultural diversity becomes an advantage when the organization expands its solutions and its sense of identity, and begins to take different approaches to problem solving.

It is interesting to observe that the period of German romanticism was, of course, much preoccupied with the diversity of cultures and with the many rich possibilities for human intellectual development. Thus, ***Wilhelm von Humboldt***, who is now best remembered for his ideas concerning the variety of languages and the association of diverse language structures with divergent world-views, nevertheless held firmly that underlying any human language we will find a system that is universal, that simply expresses man's unique intellectual attributes. For this reason, it was possible for him to maintain the rationalist view that language is not really learned, certainly not taught, but rather develops from within, in an essentially predetermined way, when the appropriate environmental conditions exist.

One cannot really teach a first language, he argued, but can only provide the thread along which it will develop of its own accord, by processes more like maturation than learning. This Platonist element in ***Humboldt***'s thought is a pervasive one. For ***Humboldt***, it was as natural to propose an essentially Platonist theory of learning as it was for Rousseau to found his critique of repressive social institutions on a conception of human freedom that derives from strictly Cartesian assumptions regarding the limitations of mechanical explanation. And in general it seems appropriate to construe both the psychology and the linguistics of the romantic period as in large part a natural outgrowth of rationalist conceptions.

It is the reality that every language has its own beauty and peculiarities. As is generally known, the map of the world has not changed, but the close connection and

the interaction of the languages influenced on the ways of the expression of the borrowings.

When we discuss the mutual influences in the languages and the processes connected with the borrowed words, it is necessary to mention that in our days the native language has borrowed words which are taken from the non-kindred languages. But this process has taken place in different ways. Together with the notion the new borrowed word may have also the other meaning. Mutual influence among the world languages and the borrowings – all these processes has happened very often. So, it gives the reason to analyze all these processes.

It is well-known to the historical-comparative Linguistics that Phonetics, Lexics and Syntax are the most mobile levels of the language. The problem of borrowings in different languages is given special attention because all the borrowings are done by people.

Translation is one of the components of intercultural dialogue. BA and MA programs on translation offer a special course on "Country studies and intercultural dialogue". Written translation gives a broader access to different information sources, thus pursuing intercultural dialogue. Events promoting intercultural dialogue is an essential part of learner's campus life. This is especially important when the higher education becomes more globalized and internationalized.

The students of foreign languages department make celebrations of many religious and national holidays of the country they study, such as Christmas, Halloweens day, etc. In their turn foreign students are active participants of Novruz and other Azerbaijani national holidays celebrations. In this way we demonstrate mutual tolerance and respect to each other's religious and national heritage.

Conferences, round tables, visiting homes of native families, participating in parties and many other similar events also promote intercultural understaning. The role of joint educational projects which AUL has with the universities in Norway,

UK, USA, France, Germany, Israel and India in expanding cross cultural relations should be emphasized.

Creating the atmosphere of tolerance and mutual respect to national identities and valueing them is especially important now, when international terrorism, separatist movements are real dangers to humanity. As ***Hans Köchler*** says: "... there simply exists no alternative to what we call the intercultural dialogue model of education" (2008).

English plays a central role in the globalization and it has become the language of choice for communication between the various peoples of the Earth. Globally it is imposing itself as the language of business, scientific research, aviation and so on.

The ideal which remains within reach would be accept English as a practical tool of communication without ceasing to strive for the maintenance and strength of other languages in symbiosis with their own cultures. English language reflects the creativity of the human race.

Knowing this fact that in our days the English language is one of the most important languages in the process of intercultural communication and as it is not our native language, the role of the translation is greater up today. Needless to say that nation acquires each other's culture through translation literatures and it reflects nations' cultures. Thus, translation has been instrumental in transmitting culture, sometimes under unequal conditions responsible for distorted and biased translations, ever since countries and languages have been in contact with each other.

As it is known, translation as a means of intercultural communication, is a kind of moral, cultural and spiritual wealth and activity of human. It goes back down to ancient history. It played always a significant role in the cultural history of some nations and the world culture on the whole. In our days translation activity obtained unprecedented scope thanks to the increased international contacts. The right choice of the word for a complete transformation of the meaning of the word in the text is one of the complicated objectives in the translation process.

The difficulty of this task is conditioned by the complex nature of the word and its versitile and semantic value. The word as a lexical unit in Azerbaijani and Turkish, English and German, Italian and French, Arabic and Russian languages don't always coincide. Too often one word in the Azerbaijani or Russian may correspond a composite word or a whole word combination of English.

When we speak about culture through proverbs, we must mention that phraseology is a fuzzy part of language. It embraces the conventional rather than the productive or rule-governed side of language, involving various kinds of composite unit and idioms, fixed phrases and collocations. Phraseological units or idioms, as they are called by most western scholars, represent what can probably be described as the most picturesque, colourful and expressive part of the language's vocabulary.

Analyzing the idioms of English, Azerbaijani and Russian peoples, we came to conclusion that their material-moral values are alike. There are several examples illustrated these investigations. For example:

Cut your coat according to your cloth. / Stretch your legs according to your coverlet. / *Cf.* Put your hand no further than your sleeve will reach. – Ayağını yorğanına görə uzat. – Протягивай ножки по одёжке.

Enough is as good as feast. – Xımır-xımır - həmişə. / Kifayət də bərəkətdir. / Bolluğa şıltaq atma. / Az olsun həmişə olsun. – Хорошенького - понемножечку.

Better one-eyed than stone-bind. / Among the blind the one-eyed is king. / In the land of the blind the one-eyed is king. / In the realm of the blind the one-eyed is king. / Half a loaf is better than no bread. / A bit in the morning is better than nothing all day. / There's a small choice in rotten apples. / Any port in a storm. – Qazan olmayan yerdə, güvəc də qazandır. – Лучше кривой, чем слепой. / Кривой - не слепой, меж слепых и кривой зрячий. / На безрыбье и рак - рыба.

On the one hand those proverbs express uncertainty, but on the other hand all express the sober common sense of economy.

The other example:

A bargain is a bargain. / Be slow to promise and quick to perform. / Promise is debt. / If you pledge, don't hedge. / A promise is a promise. – Sözləşmə puldan bahadır. / Söhbət danışıqdan keçər. – Уговор дороже денег. / Если не удержался от обещаний, следует быть верным своему слову.

Be slow to promise and quick to perform. / *Cf.* Promise is debt. / If you pledge, don't hedge. / A promise is a promise. – Söz vermə, verdin - üstündə dur. – Не давши слова - крепись, а давши - держись. / Давши слово, держись, а не давши, крепись.

Deeds no words. / Action speaks louder than words. – Sözlə yox, işlə göstər. – Дела говорят громче, чем слова. (Valiyeva, N.Ch., 2010).

Those proverbs mean that an honest man has to be a man of word.

Many more examples can corroborated the conclusion that different peoples have alike material-moral values. Thus, if we learn not only foreign languages, but also versatile foreign cultures, we can better understand each other and this tendency will come to common understanding and mutual respect between peoples throughout the world.

Lecture 15. Typology of Sentences of Native and Foreign Languages: Simple and Composite Sentences.

Syntax - is one of the main parts of the Grammar of any language. In the 18-th century the English linguist ***James Greenwood*** wrote: “Syntax is that part of grammar which treats of the right placing and joining words in a sentence”.

B.S.Khaimovich and ***B.I.Rogovskaya*** in the book “Theoretical Grammar of the English Language” wrote: “Syntax deals with the structure, classification and combination of sentences”.

L.P.Vinokurova, M.A.Ganshina, N.V.Vasilevskaya and others considered that the sentence is the only object of the investigation of Syntax.

It must be mentioned that there are some scholars, who considered that Syntax must investigate as the sentence, so the word-combination.

So, academician ***V.V.Vinogradov*** wrote about it: “The object of the Syntax as a part of grammar is a searching of the ways of the words combinability in the word-combination and in the sentence”.

B.A.Ilyish in the book “The Structure of Modern English” wrote: “Syntax is the part of grammar which treats of phrases and sentences”.

Summing the above-mentioned, we can speak that there is a great variety of view-points about the object of the investigation of Syntax.

V.D.Arakin in the book “Comparative Typology of the English and Russian languages” wrote also about the word-combination and the sentence as the objects of the investigation of Syntax.

A **word-combination**, as a word, fulfil the same function, it names the subject, the phenomena, the action, the process. A **sentence** is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure confirms 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 classification of simple sentences is based on 2 principles: according to the purpose of the utterance; according to the structure. In both languages there are 3 types of syntactical relations between the components of a phrase in the sentence: adjoining – yanaşma – yaxşı kitab – yalnız sözlərin sırası ilə ifadə olunan sözlər arasındakı əlaqə formasına yanaşma deyilir, (stone wall, high mountains, to sleep soundly, a seat vacant), agreement – uzlaşma – mən…deyəcəyəm – şəxsə görə uzlaşma, döyüşcülər…gəlirlər - kəmiyyət uzlaşması,(one table - five tables, this house – these houses), government – idarə - Gülşən kənddən uzaqlaşdı – burada qrammatik tabeedici ünsür, qrammatik tabe olan ünsürün müəyyən formada olmasını tələb edir, bu halda həmin forma tabeedici ünsürün düşdüyü forma olmamalıdır. Hər iki söz müxtəlif qrammatik formadadır - (meet them, call her, visit us, for us, from them).

In 1959 Academy of Sciences of the Azerbaijan Republic published the book "Azərbaycan dilinin Qrammatikası" - "Qrammar of the Azerbaijan language".

There it was marked that attributive word-combinations developed to compound words (ayyaqqabı, boyunbağı, qəlyanaltı, suiti, bayramqabağı, xəmiraşı, xalaoğlu – təyini söz birləşmələrinin tərkibində olan sözlərin birincisi öz müstəqil vurğusunu itirir, vurğu yalnız ikinci söz üzərində düşür, birinci söz ikinci sözlə birləşərək mürəkkəb bir söz kimi yazılır).

A sentence must have a several features:

1) To express some idea or thought;

2) A certain syntactic structure;

3) A special intonation.

In modern English according to the purpose of the utterance we distinguish 4 kinds of sentences:

1) The declarative – nəqli;

2) The interrogative - sual;

3) The imperative - əmr;

4) The exclamatory - nida.

In Azerbaijani according to the purpose of the utterance we distinguish 3 kinds of sentences:

1) The declarative;

2) The interrogative;

3) The imperative.

If we express some emotions or feelings in 3 these kinds of sentences it may be an exclamatory one.

Some scholars thought that there are four sentence structures: simle; compound; complex; compound-complex.

According to ***N.A.Kobrina*** and ***E.A.Korneyeva*** in the book "An Outline of Modern English Syntax" (1965) gave structural classification of sentences. From the point of view of their structure sentences can be double-nucleus or single-nucleus, complete or incomplete (also called elliptical), simple or composite (compound or complex), the three classifications being based on different grounds.

Double-nucleus and **single-nucleus** sentences are distinguished by the number of the principal parts they contain: the double-nucleus sentence contains two principal parts – the subject and the predicate, while the single-nucleus sentence contains only one principal part.

Complete and **incomplete (elliptical)** sentences are distinguished by the presence or absence of the principal parts typical of the model on which the sentence is built. Thus, a double-nucleus sentence with both principal parts present is complete, while a double-nucleus sentence with one or both principal parts missing is incomplete (elliptical).

According to ***V.L.Kaushanskaya, R.L.Kovner, O.N.Kojevnikova*** as to their structure simple sentences are divided into **two-member** and **one-member** sentences. A two-member sentence has two members – a subject and a predicate. A two-member

sentence may be **complete** or **incomplete**. It is complete when it has a subject and a predicate. It is incomplete when one of the principal parts or both of them are missing, but can be easily understood from the context. Such sentences are called **elliptical**. Simple sentences can be **unextended** and **extended**. A sentence consisting only of the principal parts is called an unextended sentence.

In Azerbaijani according to their structure simple sentences are divided into two-member – cüttərkibli and one-member – təktərkibli sentences. Two-member sentences are divided into the following groups:

1) two-member definite personal sentence – müəyyən şəxsli cümlə (Xanım Süsən …yaşayırdı);

2) two-member infinitive sentence – məsdər (Görmək istəyirəm);

3) two-member unextended sentence – mextəsər (Uşaqlar dinləyirdi, Müəllim söyləyirdi);

4) two-member extended sentence – geniş (Göylər…həyəcanına gülümsəyirdi);

5) two-member complete sentence – bütöv (baş və ikinci dərəcəli üzvlərin hamısı iştirak edən cümlə).

In Azerbaijani one-member sentences are divided into the following groups:

1) One-member definite personal sentences (qoymaram, gedəsən...);

2) Indefinite personal sentences (yazırlar);

3) General personal sentences (nə əkərsən, onu biçərsən);

4) Impersonal sentences (hər yerdə sakitlikdir);

5) Nominative sentences (Qarabağ.Şuşa qalası.);

6) Word sentences (əlbəttə, bəli, çox gözəl, yaxşı);

7) Simple one-member unextended sentences (qaranlıqdır);

8) Simple extended sentences (Ananın qəlbinə toxunmaq olmaz, Ana nəfəsindən çiçək də solmaz);

9) Simple complete sentences (Galan danışmamışam).

In Azerbaijani composite sentences according to its structure are divided into compound and complex. The parts of the composite sentences are connected by means of the conjunctions, conjunctive words, affixes, intonation.

According to its structure the compound sentences are divided into 5 groups:

1) This group consists of simple sentences;

2) Second group consists of one simple and composite sentences;

3) Third group consists of two complex sentences;

4) Fourth group consists of one complex sentence and one compound sentence;

5) Fifth group consists of two compound sentences.

In the composite compound sentence there are 3 kinds of connection:

1) Joining – birləşdirmə - (sequence of tenses, result and consequence, explanation); succession – ardıcıllıq, (consistency); concretezation-konkretləşdirmə;

2) Contradiction-ziddiyyət əlaqəsi, adversative connection;

3) Distribution – bölüşdürmə.

In Azerbaijani the composite complex sentences are divided into 3 groups: analytic type; synthetic type; analytic-synthetic type.

1) In analytic type the subordinate clauses are connected to the main clause by means of the subordinate conjunctions, such as: ki, çünki, ona görə ki, əgər, hərçənd, elə ki, harada ki, güya;

2) In synthetic type the subordinate clauses are connected to the main clause by means of affixes, such as: -da, -də, -sa, -sə;

3) In analytic-synthetic type such sentences have as analytic type’s features, for example: Nə qədər az danışsan, o qədər yaxşıdır.

There are the following kinds of the subordinate clauses in Azerbaijani:

1) The subject clause;

2) The predicative clause;

3) The object clause;

4) The attributive clause;

5) The adverbial clause of manner;

6) The adverbial clause of comparison;

7) The adverbial clause of quantity;

8) The adverbial clause of time;

9) The adverbial clause of place;

10) The adverbial clause of reason or cause;

11) The adverbial clause of purpose;

12) The adverbial clause of result;

13) The adverbial clause of condition;

14) The adverbial clause of concession.

In Russian according to the purpose of the utterance we distinguish 3 kinds of sentences:

1) The declarative;

2) The interrogative;

3) The imperative.

According to ***D.S.Svetlishev, A.A.Bragina, L.V.Solovyeva*** sentences as to their structure can be two-member and one-member, complete and incomplete, extended and unextended.

In Russian according to ***D.E.Rozentalya*** (Modern Russian Language, 1979) one-member sentences divided into several groups:

a) Definitely-personal sentences, like: “Всё стараетесь быть остроумным? Постоим”);

b) Indefinitely-personal sentences, like: “Раньше бы сказали, когда я вернулась домой”;

c) Generally-personal sentences, like: “Ласковым словом и камень растопишь”;

d) Impersonal sentences, like: “Порой светлело, порой становилось похоже на сумерки”;

e) Infinitive sentences, like: “Не усидеть дома в такое время охотнику”;

f) Nominative sentences, like: “Ночь. Весна. Наступило лето”.

In Modern Russian composite sentences are divided into compound and complex.

According to its structure the composite compound sentences may be:

1) united-enumerational – соединительно-перечислительные предложения, like: “В саду было прохладно, птицы вили гнёзда, цвели луга”;

2) disjunctive sentences – разделительные, like: “или, либо, не то…не то, то…то, то ли…то ли”;

3) sentences of result and consequence – следствия и вывода, like: “…поэтому, в противном случае, иначе, а то, или”;

4) comparative sentences – сопоставительные, like: “настолько, если, то, тоже, также”;

5) adversative sentences – противительные, like: “а, да, же, зато, но, однако, только”;

6) connective sentences – присоединительные, like: “да и, кроме того, к тому же, также”;

7) explanational sentences – пояснительные, like: “то есть…, иными словами”.

In modern Russian the composite complex sentences are divided into following groups of the subordinate clauses:

1) The attributive clause;

2) The object clause;

3) The comparatively-object clause (Быстрее орла – Быстрее, чем орёл.);

4) The adverbial clause of degree;

5) The adverbial clause of purpose;

6) The adverbial clause of cause;

7) The adverbial clause of result;

8) The adverbial clause of time;

9) The adverbial clause of comparison;

10) The adverbial clause of concession;

11) The adverbial clause of condition;

12) The adverbial clause of manner;

13) The adverbial clause of degree, measure;

14) The adverbial clause of place.

In Russian asyndetical composite sentences may be:

1) Enumerational - перечислительные;

2) Comparative - сопоставительные;

3) Conditional - обусловленные;

4) Explanational - объяснительные.

Lecture 16. Typology of Sentence - Members of Native and Foreign Languages.

The Syntax is that part of Grammar which deals with the phrase and sentence.The first task of syntactical typology is to study them. Before starting to analyse the sentence typologically we think that it necessary to drop some words on the history of the sentence. The typological investigation of the sentence is connected with ***I.I.Meshaninov***. He was the first scholar to pay attention to the typology of sentence with different morphological structure.

As the result of his investigation he put a new classification of languages based on the type of sentences. Languages were divided by him into: languages with nominative and urgative constructions. He includes all the agglutinative, flective and amorphous languages into the first group. Here belong Turkish, Indo-European and Chinese languages. The second group includes all the Caucasus languages.

The second scholar who paid heed to the sentence is ***V.Skalichika*** – Chezh by nationality. He worked out the classification by ***I.I.Meshaninov*** saying that word-order of inflective languages is free. Whereas it isn't right in Persian languages.

Ch.N.Li and ***S.A.Thompson*** for the first time gave a description of the grammar of Mandarin Chinese, the official spoken language of China and Taiwan, in functional terms, focysing on the role and meanings of word-level and sentence-level structures in actual conversations (1989).

J.H.Greenberg also studied the sentence's typology. As the result, he put forward his own classification of languages. He divided them into three subgroups according to the structure: 1) predicate + subject + object (PSO); 2) subject + predicate + object (SPO); 3) subject + object + predicate (SOP).

According to ***J.H.Greenberg*** English and Russian belong to the group of languages with the model SPO, but Azerbaijani – to languages with SOP. It's common knowledge that the sentence is formed according to the syntactical rules and

indicates a more or less complete thought having its definite grammatical structure and intonation. They are divided according to different principles.

According to the type of communication, they are declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. There exist some differences with English and Azerbaijani sentences.

The first diference lies in the use of the subject in sentences. The subject is a constant member in English even impersonal sentences should have their own subjects with “it”. It’s no mere chance, but is connected with the morphological structure of English where there is no inflexion to indicate the categories of person and member.

As a result, English sentences should have their own subjects. But as the Azerbaijani has rich morphological means for expressing number and person, the sentence needn’t special subject. Ex.: Sabah gedirəm. The suffix “-əm” shows that the speaker is the first person singular. In Azerbaijani impersonal sentences have no subject at all, for example: Saat 5-dir. Soyuqdur. But in English this type of sentence have an obligatory subject, like: It’s cold. This is the main difference between the sentence and the structure of the language.

The second difference is observed in the order of the words in the sentence. First of all, in English every type of the sentence has its syntactical structure. A declarative sentence has the structure “SPO”. An interrogative have “VO…”. An imperative has the structure “P + secondary parts”.

Some exclamatory sentences have the structure of exclamatory word + emphasized word + subject. In Azerbaijani sentences haven’t got their own syntactical structure. A sentence may be declarative or interrogative defined by the intonation. An imperative sentence in Azerbaijani has the model of secondary part + predicate “kitabı götür”. The facts show that English and Azerbaijani sentences are contrary to each other.

As to the composite sentence, here we can also observe differences. Investigating different types of composite sentences, we gain good result. In languages, composite sentences are divided into two groups: compound and complex.

A brief survey shows that there is no great difference between composite sentences in the languages. Compound consists of two or more independent clauses coordinated with each other either syndetically or asyndetically.

In regard to the complex one, it is necessary to notice that there is some lightness. In all of them a complex sentence consists of one principal and one or more subordinate clauses. One can observe some difference between them.

In English complex sentence with adverbial clauses of condition and time may precede the principal clause. In Azerbaijani it is impossible to use adverbial clauses of time and condition after the principal clause.

In modern English there are two types of subjects, the subject which may be expressed by the notional word which have lexical meaning or even a part of a word or morpheme; the second type of the subject may be expressed by the whole phrase or a whole sentence if it is substantivized.

Sentences in which the subject is expressed by a notional word or a phrase – sentence are called personal sentences. The subject may be either personal or impersonal. The personal subject is in the broad sense. Scholar put forward:

1) Personal subject, proper noun;

2) Indefinite, personal pronoun;

3) The demonstrative pronoun;

4) The negative pronoun;

5) The interrogative pronoun.

Speaking about the impersonal subject some think that “it” is the antecepatory subject which precedes the real subject placed after the predicate.

If, on the one hand, no the usual place before the predicate, on the other hand, being divided of the lexical meaning, the real subject will come later.

Some think that by placing the real subject after the predicate it may be more prominent. Some say that the construction with “it” is interchangeable with which the subject is placed before the predicate. Speaking about the predicate scholars divide them into verbal (simple and compound) and nominal ones.

Compound verbal predicates consist of a finite verb and verbal which may be of two kinds:

1) modals, in which the first component is expressed by “can”, “may”;

2) either verbs and phrases with modal meaning “to be able, to have to + infinitive”.

Compound aspective predicate consists of a finite verb – infinitive or gerund. Nominal consists of a link-verb and a predicative. Most scholars point out one more hint of predicate, consisting of a notional verb and predicative.

Speaking about the secondary part of the sentence, scholars deal with the object which completes or restricts the meaning of the action or qualities. Object may be prepositional and non-prepositional.

Non-prepositional objects are connected with the other part of the sentence which refers to without any preposition. It can be of two kinds: direct and indirect. When two non-prepositional objects appear together in a sentence, they are distinguished by their relative places, i.e. by word-order indirect object stands first, for example: I sent him a letter.

Attribute denotes the quality of a person or thing. Attribute can either precede or follow the word it modifies:

1) Pre-positive;

2) Post-positive.

The adverbial modifier modifies a part of sentence expressed by a verb, or a verbal noun, an adjective or an adverb and serves to characterize an action or a property or indicates the way an action is done.

Sometimes it is difficult to find semantical meaning of adverbial modifier. Thus, the phrase with “fear” functions as an adverbial modifier of manner, for example: “She stopped with fear”, of reason, for example: “She shook with fear”.

Such adverbials are closely connected with the semantics of the words and they depend upon them.

Lecture 17. Typology of Word-Order in Native and Foreign Languages.

We've dwelt upon the fact that in modern English syntactical relations of words in the sentence is very rare often indicated by the position of the words. As known, Modern English is characterized by the rigid word-order in accordance with which the subject of the declarative sentence precedes the predicate. This is called direct word-order. Any division from the rigid order of words is termed inversion. ***S.Greenbaum, G.Leech*** and ***J.Svartvik*** in their book "Studies in English" (1980) show two types of inversion:

1) Predicate-subject, for instance: "Down came the rain in torrents";

2) Subject operator inversion, it means operator subject, for instance: "I have never seen him. Never have I seen him. I never saw him so angry. Never did I see him so angry".

Subject-verb inversion is normally limited as follows:

a) The verb phrase consists of a single verb-word;

b) The verb is an intransitive verb of position (be, lie) or a verb of motion (come, go, fall);

c) The point element is an adverbial modifier of place or direction, for example: "Here is the boy. Here comes the bus. Away went the car. Slowly out of its hunger rolled the gigantic aircrafts" in formal literary speech.

The introductory subject "there" can bring about subject-verb inversion with some verb. For example:

1) There rose in his memory visions of a world empire.

2) There may come a time when we are less fortunate.

3) There was held a splendid banquet.

Occasionally subject-verb inversion occurs with the complement as topic when the complement expresses a comparison, for example: "For a long time he refused to

talk to his wife and kept her in ignorance of his troubles. Equally strange was his conduct".

Some linguists take the view according to which the normal order in declarative sentence is "subject + predicate", but the normal order in interrogative sentence is "predicate + subject". According to those scholars there is no inversion in interrogative sentences.

According to ***B.A.Ilyish*** - "for – one thing there is a type of interrogative sentences in which the order predicate + subject" is normal. ***E.A.Lazarevich*** also sustains this view point.

Word order flexibility is an important topic for all theories of syntax. For Azerbaijani and Russian, much of the discussion has been devoted to the so-called "free" word order of sentence constituents, asking to what extent information structure rather than syntax affects word order.

In Azerbaijani grammatical relations between words are mostly expressed by inflections and word-order in Azerbaijani isn't as rigid as in English. However, it would be wrong to say that the Azerbaijani word-order is free. Combined with intonation it serves as a means of indicating the logical centre of the communication.

In Azerbaijani if we pronounce it with rising tone it would be an interrogative sentence. In unemphatic speech the most significant verb tensed to be placed at the end of the sentence. But direct order in English is determined by the rules of Grammar requiring that the subject should be used before the predicate. Often, however, the logical centre doesn't coincide with the subject. It may be any other part of speech, for example: A few MP's demanded cuts in military expenditure to ensure the release of money to pay for trade-union rights.

To choose the right word-order in translation we should find out in what way this sentence is connected with the preceding one. If the sentence is the answer the question "for what did they demand?" the translation will be done in another way. Inversion emphasizes a certain part of the sentence.

The stressed word in Azerbaijani speech may be placed either in the middle or at the end of the sentence, for example: “Money he had none. Never shall I forget this scene”.

Punctuation marks have the greatest role, for example: “To free, not to kill!”

On the whole, the problem of word-order proves to be a highly complex one, requiring care. As far as, we can see different factors have something to do with determining the place of one part of a sentence or another.

It’s scholars’ task to unravel this complex. It’s possible that two factors worked in te same direction and the result can only be one. It’s also possible that different factors work in different directions, one of them have prevail in languages.

Most studies of Russian syntax excluded consideration of information structure. The main hypothesis of this thesis is that there is indeed a correlation between word order and information structure of sentences and those pragmatic considerations are reflected in the syntactic composition of Russian utterances. This correlation between word order and information structure will be investigated using the Role and Reference Grammar (RRG) model, which is based on ***Knud Lambrecht***’s information structure theory (1994) and which presupposes that word order encodes different types of focus and topic.

The classification of word order alterations presented by ***O.A.Krylova*** and ***S.A.Khavronina*** (1986) in order to incorporate information structure into their analysis, demonstrating its importance and, thus, contributing to a fuller understanding of Russian word order is very interesting.

Russian is a Slavic language that displays great flexibility in the ordering of sentence constituents. On account of this fact, it has often been referred to as a “free word order” language, with SVO order of constituents posited as basic but not obligatory. Possible word order alterations have often been considered as stylistic devices in order to change or increase emphasis. However, as it stands, this is too ambiguous to evaluate because changes from the basic word order are not random but

rather occur for various reasons. Moreover, word order alterations in Russian do not produce identical effects and are not limited only to “emotive” or literary discourse, for example: “What happened?” “How is your neck?” - “Что стряслось?” “Как твоя шея?” “Шея моя болит”. - “My neck hurts”.

The above examples are both taken from conversational Russian and belong to the same register of speech. Small capitalization in the first and throughout this thesis represents prosodic prominence. Even though both replies provide essentially similar content, different word orders are used.

Any analysis of Russian grammar should account for such alternatives. One of the first linguists who recognized the relevance of principles underlying the flexibility in word order was ***Vilem Mathesius***, the founder of the Prague school of Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP).

To describe how information is distributed within a sentence ***Vilem Mathesius*** (1929, p.127) divided the parts of an utterance into “theme” and “rheme.” The theme is what “one is talking about, the topic,” and the rheme is “what one says about it, the comment”.

These have also been rendered as a distinction between old/given information and new information respectively. Using the latter interpretation, ***O.A.Krylova*** and ***S.A.Khavronin*** (p.6) pointed out that “with the change in word order the meaning of an utterance changes also; therefore, word order cannot be free.” They stated that word order depends on the communicative function of an utterance and that any change in the communicative function results in the alteration of word order, for example: “I read a very interesting book yesterday”.

O.A.Krylova and ***S.A.Khavronina***’s analysis consists of two main parts: patterns involving subjects and their predicates, i.e. intransitive sentences (main), and patterns involving direct objects, i.e. transitive sentences (object).

According to ***Bernard Comrie*** (1987), word order in Russian is governed by two main principles. “The first is that the topic of the sentence, i.e. what the sentence is

about, comes initially. The second is that the focus of the sentence, i.e. the essential new information communicated by the sentence, comes last".

As compared to the views considered above, ***B.Comrie*** uses the notions of "topic" and "focus" very much like FSP's use of "theme" and "rheme." He also emphasizes that the basic marker of grammatical relations in Russian is the morphology, rather than the word order (p.77-78). Consequently, changing the order of sentence constituents does not affect the distribution of grammatical relations or of semantic roles: topic new information: focus 'Masha loved Sasha.'

Thus, linguists have identified a number of factors, including but not limited to FSP, to determine different sentence structures in Russian.

Natalia Kondrashova (1996) conceives of "free" word order as a result of the specific movement that causes sentence constituents to be placed in special A'-positions at different levels of sentence five structure. This movement, which is also referred to as Scrambling, interacts directly with sentence focus and is motivated by principles relating to the "functional form" (FF) (p.139).

Even though ***N.Kondrashova*** mentions certain motivational principles, the theory of Scrambling focuses primarily on the movement of sentence constituents rather than on the question of motivation itself. It does, however, make valuable observations with regard to the Principle of Economy which "free word order" languages seem to violate.

The syntactic theory which will be used in this paper to analyze word order in Russian is Role and Reference Grammar (RRG), specifically the version described in Van Valin and LaPolla's Syntax: Structure, meaning and function (1997). Van Valin characterizes RRG as a structural-functional theory that treats language as a system with grammar at its core. However, unlike other structural approaches, for instance: Generative Grammar, Van Valin does not consider syntax as autonomous but as motivated by semantic and pragmatic factors.

The goal of RRG is to embrace language as a whole and to represent comparable structures in different languages in comparable ways. In RRG sentences have a layered structure. The layers are at the level of the sentence, the clause, the core, the nucleus with its arguments, and the syntactic categories which realize these units, such as NP's and V's. The sentence level contains one or more clauses.

At the margin of a sentence is the left-detached position (LDP) or the right-detached position (RDP). These positions contain elements, such as ADV's and PP's, which are set off from the clause by a pause or intonation break. The clause level is made up of the core and the periphery.

The core is comprised of the nucleus, i.e. the predicate which is often, but not always, a verb, and its arguments, as determined by semantics of the verb. The periphery contains elements which are not arguments of the predicate but adjuncts. The clausal layer can also contain a pre-core slot (PrCS) and/or a post-core slot (PoCS). These are positions within the clause but outside of the core. For example, in Russian and English WH-questions a WH-NP is an element occurring in a pre-core slot (PrCS), for instance: "Елена вам дала?" – "What did Elena give you?"

The LDP, RDP, PrCS and PoCS positions are considered non-universal aspects of the layered structure of the clause because they are not obligatory in a sentence. The following diagram is an abstract representation the layered structure of the clause (LSC) in RRG.

A specific component of clausal structure is its information structure, i.e. the distribution of information within a sentence. This aspect of RRG reflects the pragmatic motivation of syntax and is incorporated into the theory from Lambrecht (1994). ***K.Lambrecht*** (1994) suggests that the formal structure of sentences is related to the communicative situations in which sentences are used. He states that "this relationship is governed by principles and rules of grammar, in a component called information structure".

The term “information structure” is used to refer to various ways in which information, including propositional information and real-world knowledge, is linguistically encoded. That is, information structure examines how information is encoded, or packaged, in language and why certain structures might be selected to convey a given piece of propositional knowledge. Word order differences, for instance, provide prime examples of information packaging in Russian.

According to ***K.Lambrecht***, propositions undergo pragmatic structuring in accordance with the discourse situations and are then matched with appropriate lexicogrammatical structures. He divides a proposition into “pragmatic presupposition” and “pragmatic assertion.” The pragmatic presupposition is “the set of propositions lexicogrammatically evoked in an utterance which the speaker assumes the hearer already knows of believes or is ready to take for granted at the time the sentence is uttered”.

The pragmatic assertion is “the proposition expressed by a sentence which the hearer is expected to know or take for granted as a result of hearing the sentence uttered”. The focus of the assertion is “the semantic component of a pragmatically structured proposition whereby the assertion differs from the presupposition”.

Thus, the presence of focus makes the proposition into an assertion, i.e. a potential piece of information. An important aspect of ***K.Lambrecht***’s theory is the concept of focus structure that conventionally associates sentence form with focus construal. “The syntactic domain in a sentence which expresses the focus component of a pragmatically structured proposition” is the focus domain. This concept of focus structure is further developed into the concepts of potential and actual focus domain by ***Van Valin*** (1993).

In RRG, the potential focus domain refers to the syntactic domain where focus can possibly occur. The actual focus domain is where the focus is occurring in a given structure (1997, p.212).

This framework provides an alternative to FSP when considering the issue of word order alterations. As in FSP, it incorporates the discourse status of referents into syntactic structure. Pragmatic presupposition is similar to the FSP concept of theme; both rheme and focus are associated with the sentence-final position in unmarked utterances. As with rhematic information, focus is not always restricted to the final position in a sentence and can occur anywhere.

R.D.Van Valin and ***R.J.LaPolla*** point out that a given language may have a specific position, called the unmarked narrow focus position; this is where focal material of the length of a single constituent is usually placed (p.209). When such focal material occurs in other positions, the marked narrow focus structure is evoked. In fact, focus construal is determined by how information is distributed within a sentence.

A crucial difference between Lambrechtian and traditional FSP approaches, however, is that the former treats information as a separate level of linguistic representation. ***K.Lambrecht***'s theory as adopted by ***R.D.Van Valin*** no longer segments propositional information into "old" and "new" parts which are mapped onto syntax. Rather, information is seen as a property of denotata, not of lexical items and/or syntactic constituents.

This method allows RRG to take the problem of "free word order" beyond syntactic linearization of sentence constituents in FSP and rather to explore the relationship between form and function in order to determine how different word orders are motivated in grammar.

R.D.Van Valin is specifically interested in the types of focus and the focus structure, i.e. the association between the pragmatic and syntactic domains in focus construal. Using Lambrechtian paradigms, he determines three focus types: predicate, sentence, and narrow focus.

Languages differ in terms of distribution of their potential focus domain. For example, in English the whole clause constitutes the potential focus domain; thus, any

clause constituent in English can be accentuated. Other languages have a more rigid focus structure, and these languages tend to have freer word order.

On the basis of this observation, ***R.D.Van Valin*** and ***R.J.LaPolla*** make an interesting typological hypothesis – word order and focus structure adapt to each other. If this is true, the phenomenon of word order flexibility in Russian may be adequately explained in terms of focus placement constraints.

To summarize, in RRG syntactic knowledge is stored in the form of constructional templates. These templates render the morphosyntactic, semantic, and pragmatic properties. It is particularly important for this thesis that these templates provide a linking mechanism between syntactic constructions and their pragmatic effects, which is reflected in language by means of specific focus structure.

The framework offered by RRG that incorporates syntax with focus structure will be used in this thesis to examine constructions with various word orders in Russian. The analysis will attempt to elucidate these types of syntactic constructions and to define their pragmatic functions.

Analyzing semantic functions of Russian word order it is noticeable to mention that having discussed the word order in Russian declarative sentences; I would like to point out other issues that affect Russian word order. These issues are related to the expression of such semantic notions as definiteness and approximation.

K.Lambrecht (2000, p.17) observes that in addition to the SV/VS focus distinctions Russian word order displays a semantic phenomenon of definiteness, which has also been noted in reference grammars, for instance: ***Charles Everett Bidwell*** (1969, p.119). Since Russian lacks a morphological category of definiteness, which in English and German, for instance, is expressed by means of definite and indefinite articles, it uses syntactic means to achieve a “definiteness” or “indefiniteness” effect.

One way of marking an NP as indefinite is subject-verb inversion, like: a) “The knife is on the table” in English; b) “Das Messer ist auf dem Tisch” in German. The

findings of information structure theory are consistent with the achievement of this "definiteness" or "indefiniteness" effect. The morphological category of definiteness is an information structure category for expressing "identifiability presuppositions" (***K.Lambrecht***, 2000, p.7). The (b) utterance is a narrow focus construction whose subject is presupposed in the question and is, consequently, identifiable for the addressee. In other words, the sentence expresses a definite referent; (a) is also a narrow focus construction, but in this case the subject constitutes new information and is therefore an indefinite referent.

The non-identifiability, or indefiniteness, of the subject is syntactically marked by the inverted VS word order in (a). Sentence focus constructions, which convey entirely new information and express unidentifiable, or indefinite, referents, similarly employ subject-verb inversion.

Thus, it can be concluded that the VS word order type in Russian is used in presentational environment as a way of marking the subject NP as indefinite or, to express it more precisely, as a way of marking the referent of the subject NP as unidentifiable for the addressee.

Both English and German make use of articles to express definiteness or indefiniteness, certain syntactic constructions in these languages are associated with the attainment of the "definiteness" or "indefiniteness" effect. These constructions are comparable to the Russian VS inversion. For instance, in English the existential thereconstruction serves to express the pragmatic indefiniteness, or non-identifiability, constraint: "There is a knife on the table". In German, it is the structure es gibt that expresses the subject as indefinite: "Es gibt ein Messer auf dem Tisch".

The accessibility of the referent has also been found to determine whether external topics occur in left detachment or right detachment from the clause. In all examples, stress, or pitch prominence, consistently marks focus. The integral combination of all these factors must be examined before one can fully comprehend

what motivates and underlies variable word ordering in Russian and how word order alterations correlate with focus.

Thus, in Russian word order encodes different types of focus: predicate, sentence, and narrow. Predicate focus involves prosodic stress on the verb and frequent omission or pronominalization of the subject. In this, the least-marked, type of focus the canonical and least-marked word order, SVO, prevails. Sentence focus requires stress on the subject, which may occur pre-verbally or post-verbally. The inverted VS word order type is primarily used to present new material in discourse narrative.

Variability of word order in narrow focus constructions relates to presupposition and markedness. When the speaker presupposes that there is an answer, or filler, to the wh-word, focal subjects occur post-verbally, while focal objects are placed in the pre-core slot or immediately pre-verbally.

Utterances, which do not have such a presupposition, yield canonical ordering of sentence constituents: pre-verbal for subjects and post-verbal for objects. The pre-core position correlates very strongly with marked narrow focus, where markedness is a syntactic feature involving departure from the canonical word order to emphasize the constituent in narrow focus and to avoid ambiguity of interpretation.

Alternative word orders do not merely result from “stylistic” changes but are motivated by explicit and specific constraints on focus placement. Thus, word order in Russian is not random, or “free.”

Finally, the accessibility of the referent determines whether external topics occur in the left-detached position or right-detached position in the sentence. When the referent is new information, external topics are in the LDP; when the referent is highly accessible, external topics are placed in the RDP.

To summarize, in sentence focus structure the subject is part of focus and receives a different marking through prosody, word order, and / or morphology. Variable word order in Russian is not “free” but has specific functions in marking the

information structure of the clause. Predicate focus involves a stressed predicate and an optional pre-verbal or post-verbal subject, i.e. the examples yielded both canonical SVO and non-canonical word orders. Sentence focus places stress on the subject and tends to have an SVO order of constituents, except in presentational situations. Narrow focus involves putting prosodic stress on the focal constituent, which may occur in canonical and non-canonical positions.

Lecture 18. Typology of Clauses in the Compared Languages.

Living in a multicultural and multilingul society in a period of sweeping socio-economic changes that allow and encourage unrestricted contacts with the whole world, Azerbaijani people are reasonably experienced language learners. They are therefeore generally enthusiastic about learning, a second or a third one.

The interaction of the various parametres must be discussed in semantic and pragmatic roles, grammatical relations, and morphological cases – by contrasting some of the propertis of clause structure in English, Russian and Azerbaijani.

We take into consideration that 28 language families are distinguished in the world. The largest language family is **Indo-European**. 2,6 milliard (*Amer.* billion) people (45% of the world's population) use the languages of this family. It includes 11 major groups, such as: **Anatolian, Balkan** (including Albanian), **Baltic, Celtic, German, Hellenic** (including Greek), **Indo-Iranian, Italic** (including Romance), **Romance, Slavic, Tocharian** language groups, comprising 449 languages.

Indo-European language family has the greatest number of speakers of all language families as well as the widest dispersion around the world.

Although English and Russian languages are genetically related within the Indo-European language family, they differ considerably from one another in terms of this interaction, and therefre the contrast between them does serve to illustrate two radically different solutions to the problem of integrating all of these parameters, i.e. we are contrasting two radically different types along this parameter.

The second largest language family is **Turkic language family**, which consists of about 32 languages. It must be said that up-today the classification of Turkic languages remains controversial. In different sources one can meet various classifications. The Azerbaijani language belongs to **Turkic language family, Oghuz group, Oghuz-Saldjuk subgroup** together with Turkish, Turkmen and Gagauz.

Being a world language or lingua franca, English takes up the leading position in the case of second language acquisition (SLA) leaving German, French and Spanish behind. These languages are generally regarded to be the second choice making thus the learner trilingual. In fact, acquiring a new language is determined by the learner's previous language experience, i.e. NL (National Language) > FL (Foreign Language)1 > FL (Foreign Language) 2 >...

A naturally-occurring cross-linguistic interference may have negative as well as positive effects that should be thoroughly studied.

The aim is to analyze the grammatical systems of the three languages in contact: Azerbaijani as a native language (NL), English as a second language (FL1) and Russian as a third language (FL2).

Finding out differences and similarities between the languages is supposed to become productive in building up the learner's skills and abilities in third language acquisition. Certain linguistic reasons can be given to prove this idea.

As English – a Germanic language – is closely related to German, there are many similarities between the two languages in phonology, vocabulary and syntax. As regards their grammatical systems, there are the same 'part of speech' categories, for instance, singular and plural forms, definite and indefinite articles, regular and irregular verbs, auxiliary and modal verbs, and active and passive verbal structures. For instance, German is a highly inflected language, in which words change their form (especially their endings) according to their grammatical function. The lack of any systematic inflectional system in English often leads to a feeling that English has "no grammar".

Belonging to Slavonic languages, Russian has a fundamentally different grammatical system. Although it has the same grammar categories, Russian is a synthetic language, in which the majority of grammatical forms are created through changes in the structure of words, by means of a developed system of prefixes, suffixes and inflectional endings which indicate declension, conjugation, person,

number, gender and tense. English, on the other hand, is an analytic language, in which grammatical meaning is largely expressed through the use of additional words and by changes in word order.

With such basic differences between the grammatical systems of Azerbaijani, Russian and English it is inevitable that there will be certain major difficulties for a Russian learning English. On the other hand, the close family relationship between English and German should make up the linguistic foundation which will support to raise the learner's awareness in the target language.

In the compared languages there is a very high correlation between grammatical relations and word order, indeed word order is the basic carrier of grammatical relations, especially of subject and direct object, as can be seen by comparing the following sentences: "John hit Mary" or "Mary hit John"; "Дима ударил Дашу" or "Даша ударила Диму"; "Vüqar vurdu İradəni" or "İradə vurdu Vüqarı".

The position before the verb is reserved for the subject, while the position after the verb is reserved for the direct object. Even in the corresponding questions, with subject-auxiliary inversion, it is still the case that the subject precedes the main verb, as in "Did John hit Mary?" and "Did Mary hit John?"; "Дима ударил Дашу?" or "Даша ударила Диму?"; "Vüqar vurdu İradəni?" or "İradə vurdu Vüqarı?". So, changing the word order, changes the grammatical relations, and ultimately the meaning of the sentence.

From the pair of examples just given, one might imagine that an alternative statement could be given, namely that the word order is determined by semantic roles, with the agent preceding the verb and the patient following. However, further data serve to show that this alternative is incorrect, and that in English is precisely grammatical relations and word order that correlate.

There are four basic types of main clause: declaratives (statements), interrogatives (questions), imperatives (orders / instructions) and exclamatives (used for exclamations).

In the examples below, x is any other element in the clause (for exampe: object, predicative complement).

Declarative clauses most commonly function as statements. The usual word order is subject (s) + verb (v) + x. Declaratives can be affirmative or negative. They make statements about how things are and how they are not.

Affirmative	Negative
[S][V] I saw [X] them last week.	[S] I [V] didn't see [X] them last week.
[S] Some courses [V] begin [X] in February.	[S]Some courses [V] don't begin [X] until March.

Sometimes we use declaratives as questions or requests, for instance:

Those are the only ticket left? (Question)

Yes, just those two.

You could pass me the spoon. That would be helpful. (Request)

This one?

Interrogative clauses most commonly function as questions. The usual word order is (*wh*-word) + auxiliary / modal verb (aux / m) + subject + verb + x, like:

What [AUX] [S] are you [V] doing?

[AUX] Does [S] she [V] play [X] tennis well?

[M] Can [S] [V] I come [X] with you?

Interrogative clauses can be affirmative or negative.

Affirmative	Negative
Are there any blue ones?	Aren't there any blue ones?
Why did he tell me?	Why didn't he tell me?

Imperative clauses most commonly function as commands, instructions or orders. The usual word order is verb + x. We do not usually include the subject in an imperative clause. We use the base form of the verb, for example: “Come on. Hurry up! Leave me alone! Let’s go. Put it in the microwave for two minutes”.

Imperative clauses can be affirmative or negative. We make negative imperatives with auxiliary verb “do + not”. The contracted form “don’t” is very common in speaking:

Affirmative	**Negative**
Go!	Don’t go!
Leave the door open.	Don’t leave the door open.
Be happy.	Don’t be sad.

We use “do not” in more formal contexts, for example, instructions on a jar of coffee. For instance: “Do not make coffee with boioling water”.

We can use the short form “don’t” as an imperative answer, or as a reaction to something, like: “Shall I open the window? No, don’t. I’m freezing. (No, don’t open the window.)”

Imperatives with subject pronoun. Sometimes we use “you” (subject pronoun) with an imperative clause to make a command stronger or to strengthen a contrast. It can sometimes sound impolite, like: “Don’t you ever read my letters again” (talking about washing up dishes). You wash, I’ll dry.

In informal speaking, we can use an indefinite subject, for instance: “someone, somebody, no one, nobody, everyone, everybody” with an imperative, like: “No one move. Everyone stay still.”

Invitations. We often use an imperative to make an offer or invitation, like: “Have some more cake. There’s plenty there.”

Imperatives with "do". We sometimes use "do" for emphasis in an imperative clause, especially if we want to be very polite, like: "Do sit down, please."

Imperatives with "let". In speaking we usually use "let's" for first person plural imperatives "us" to make a suggestion. In more formal situations we use "let us": "Let's go and eat". "Now, let us all get some sleep" (more formal). For the third person imperatives "him, her, it, them" we form an imperative clause with "let": "Mr. Thomas is here to see you. Shall I send him in? Let him wait. I'm busy."

Exclamative clauses usually have one of the following word orders, like:

a) "What" + noun + subject + verb;

b) "How" + adjective or adverb + subject + verb;

c) Auxiliary or modal verb + subject + verb, i.e. interrogative word order.

We use exclamative clauses most commonly to express surprise or shock. In writing we use an exclamation mark, like: "What a lovely sister you are! How beautiful that house was! Wasn't she great! Didn't he sing well?!"

Now let's analyze this table by means of a word-for-word translation of certain clauses of the following Azerbaijani sentence, first, into English, then into Russian:

Azerbaijani	English	Russian
1. Bilirsinizmi ki, ...	1. Know you, that...	1. Знаете ли вы, что ...
2. Adi rus əlifbasını götürərək və hərfləri müvafiq olaraq düzərək ...	2. Taking ordinary Russian alphabet and disposing letters definite way	2. Взяв обыкновенный русский алфавит и расположив буквы определённым образом, ...
3. İcazə var həm namizədlik (fəlsəfə doktorluq), həm də doktorluq (elmlər doltorluq) dissertasiyaları əldə edək?	3. Can receive not only candidate, but and doctor dissertation?	3. Можно получить не только кандидатскую, но и докторскую диссертацию?

It is clearly seen that variants differ only in the choice of words organized into clauses according to the rules of English and Russian grammar. To make some sense and get the correct translation we have to take into account certain grammar peculiarities of each language treated in the table above. Let's comment on them:

1) "Did you know that ...." (The auxiliary verb "did"; no coma before that-clause; the preposition by used more widely; gerund in the function of an adverbial modifier of manner; no inversion in word order; no "frame construction"; no coma in the conjunction not only ...);

2) "By using the ordinary Russian alphabet and placing the letters in a certain way..." (Inversion in the question; the auxiliary verb "did"; no coma before that-clause; the preposition by used more widely; gerund in the function of an adverbial modifier of manner; no inversion in word order; no "frame construction");

3) "You can obtain not only an MA thesis but even a doctoral one?" (No coma in the conjunction not only ... but; the pronoun one used instead of thesis).

Indeed, the comparative analysis of corresponding grammar categories has helped us to find certain features of coincidence or difference between the languages in contact. For these reasons, it is strongly believed to be a powerful tool for developing language awareness skills and is sure to make the third language acquisition more effective and varied.

Lecture 19. Some Problems of Semantic-Structural Features of Complex Sentences in English and Azerbaijani.

It is known that the syntactic analysis of long and complicated sentences is more difficult than the analysis of short sentences. A parsing success depends among other things also on the length of the input sentence. The idea of cascaded parsing described in some works is also used for the simplifying the translation process.

The advantage of working with a cascade of specialized parsers instead of one very complex general parser is quite obvious – the complexity of the task is substantially reduced and the parsing process is speeded up.

The syntactic analyzer of Azerbaijani developed within the frame of this MT system is considered for syntactic analysis of simple sentences. In order to translate the composite sentence (the complex and compound sentences are meant), firstly the composite sentence should be divided into simple sentences that compose this sentence.

Hereinafter, dividing the complex sentence into the principal and subordinate clauses will also be referred as dividing the complex sentence into simple sentences. Then these simple sentences should be syntactically analyzed and after translating each simple sentence separately the translation of the composite sentence must be synthesized.

Such approach helps to perform more qualitative syntactic analysis and consequently the translation quality considerably improves. While dividing the composite sentence into the simple sentences it is necessary to answer three questions:

1) How to divide the composite sentence formally into simple sentences,

2) Is it possible to get the translation of a given composite sentence by dividing this sentence into the simple ones, translating the received simple sentences separately and “merging” these translations into one composite sentence?

3) Can there be any misinterpretation in the sentence after this process?

To answer these questions let's consider the types of composite sentences in Azerbaijani and their origin features. Hereinafter, Azerbaijani will be referred as the source and English as the target language.

In Azerbaijani (like in other languages) the composite sentences are divided into two groups according to peculiarities of their formation:

1) Compound sentences;

2) Complex sentences.

Compound sentences are formed by connecting two or more simple sentences with comma or with coordinating conjuctions ("və" – "and", "amma, ancaq, lakin" – "but", etc.). In this case each simple sentence composing the compound sentence has a predicate.

For example. "Buludlar səmanı bürüdü, hava soyudu və qar yağmağa başladı" – "The clouds covered the sky, it became cold and it began to snow".

In this sentence the simple sentence – "Buludlar səmanı bürüdü" – "The clouds covered the sky" is connected to the simple sentence – "hava soyudu" – "it became cold" with a comma and to the simple sentence – "qar yağmağa başladı" - "it began to snow" with conjunction "və" – "and". Each of these sentences has their own independent predicate "bürüdü", "soyudu" and "başladı".

In complex sentences one of the simple sentences is the main (principal) and the other one is of second importance (subordinate). The subordinate clause explains the principal clause from different points of view. The complex sentences in turn are conditionally divided into two types in Azerbaijani:

1) Analytic type;

2) Synthetic type.

In analytic type of complex sentences the subordination of the subordinate clause to the principal clause is not so strong. That's why the subordinate and principal clauses composing these kinds of complex sentences can be used as the independent sentences, in other words, each of them has a predicate. These sentences are

connected to each other with subordinating conjunctions “ki” – “that”, “çünki” – “because”, etc.

For example: “Mən evdən çıxmaq istəyirdim ki, dostum bizə gəldi” – “I just wanted to leave home when my friend came to us”. In this sentence both of simple sentences – “Mən evdən çıxmaq istəyirdim” - “I just wanted to leave home” and “Dostum bizə gəldi” – “my friend came to us” – has its own predicate (the word-forms “istəyirdim” and “gəldi”) and this criterion can be used in dividing the sentence into simple sentences.

In synthetic type of complex sentences the subordinate clause can not be used separately as a simple sentence because the subordinate clause doesn’t have a predicate. As an example we consider the case when the subordinate clause is connected to the principal clause by particle-suffixes “-sa” or “-sə”. Other variants can be considered analogically.

For example: “Kim çempion olmaq istəyirsə, o, yorulmadan məşq etməlidir” – “If somebody wants to be a champion, he has to train tirelessly”. In this complex sentence even though the subordinate clause “Kim çempion olmaq istəyirsə” doesn’t have a predicate the obvious criterion that connects this sentence to the principal sentence is the word-form istəyirsə.

The particle-suffix “-sə” of this word-form “istəyir-sə” connects the subordinate clause to the principal clause (if we ignore this suffix, the word-form “istəyir” becomes the predicate of the subordinate clause) and it allows dividing this complex sentence into simple sentences: “Kim çempion olmaq istəyir” – “Somebody wants to be a champion”; “O, yorulmadan məşq etməlidir” – “He has to train tirelessly”.

In this example we will also call a predicate the word-forms that adopt the particle-suffix “-sa” or “-sə” connecting the subordinate clause to the principal clause because such word-forms are not encountered in any other situation.

Thus, we come to a conclusion that it is possible to divide both complex and compound sentences into simple sentences in Azerbaijani.

As mentioned above there is a word-form considered as a predicate in each simple sentence composing the composite sentence according to which the simple sentences can be defined? Furthermore, as mentioned above there can also be the separators such as comma and / “or” conjunction between the simple sentences. But one additional reason - the word order should be taken into consideration for application of these criteria.

In Azerbaijani, like in all Turkic languages, the word order in the sentence is free from the standpoint of location of the sentence members. For example, if we change the word order in the following sentence – “Mən universitetə’ gedirəm” – “I go tothe University) – all new sentences received (the number of such sentences is 6) will express the same meaning. In the process of formal syntactic analysis of the composite sentences the independence of word order can result in serious difficulties.

For instance: “Böyük gəmilər okeanda üzə bilir, katerlər, qayıqlar isə sahildən çox uzağa gedə bilmirlər” – “Big ships can sail in the ocean, but launches, boats cannot go far-away from the shore”. This sentence can be divided into two simple sentences according to the predicate “bilir” and the comma given after this predicate. But if the word order in this sentence is like – “Okeanda üzə bilir böyük gəmilər, katerlər, qayıqlar isə sahildən çox uzağa gedə bilmirlər”, it’s very difficult to divide it formally into simple sentences as the predicate of the first simple sentence “bilir” doesn’t stand in the end of the sentence.

However, if we don’t take into consideration the literary texts (particularly the poems), in real texts the predicate of the sentence usually comes in the end and the subject+object+predicate (SOV) topology is observed.

Hereinafter, we are going to consider only the composite sentences relevant to this topology. Thus, the results obtained allow us to assume that the following conditions are met while dividing the composite sentence into simple sentences in Azerbaijani:

1) In simple sentence the predicate (in the subordinate clause the word-forms like predicate) comes in the end;

2) The simple sentences are connected to each other with special separators (comma “and” / “or” conjunctions);

3) These separators certainly follow the predicates of the simple sentences composing the composite sentence.

By using these three “axioms” most composite sentences can be divided into simple sentences. Now let’s view how this process is implemented by computer (formally). The predicate in Azerbaijani is formed with the help of special predicate suffixes. These suffixes can be both simple (atomic) and compound (hereinafter, the compound suffix will be also referred as a suffix).

According to these suffixes the predicate of the sentence can be defined. The determination of the word-form that adopted predicate suffix in the sentence in Azerbaijani is equal to determination of the predicate itself.

Some of the predicate suffixes are shown below:

“-acaq, -əcək,-yacaq, -yəcək, -acağ, -əcəy; -yacağ, -yəcəy;

-dı, -di, -du, -dü; -dır, -dir, -dur, -dür;

-ır, -ir, -ur, -ür; -yır, -yir,-yur, -yür;

-ır-dı, -ir-di, -ur -du, -ür-dü;

-yır -dı, -yir-di, -yur-du, -yür-dü;

-ır-dı-m, -ir-di-m, -ur-du-m, -ür-dü-m;

-yır-dı-m, -yir-di-m, -yur-du-m, -yür-dü-m;

-ır-ıq, -ir-ik, -ur-uq, -ür-ük;

-yır-ıq, -yir-ik, -yur-uq, -yür-ük;

-ır-sa, -ir-sə, -ur-sa, -ür-sə;

-yır-sa, -yir-sə, -yur-sa, -yür-sə;

-malı-dır, -məli-dir;

-m-ır-lar, -m-ir-lər, -m-ur-lar, -m-ür-lər”.

As it is shown, there are various spelling variants of suffixes of the same function in Azerbaijani. If we add one of these suffixes to the end of any Azerbaijani verb stem we get the word-form which acts as the predicate in sentence (“at-ır” – “he throws”, “ged-ir” – “he goes”, “otur-ur” – “he sits”, “gül-ür” – “he laughs”, etc.

Since all active predicate suffixes are known it is possible to define all predicate words. Thus, verbal predicate, for instance: “oxu-yur – he / she / it studies”; “başla-dı – he / she / it began”; nominal predicate: “kitab-dır” – “(it) is a book”; “qırmızıdır” – “(it) is red”.

Lecture 20. Main Levels and Processes of the Development of Native and Foreign Languages.

There is no tendency in the world languages to create extremely complex language. All languages of the world tend to create a relatively non-complex, but sufficient for the needs of linguistic communication system.

No scholar in the world knows the exact number of the languages. The book "Linguistics and Guide of Language Intercourse", which was published in Germany, shows that there are 5651 (five thousand six hundred and fifty-one) languages in the world. But some sources note that there are approximately 3000 languages. It should be noted that 1400 (one thousand four hundred) languages could have got their independence. Paying attention to the quality of the languages we'd like to concentrate our view points to the aim of different languages, process and levels of their development.

On the one hand, it's connected with their development process, but on the other hand, it's connected with its starting. The question arises – which languages should be said independent? There are some languages in the world which quietly differ from their dialects. Compare: Beiging and Shankay - dialects of China. Certainly, the population of these two dialects doesn't understand each other. All these bear testimony that everything will be vague until all the languages are studied profoundly.

During intercultural communication we feel the necessity to give special attention to the ways coming to multiculturalism as all these processes are done by people. It would be a mistake to think that everything in language is intended for the expression of the picture of the world. There are lots of processes in language which have no direct relation to the immediate expression of the picture of the world.

There are processes connected with the tendency to the economy of the physiological expenditure, with the tendency to the improving and perfection of linguistic means of expression, to the restoring the means indispensable for communication and so on. All these processes are described below.

It is necessary to mention the great role of internet nowadays. “The internet is not what we are fighting for, it is the tool we have to use to fight with” – said Doctorow. Doctorow is a special advisor to the Electronic Fronter Foundation, a non-profit civil liberties group that defends freedom in technology law, policy, standards and treaties. He compared today’s political stronghold on the internet has turned from its original democratic roots into a “constitutional monarchy” in which only a couple of US tech giants run the game.

It’s a dangerous development that Doctorow called “totally incompatible with capitalism”, as it rules out the possibility to complete for smaller companies and startups.

Language development is a process starting early in human life. Infants start without knowing a language, yet by 10 months, babies can distinguish speech sounds and engage in babbling. Some research has shown that the earliest learning begins in utero when the fetus starts to recognize the sounds and speech patterns of its mother's voice and differentiate them from other sounds after birth (***Graven, Stanley N.***; MD; ***Browne, Joy V.***, 2008).

Typically, children develop receptive language abilities before their verbal or expressive language develops (***Guess, D.***, 1969). Receptive language is the internal processing and understanding of language. As receptive language continues to increase, expressive language begins to slowly develop.

Usually, productive language is considered to begin with a stage of pre-verbal communication in which infants us gestures and vocalizations to make their intents known to others. According to a general principle of development, new forms then take over old functions, so that children learn words to express the same communicative functions they had already expressed by proverbial means (***Kennison, S. M.***, 2013).

It is necessary to notice that, traditionally, **foreign language teaching** has divided discourse into two major categories, the spoken and the written, further

divided into the four skills of speaking and listening, writing and reading. Many courses try to provide a balanced coverage.

When we speak about sentence study in language teaching and linguistics, it is important to mention that in defense of concentrating on the sentence, different teachers and learners give different answers.

Teachers of mother tongue students might argue that their students already have oral and communicative skills, that what they need is to learn and demonstrate literacy that putting full stops in the right place and writing grammatical sentences is a sign of this literacy. They might also point out that these skills, rightly or wrongly, are demanded by examination boards, and are often considered a sign of acceptable language behavior by the world at large.

Foreign language teachers might say that their students already know how to communicate and interact in their own language; what they need in the foreign language are formal skills and knowledge – pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar which will provide the basis for communicating and interacting. Exercises, whether for translation or other kinds of manipulation, can be neatly presented in sentences, with a tick or a mark for each one, and this way everybody knows where they are going, how far they have come in developing the necessary formal basis. Given practice and exposure, it is argued, and maybe a trip to the country where the language is spoken, the rest will follow of its own accord.

It is sometimes argued that even if the sentences analyzed in linguistics are abstractions, which sometimes sound very odd, they are still the best material for language study, because they isolate it from its context.

Furthermore, it is said, as native speakers of a language seem able to recognize correct and incorrect sentences, the idea of there being language rules exemplified in such sentences does seem to correspond to some kind of reality, even if people don't always speak according to these abstracted rules. Some might go further and add that, contrary to popular and some scholarly belief, people do, in any case, usually speak in

well-formed sentences. It might also be argued that the treatment of language in terms of sentences has been quite successful in revealing how language works, that within the sentence we can establish rules and constraints concerning what is and is not allowed, whereas beyond the sentence, such rules seem either to disintegrate or turn into rules of a different kind social rules or psychological rules, which are not within the area of linguistic study at all.

So, linguists too tend to come up with grammatically correct. All these arguments, from people involved in different ways in the study of language, have weight, and should not be ridiculed or dismissed out of hand, as has become rather fashionable in some language teaching circles.

There are types of language use which demand the ability to formulate grammatical, correctly bounded sentences, and being able to exploit the formal sentence grammar is one of the most important elements in being able to communicate in a language.

Yet if we are going to approach language as isolated artificially constructed sentences, even if only occasionally and for limited purposes, we do need to make a case for this, and just do it because that is the tradition: in mother tongue classroom, for the foreign language learner, or in linguistics.

We should also recognize that there is more to producing and understanding meaningful language to communicating that knowing how to make or recognize correct sentences. We can describe the two ways of approaching language as contextual, referring to facts outside language, and formal, referring to facts inside language.

A way of understanding this difference may be to think of formal features as in some way built up our minds from the black marks which form writing on the page, or from the speech sounds picked up by our ears, while contextual features are somewhere outside this physical realization of the language in the world, or pre-

existing in the minds of the participants. Stretches of language treated only formally are referred to as text.

Now although it is true that we need to consider contextual factors to explain what it is that creates a feeling of unity in stretches of language of more than one sentence, we cannot say that there are no formal links between sentences in discourse.

There are some, although language teaching and mainstream linguistics has traditionally concentrated only upon those formal features which operate within sentences, discourse analysis may suggest ways of directing teachers' and students' attention to formal features which operate across sentences as well. Formal links between sentences and between clauses are known as cohesive devices.

Another link within discourse is affected by parallelism, a device which suggests a connection, simply because the form of one sentence or clause repeats the form of another. This is often used in speeches, prayers, poetry, and advertisements. It can have a powerful emotional effect.

Referring words are the words whose meaning can only be discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context which are clear to both sender and receiver. The most obvious example of them is third person pronouns as "she – her – herself". Repetition of words can create the same sort of chains as pronouns, and there are sometimes good reasons for preferring it.

In Britain, mother tongue learners of English are discouraged from using repetition on the grounds that it is "bad style" and encouraged to use a device known as "elegant repetition", where synonymous or more general words or phrases are used.

The kind of link we choose will depend upon the kind of discourse we are seeking to create, and elegant repetition is not always desirable. It may sound pretentious in casual conversation or create dangerous ambiguity in legal document. As teachers, we need to sensitize students to the interplay of discourse type and choice between referring expressions, repetition and elegant repetition.

The other type of formal relation between sentences is provided by those words and phrases which explicitly draw attention to the type of relationship which exists between one sentence or clause and another. These are conjunctions. These words may simply add more information to what has already been said or elaborate or exemplify it.

As teachers, we should notice that a clear understanding of the formal connections between sentences may help to explain one of the ways in which foreign language students sometimes write supposedly connected sentences, each of which is well-formed in itself, but which somehow add to very strange discourse.

It can also help us to identify why a student is not achieving the stylistic effect he or she is seeking. It should be clear that the correctness and the effect of some expressions cannot only be judged within the sentence, but must be judged in connection with other sentences in the discourse as well.

So, we have two possible answers to the problem of how we recognize a stretch of language as unified and meaningful. One is that we employ language rules of the type studied by grammarians and taught in most language textbooks, and that these rules operate between sentences as well as within them. The other is the knowledge of the world, of the speaker, of social convention, of what is going on around us as we read or listen in order to make sense of the language we are encountering.

Lecture 21. Linguistic Differentiation and Integration.

We can't say that all the languages have the same development process. We should mention that development process of any language must pass through two ways. One of them is differentiation, the other is integration.

Differentiation is initial stage of language development. In feudalism the tribes began separating, and, of course, these separated tribes could carry out their own dialects. Settling on a new place there appeared some differences between the tribes's dialects. Time passes and those differences began developing in all levels of dialects. So, increasing these different points influences the independence of language. But the origin of these languages remains unchangeable. Certainly, independence of languages helped to organize the kindred languages.

We may say that: a) differentiation is the main reason of formalizing kindred languages; b) differentiation serves the languages to be increasing rapidly.

Linguistic Differentiation is one of the fundamental processes characterizing the development of cognate languages. It is opposite of Linguistic Integration. Although the process is conditioned by social rather linguistic factors (its rate slows with increased consolidation of society), it leads to the material and structural divergence of languages through a gradual loss of common elements and an acquisition of specific traits. For example, Azerbaijani, Turkish, Kazakh, Turkmenian, Tadjik, Gagauz, Chuvash and Mongol are all based on Old Turkic whereas Russian, Byelorussian and Ukraininan are all based on Old Russian. English is the language of the part of German tribes of Angles, Saxons and Utes who invaded Great Britain.

The process of linguistic differentiation affects all aspects of language structure. Systematic tendencies of divergence, which are manifested in the presence of regular sound correspondences in material common to the cognate languages, make possible the ascertainment of the very fact of linguistic differentiation.

The general course of linguistic differentiation within the limits of the language family is modeled on the scheme of the so-called genealogical tree, whose initial point designates the parent language and whose terminal points designate the sum total of the cognate languages.

It is necessary to mention the specific nature of **Linguistic Integration**. While it is possible to use the term “linguistic integration”, this kind of integration is definitely not to be regarded as being the same as other kinds. This is because languages are not to be seen merely as practical means of communication which simply need to be acquired, just as migrants end up finding housing or employment. They can also be used as material for building both individual and group cultural identities.

As identity markers that are assumed, laid, claim to, or merely tolerated, languages play a part in creating social and cultural distinctions, just as religious beliefs and clothing do.

Thus, learning and using a new language – the language of the host society or using other languages there the migrant already knows but which are unfamiliar to the established population is not just a practical matter but may also trigger processes that lead to the questioning of identities.

Integration of languages is contrary to differentiation. It’s the reason of descreasing the languages. It organizes one language out of dialects and different languages.There is two kinds of integration:

1) Integration between languages;

2) Integration within languages.

Integration between languages is if independent languages formalizing one language. If they formalize one language by joining common points of dialects, it’s integration within the language.

It’s impossible to say all the languages have the same historical stages. First of all, it’s connected with historical development and local conditions. Different social

formation influences the structure of existing languages. Feudalism didn't look like previous and following society. How to understand it?

Let's suppose that our country lives in feudalism society. There are different tribes and there isn't any close connection between them.We can notice different dialects and each of them has its own language. One and the same notion is expressed by different words by them. To show bigness, tremendous one of those tribes uses the word "boyük", another tribe "yekə", the other tribe "iri", another one "nəxəng".

But time passes and the historical development of these tribes are eager to social and other relations with each other. Different tribes if this area join and this factor make it are appearing one language. That language develops and because of some historical, conditional signs; one of those dialects said above becomes the most highly developed languages from that point. In case of the English language such dialect was the dialect which was used in London.

In the XIV-th century London became the centre of English administrative political life. The importance of London dialect has so much increased by the beginning of the XVI-th century that all the political papers were written in that dialect. The pronunciation standard of London was used at schools and universities, etc. It was introduced at English Grammar school and university in the XVII-th century. It became literary standard of English. It has got all the received language.

The variants of the English languages spoken in Africa, Egypt, Canada, India,etc. have very much in common, but they differ from standard English in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. The varience of a national language shouldn't be confused with its regional types. ***J.Kenyon*** distinguishes four principal styles of good - spoken English:

a) Familiar, colloquial;

b) Formal-colloquial;

c) Public speaking style;

d) Public reading style.

He notes that there is a tendency among public speakers toward to a colloquial style. ***D.Crystal*** and ***D.Daywer*** consider that the term “the English language” isn’t a single homogeneous phenomenon at all, but rather a complex of many different varieties of languages in use in all kinds of situation. They consider that the differences are due to the kind of social situation the speaker is in, including the social position of the speaker and the person spoken to. It should be noted that informality of conversational English is also created by unexpected introduction of dialect forms of very formal languages, slips of the tongue, hesitant trolls, uneven tempos, paralinguistic features, such as: “love, eternity”,etc.

Sum up all above said we can note that this process continuous and we never stop.

Lecture 22. Different Linguistic Branches of Native and Foreign Languages.

Aside from language structure, other perspectives on language are represented in specialized or interdisciplinary branches: Historical Linguistics; Sociolinguistics; Psycholinguistics; Ethnolinguistics (or Anthropological Linguistics); Dialectology; Computational Linguistics; Neurolinguistics.

But different linguistic branches exist in any languages. Main branches of native and foreign languages are: Graphic Art, Orthography, Orthoepy, Lexicography and Linguistic Translation.

"Graphic Art" is a wide notion. We can meet this notion not only in Linguistics, but also in other spheres of the art. This word comes from Greek "graphicos", which means "drawing of something".

A category of fine art, **Graphic Art** covers a broad range of visual artistic expression, typically two-dimensional, i.e. produced on a flat surface. This term usually refers to the arts that rely more on line or tone than on colour, especially drawing and the various forms of engraving; it is sometimes understood to refer specifically to printmaking processes, such as line Engraving, Aquatint, Drypoint, Etching, Mezzotint, Monotype, Lithography, and Screen Printing (Silk-screen, Serigraphy).

Graphic art further includes Calligraphy, Photography, Painting, Typography, Computer Graphics, and Bindery. It also encompasses drawn plans and layouts for interior and architectural designs.

Throughout history, technological inventions have shaped the development of graphic art. In 2500 BC, the Egyptians used graphic symbols to communicate their thoughts in a written form known as hieroglyphics. The Egyptians wrote and illustrated narratives on rolls of papyrus to share the stories and art with others.

During the middle ages, scribes manually copied each individual page of manuscripts to maintain their sacred teachings. The scribes would leave marked

sections of the page available for artists to insert drawings and decorations. Using art alongside the carefully lettered text enhanced the religious reading experience.

Johannes Gutenberg invented an improved movable type mechanical device known as the printing press in 1450, the first outside of Asia. His printing press facilitated the mass-production of text and graphic art and eventually, replaced manual transcriptions altogether.

Again during the Renaissance years, graphic art in the form of printing played a major role in the spread of classical learning in Europe. Within these manuscripts, book designers focused heavily on typeface.

Due to the development of larger fonts during the Industrial Revolution, posters became a popular form of Graphic Art used to communicate the latest information as well as to advertise the latest products and services.

The invention and popularity of film and television changed graphic art through the additional aspect of motion as advertising agencies attempted to use kinetics to their advantage.

The next major change in Graphic Arts came when the personal computer was invented in the twentieth century. Powerful computer software enables artists to manipulate images in a much faster and simpler way than the skills of board artists prior to the 1990-s. With quick calculations, computers easily recolor, scale, rotate, and rearrange images if the programs are known.

The scientific investigations into legibility have influenced such things as the design of street signs. New York City is in the process of changing out all of its street signs bearing all capital letters for replacement with signs bearing only upper and lower case letters. They estimate that the increased legibility will facilitate way-finding and reduce crashes and injuries significantly.

In “Chambers XXI-st century” dictionary by ***Mairi Robinson*** and ***George Davidson***, this word is characterized as follows: “art or science of drawing according

to mathematical principles especially the drawing of three dementional objects on a two dementional surfaces.” Besides upper meaning it can also said:

1) The photographs and illustrators used in a magazine;

2) The non-acted visual part of a film or TV programme;

3) The use of computers to display and manipulate information in a graphical or picturial form, either on a visual display unit or plotter;

4) The images that are produced by these (see: “Chambers XXI-st century” dictionary).

Graphic in Arts is one of the kinds of this profession. The works applying to this sphere have been drawn by lines, but graphic arts in linguistic is one the parts which shows the forms of writing, the pronunciation of this or that sound, showing the sum of any letters.

The history of Graphic Arts in linguistics began at the first half of the XIX-th century. In this century scholars observed the differences between the letters and sounds and put forward different conceptions. By virtue of graphic arts in linguistics as a branch formed and defined its aim and object.

Graphic art consists of two parts:

a) The characteristic features of the sum of lines in writing;

b) The interrelationship between letters and sounds.

The main problem of graphic arts is to define the quantity of lines in the usage of writing and their features. By mentioning the quantity of lines, the total of letters we understand apostrophe, stress, the forms of punctuation marks, their totality and structure.

A.A.Reformatsky put forward that all the signs of writing (pictogramme, idiogramme, and retains of syllogrammes) should belong to graphic arts. In English the close phonetic features of the sounds (b, p, v, f), in Azerbaijani (b, p), in Russian (п, б, т, д, в, ф) are used differently.

Consequently, we should mention that the sounds which aren't close phonetically may be reflected by the repetition of the same sign. In English (n, m, u, v), in Azerbaijani (n, m), in Russian (и, ш, р, ч) are repeated either two or three times. According to their forms, size and structure they differ from the phonographic writings.

Size of Letters.

In ancient phonographic writings the letters had only one writing form. But the history of the writing developed and the letters were used in two forms. And now they are formed in this aspect. Greek, Latin and Russian writing systems should be shown for this.According to this graphic writings they are divided into two letters.

Capital letters and small letters without going into detail, we should mention that they are also languages having one writing form letters (Georgian). The letters of the Georgian language don't differ and they are used only in one form.

Capital letters were especially used in ancient phonographic writings, therefore, Latin graphic system obtained this. But by the process of the development of languages the usage of the capital letters was limited.

So, Latin system was used with capital letters till the third of our era. But since that time the capital letters have been used only at the beginning of the sentence.

At present in all languages the position, usage and object of the capital letters are defined. Capital letters are used at the beginning of the letters, in columns, in slangs, in abbreviations, ex.: in English – USA, UNO, NATO; in Azerbaijani – BDU, ADU, BMT; in Russian – РФ, СНГ, ООН.

But it should be noted that the object and the usage of capital letters aren't the same. If we remind the writings of proper nouns in Azerbaijani and in German, our aim should be clear.

So, in Azerbaijani – the first letters of proper nouns are always used with capital letters, but in German – all the letters of proper nouns are used with capital letters. Small letters are formed from the capital letters.

This process is shown in Latin writing systems clearly. The process of appearing small letters in Latin graphic continued from the beginning of the fourth century up to the VIII-th century.

Why should we need small letters?

Writing them affects reading and writing rapidly. Their formation depends on the physiology of reading process and the feature of human eyes. While reading capital letters the eyes tried quickly, because the quantity of letters is less seen.

According to the opinions, the human eyes can catch 10 letters normally. Small letters have also advantage of their connecting character with each other. So, small letters are widely used.

Structure of Letters.

According to the structure the letters are divided into **simple** and **compound** ones. If the letters are formed by simple signs, they are called simple structure letters, for example: English – s, o, l, n, e; Azerbaijani – o, ğ, l, i, ı; Russian – о, с, п, л; etc. are simple according to their appearance. Such kind of simple letters exist in many world alphabets.

Compound letters are divided into **ligature** and **diacritic** sign letters.

Ligature letters – this word comes from Latin “ligarem” which means “link”. But in linguistics under ligature letter we mean joining two or three letters having one and the same sounds. These letters have two forms:

1) Pining;

2) Approaching.

If the root of a letter should be pined with another letter they are called pining letters. Reflecting the sounds (tʃ, ʃ, j) letter combinations “ch, sh, zh” are used

accordingly. But approaching ligatures are used when two or more letters approach with each other and have one sound.

In German “sch” approaching with one another formalize the sound “ʃ”. But in English letter combinations “tch, sk, sh, ch, ght” are the signs of phonemes (tʃ, k, dʒ).

But in Azerbaijani and in Russian only some borrowings have such character “ш, п, р, и, с”.

Diacritical signed letters are some letters which take some signs upper or below of the main sound and form new phonemes. These signs are called diacritic. We can see such letters in Azerbaijani (i, ö, ü, ç, ş) in Russian (дж - j - c, щ).

Formation of Letters.

Letters have two manuscript and graphic forms. The difference between them is upon the technic of writing. One of the objects of graphic art is to determine the stability of the history of letters. Compare the alphabet of kindred languages.

Alphabets are almost formed by two lines:

1) Straight;

2) Circle.

According to this classification English and Azerbaijani letters are divided into 3 groups:

1) By using different forms of straight lines: in English – h, j, m, n, t, i, w, x; in Azerbaijani – n, m, u, t, x, e, y; in Russian – а, г, д, ё, ж, к, л, м;

2) By using different circle forms of lines: in English – o, a, c; in Azerbaijani – o, ö, a, c; in Russian – о, з, с, etc.

3) By using bith straight and circle lines: in English – b, d, g, p, q, r; in Azerbaijani – b, d, q, v, r, ə; in Russian – б, в, д, р, etc.

Capital letters differ from small letters in writing. As we are interested in Latin and Kiril, let’s compare them:

LATIN		RUSSIAN	
capital	**small**	**capital**	**small**
D	**d**	**Б**	**б**
Q	**q**	**Е**	**е**
T	**t**	**Г**	**г**
F	**f**	**П**	**п**

Resemblances: Cc, Mm, Pp, Oo, Zz.

So, the capital and small letters differ from the writing systems, too. One of the form of their letters is manuscript forms. These forms differ from their graphic forms. The graphic letters differ small. Some of them differ only from their size, ex.: in English – “a, j, x”; in Azerbaijani – “c, ə, ç”; in Russian – “ж, ф, л, у”.

Modern alphabets have changed several times. Those times wrote down different documents and records, and in this way they wrote letters in different position. In 1445 the first book was printed in Germany by ***Iohan Gutenberg***. Since that time the forms of letters have become stabilized and they influenced the disappearing varients of alphabets.

Another problem is to point out the relations between letters and signs. In some alphabets the letters have the same sound. In other language we have different position: “-б (б), -т (т)”.

By comparing the quantity of letters with its sound system we can se proportionally not the same situation. In English 26 letters give 44 sounds.

Summing up all above, we may come to the conclusion, that: studying the Graphic Arts remain actual problem in spelling and alphabet.

Lecture 23. Typology of Orthography and Orthoepy of Native and Foreign Languages.

One of the main branches of the native and foreign linguistics is Orthography. This word is of Greek origin, which means “orthos” - “correct” and “grapho” - “writing”. It means correct spelling. Besides it, it has also the meaning of particular system of spelling or study of spelling. Orthographical rules are formed simultaneously with the formation of language writing.

So, while forming the writing of any language the basis of orthography began to formalize. In ancient Eastern languages scholars paid treat deed to it, while appearing its writing system. Those scholars defined different rules put forward various notes according to orthography. We can say that there wasn’t any complete or proper orthographical theory at that time.

Theoretical researches have become since the recent centuries. Orthographical rules have importance in development of literary language. It makes a chance in stabilizing literary and kindreds difficulties in writing. It includes some branches. Orthographical rules of some languages are divided into:

1) Rules about root and affixation;

2) Rules about words;

3) Rules of writing parts of the words in a new line;

4) Rules of writing with capital letters of the words;

5) Rules of writing the abbreviations.

All above rules base on definite orthographical principles. There are a lot of principles in phonographical writing, but some of them are not considered as orthographical principles. Following principles should be taken into account on writing such words:

1) Initial principle; writing of the first letter is called initial principle, i.e. idios, n-noun, v-verb;

2) Suspensory principle; if the part of the word is written it's called suspensory principle, i.e. professor-prof.; adverb-adv.; adjective-adj.;

3) Contracted or shortened principle; omitting the letters in the middle of the words is called contracted, i.e. pr-r – proper; Ms – Miss.

This principle was widely used in ancient Latin writings. All the above-mentioned aren't considered main orthographical principle. The main principle is that **orthographical principle** must be wide and embrace some languages as well as it should be affects to some language writing.

Phonetic principle is used in a great number of writings. That's why this principle is considered one of the main principles. Thus, there are various views about the quantity of orthographic principles in linguistics.

Reformatsky put forward six principles: phonetic and phonematic, etymological and historical-traditional, morphological and symbolling.

Other scholars dwell on three main orthographical principles: phonetic, morphological and traditional (***I.P.Ivanova***). A great number of scientists agree with these later view-points. All these main principles - phonetic, morphological and traditional has definite factors.

According to **the phonetic principle** the word is written as it's sounded, for example: map, man, dog, duck, etc. So, in phonetic principle the pronunciation of word is considered to be the main essence of writing of words.

In **morphological principle**, one and the same morpheme may be pronounced in different ways. That's why, it should be taken only one of these morphemes in writing, on the contrary, and it should make the writing of the language confused. Writing with one form of different pronounced morpheme is called morphological principle.

In Azerbaijani the suffixes of plurality tantum are based on morphological principle, ex.: "qız<u>l</u>ar – qız<u>d</u>ar", in Russian, for example: "коне<u>ч</u>но – коне<u>ш</u>но".

This principle has a great role in forming single rules in orthography (traditional).The pronunciation of words greatly differ from its writing. In English we can see a lot of words having various writing and pronunciation. They kept the words as they pronounced and being written in that way. Writing, which is based on their own pronunciation, is called **historical-traditional principle**.

In Azerbaijani such words, as: "əlbəttə, hətta" etc. are used according to this principle. All those three principles are widely used in modern orthography, but the usage degree isn't the same. If Azerbaijani is based on phonetic principle, English is based on historical-traditional principle.

A.A.Reformatsky considered phonematic principle leading one for the Russian language. If we understand the words without strong effect that is considered to be a good language. If it is overloaded with conceptive, that's considered a difficult one.

The word "**Orthoepy**" is of Greek origin "orthos" means "correct" and "epos" - "speech". It means the study of correct pronunciation, especially the connection between pronunciation and spelling. Orthoepy has a great role in fireign language of the world; without going into detail, it should be mentioned that orthoey differs from dialects. As we know, pattern language lays the foundation of literary language. It is impossible to imagine literary language with it.

Pattern language helps us speak accurately and impressively. Each speech obtaining all these features may be considered good speech. Normal pattern language belongs to written and oral speech, as it is seen, oral speech is main factor on affecting the listener. What should we do to have good pronunciation?

We can mention that each of us should control the normatives of literary language. So, it should be taken into account its lexical, grammatical, stylistic, orthographic rules.

We should try to choose the word that can be pronounced accurately. Without exaggerating, each language is potentially the source of music. But it may have more

or less. To prove our view-point we can say the following extract of Ballad “Robin Hood Rescuing Three Squires”:

There are twelve months in all the year,	Двенадцать месяцев в году,
As hear I many men say,	Не веришь – посчитай.
But the merriest month in all the year	Но всех двенадцати милей
Is the merry month of May.	Весёлый месяц май
Now Robin Hood is to Nottingham gone,	Шёл Робин Гуд, шёл в Ноттингем,
With a link, a down and a day,	Весел люд, весел гусь, весел пёс…
And there he met a silly and old woman	Стоит старуха на пути,
Was weeping on the way....	Вся сморщилась от слёз….

Orthoepic system of each language has the following parts:

1) Rules concerning the pronunciation of the vowels;
2) Rules concerning the pronunciation of the consonants;
3) Rules concerning the pronunciation of the grammatical rules;
4) Rules concerning the pronunciation of the borrowings.

Some scholars, especially Russian linguist ***A.A.Reformatsky*** considered orthoepy in the widest plan, including reading. It should be said that the orthoepic rules developed and formed as a system for a long period.

While speaking orthoepy of any language, including English, Azerbaijani and Russian, it should be said the expressiveness of speech without hesitation. Question arises: What is the expressiveness of speech? Is the speech ordinary one? No, it isn’t. It is not usual one.

Such speech influences the reader’s spelling and attracts their attention. They begin to interest in it while listening to such kind of speech, especially their inner secret. Probably, any of us didn’t pay deed to this or that item, but abruptly we change

our attitude and try to listen to such kind of speech till the end attentively as well as profoundly. To assert our view-point we can give an extract from “Khosrov and Shirin” by ***Nizami Gandjavi*** in Azerbaijani:

Az danışsan əgər sözün sayılar,
Çox sözü dinləri çox nöqsan tutar,
Sənin üçün çox demək bəlkə asandır,
“Çox oldu”- desələr, böyük nöqsandır.
Söz ruhdur, can üçün ruh bir dərmandır
Can tək əzizliyi bəlkə bundan...

The context between them: Khosrov asked once:

“Where do you come from,say?
Farhad: “From regions far away”.
Khosrov: “In what crafts does your land excell?”
Farhad: “We purchase grief, and souls, we sell”.
Khosrov: “By selling souls what do you gain”.
Farhad: “Our bards this custom don’t distinct”.
Khosrov: “Your soul from love is well night flying”.
Farhad: “My soul! I love with all my being”.

So, the Indian linguists dwelled on orthoepic problem in ancient times. Those scholars considered special place for orthoepic study. But this branch of applied linguistics has become epopee XVIII-XIX-th century.

Different scholars closely searched out orthoepic problems. Consequently, it should be said that orthoepy has great role in oral speech.

Lecture 24. Typology of Lexicography in the Compared Non-Cognate Languages.

1. Lexicography.
2. The Historical Periods of the Development of Practical Lexicography.
3. Contemporary Lexicography.
4. General Lexicography.
5. Theoretical Lexicography.
6. The Typology of Dictionaries.
7. Historical development of the English Lexicography.
8. Historical development of the Russian Lexicography.
9. Historical development of the Azerbaijani Lexicography.

1. Lexicography.

"Lexicography" has Greek origin, as the word "lexis" means "word" and "graphy" - "writing". It is the writing – compiling and editing of dictionaries. Being one of the most used branches of Linguistics, Lexicography is the division of

Linguistics dealing with practical and theoretical problems of compiling dictionaries in foreign and native languages.

Lexicography is the applied study of the meaning, evolution, and function of the vocabulary units of a language for the purpose of compilation in book form. In short, it is process of dictionary making.

2. The Historical Periods of the Development of Practical Lexocography.

These similar periods can be distinguished in the development of the forms of Practical Lexicography.

The first was the predictionary period.

The explanation of obscure words was the primary function of glossers in Sumer. Early Lexicography practiced from the **VI-th century B.C.** in Southern Mesopotamia, which is in modern times Southern Iraq, Greece, and Rome, was reserved for abstruse words of specific disciplines.

In ancient times Indian scholars dealt with the compiling and explaining of the words. In the **VI-th century of B.C.** the Indian linguist ***Amara*** compiled Sanscrit language dictionary. The Indians called this dictionary "Amaracosha", which means "Amara's Dictionary".

Besides in the **V-th century of B.C.** in India the scholar ***Gaska*** carried out lexicographic words successfully. At the beginning of our era they were spread over different countries.

In the **II-nd century of our era** the Chinese scholar ***Gui See*** laid the foundation of complete Chinese dictionary.

In the **VIII-th** century for the first time Arabic dictionary "Kitab-An-Ain" was compilled.

The second period was the early dictionary period.

The primary function was to study a literary language, different for many peoples from conversational speech, for example, the unilingual lexicons of Sanscrit, the VI-th to VII-th centuries, and Ancient Greek, XX-th century;

"Passive" translation dictionaries were compiled, in which the vocabulary of a foreign language was explained using words from the national language (Arabic-Persian, XI-th century; Latin-English, XV-th century; Church Slavonic-Russian, XVI-th century);

Then **"active" translation dictionaries** came into being, in which the national language was the original one (French-Latin and English-Latin, Latin, 16-th century; Russian -Latin-Greek, 18th century), as did bilingual dictionaries of living languages.

The first explanatory dictionaries were compiled in countries with hieroglyphic writing (China, III-rd century B.C.; Japan, VIII-th century).

The third period covers developed Lexicography, which is linked with the development of national languages. The primary function was to describe and normalize the vocabulary of a language and to raise the level of linguistic culture of society.

This period includes explanatory dictionaries, many compiled by state academic and philological societies "The Italian Accademia Della Crusca Dictionary" in 1612; and synonymic, phraseological, dialectal, terminlogical, orthographic, and grammatic dictionaries.

The philosophical concepts of the era influenced the development of Lexicography, for example, the academic dictionaries of the XVII-th and the XVIII-th centuries were drawn up under the influence of Bacon's and Descartes's philosophy of science, whereas Littre's dictionary of the French language (1863-1872) and other XIX-th century dictionaries were influenced by positivism.

The evolutionist theories of the XIX-th century strengthened the historical aspect in explanatory dictionaries.

A fourth function of Lexicography was established in the XVII-th and the XVIII-th centuries and has developed in the XX-th century to collect and process data for linguistic research in Lexicology, Word Formation, Stylistics, and the History of Language (etymological and historical dictionaries and frequency vocabularies; dictionaries arranged in reverse order and dictionariesof cognate languages and of the language of a writer, etc.).

Lexicography is linked with all the divisions of Linguistics and especially with Lexicology, many issues of which are specifically interpreted in Lexicography.

3. Contemporary Lexicography.

Since 1950 **Contemporary Lexicography** has taken on some characteristics of an industry (establishment of lexicographical centers and institutes and mechanization of work). Contemporary Lexicography emphasizes the important social function of dictionaries, which set forth the totality of knowledge of a society in a given era.

Typical of Contemporary Lexicography is:

1) The conception of vocabulary as a system, an attempt to reflect the lexical and semantic structure of language as a whole and the semanticstructure of the individual word (isolating the meanings of words according to their links with other words in the text andwithin semantic fields) in the structure of the dictionary;

2) A dialectical view of the meaning of a word, an accounting of the mobile nature of the link between the signifier and signified in a verbal symbol (an attempt to record the nuances and transitions in the meanings of words, their uses in speech, and the various intermediate phenomena);

3) An acknowledgment of the close bond between vocabulary and grammar and the other aspects of language.

4. General Lexicography.

General Lexicography originated in the **XVI-th** century and aspects of the modern dictionary, such as etymology, developed during **XVII-th** and the **XVIII-th** centuries A.D. in Western Europe.

At the beginning of the **XVI-th** century lexicographic works were attracted great interest and a lot of new dictionaries began to be compiled in different languages. In 1565 "Thesaurus" dictionary was compilled by Kuper.

In the history of English Lexicography the **XVI-th** century is called Lexicography of Foreign Languages, but the **XVII-th** century is called Lexicography of Hard Words.

While searching out the scholars' view-point, we can across that "Applied Lexicography" and Lexicography used of the same meaning. But it doesn't embrace the branch as the former does. Being a separate branch, lexicography has its own aim and object. Sometimes the scholars identify and even oppose Lexicography with Lexicology, Semasiology (***Kh.Kasares***,1958).

5. Theoretical Lexicography.

Theoretical Lexicography developed in the second third of the XX-th century; the Soviet scholar ***L.V.Shcherba*** worked out the first scientific typology of dictionaries in 1940. It has developed further in the wors of many Soviet and foreign linguists (in Czechoslovakia, France, and the USA).

By virtue of this opposition the relations between those branches (Lexicography, Lexicology, Etymology, and Semasiology) as well as their outline may be defined. By saying "Lexicography" we understand the profession of writing, compilling and editing of dictionaries as well as the linguistic study of dictionary work. Both of these branches are blended under this notion.

While dealing with the theoretical problem of Lexicography it should be interpreted the types of dictionaries, structure, principles scientifically. All the

theoretical problems of lexicographic work are explained here: “Lexicography is one of the ancient branches of Linguistics”.

6. The Typology of Dictionaries.

Lexicography works out **the typology of dictionaries**. In this way dictionaries are classified as, for example, **unilingual** (such as explanatory dictionaries), **bilingual** (translation dictionaries), **instructional** (dictionaries for studying languages), and **scientific** and **technical** (terminological dictionaries).

All the dictionaries are divided into:

1) Encyclopedic;

2) Philological.

Encyclopedic dictionaries explain the notion in a broad sense. Here scientific information of great people’s personality is written and revealed. Here we should meet different pictures of this or that matter.

Encyclopedic dictionaries have two kinds: 1) encyclopedic; 2) areal.

We can show literature – encyclopedic, medicine – encyclopedic, child – encyclopedic in various languages.

Philological dictionaries explain the origin of words, their historical development, grammatical points, and their usage are explained here. In such kinds of dictionaries the meaning of words, pronunciation, written forms are also explained.

Philological dictionaries are of two kinds:

1) Monolingual;

2) Polylingual.

The aim of monolingual dictionary is to help scientifically learning of the language. A monolingual learners’ dictionary is, in my view, of little use for this operation. Again, when students are trying to express themselves in the second language, for example writing an essay or a letter, the monolingual offers little

immediate help, and demands much more from its users than does a bilingual, where students may take the first language as the point the departing.

Users of a monolingual the second language dictionary can access the material in it only by means of a foreign language headword. It might be just that word that they do not know. If that is the reason for the difficulty, the situation becomes circular, and there is no way out.

The aim of polylingual dictionary is to help linguistic translating and to serve learning other foreign languages. Poly-lingual dictionaries may embrace 2-3 or more languages. One of the richest poly-lingual dictionaries in the world was published in Germany in 1806, which was printed by ***E.K.Adelung*** and ***E.C.Faterin*** from 1806-up 1817. It was called in English "General Linguistics" and was given examples of 500 languages and dialects. That dictionary consists of 4 volumes. Language facts are explained in different aspects in philological dictionaries.

The Monolingual and Bilingual learners' dictionaries both designed for use by non-native speakers of at least one language differ in one fundamental way: monolinguals, being non-userlanguage specific, must cater for users of any native language, while no such demand is made upon bilinguals. From this stem many radical differences in design, content, presentation, accessibility to the student, and potential as an aid to foreign language production. However, one further point must be made: within the general context of a foreign language dictionary, one work, whether bilingual or monolingual, may differ in its specific aim from another of the same type. It may be simply a dictionary of comprehension or it may be a much more ambitious dictionary of communication.

A dictionary entry will consist of some or all of the following components in something like the following order, which may be compared with ***Janet Whitcut's*** presentation.

There are following divergences between the monolingual and bilingual learners' dictionaries:

1) The headword, and any variant spellings;

2) An indication of pronunciation;

3) Details of the word classes (parts of speech) to which the headword belongs;

4) Morphology: inflection(s) which may cause difficulties;

5) Syntax: the syntactic potential of the headword and any syntactic restrictions it may carry;

6) An explanation of the various senses of the headword;

7) Exemplification of usage, including collocating words and fixed or semi-fixed phrases (e.g. idioms);

8) A listing of derived forms of the headword, with or without further explanation;

9) Cross-reference(s) to related entries. In addition, there may be metalinguistic information of several types:

10) Semantic (including selectional restrictions): allowing the user to identify the specific sense being treated at any particular point, or otherwise clarifying the design and content of the entry;

11) Stylistic: indication of style and register, where relevant;

12) Usage material for the purpose of further clarification, e.g. differentiation from near-synonyms, or warning of hidden hazards;

13) Etymological: a diachronic view of the headword.

Such a brief scuttle through the salient points of divergence between these two types of learners' dictionaries inevitably does justice to neither but, equally, favours neither at the expense of the other.

I have tried to pick out the aspects of an entry where these two dictionaries offer a choice to the user:

a) Word list (usually shortish in monolinguals; often longer in bilinguals);

b) Explanation of senses;

c) Exemplification of usage;

d) Treatment of fixed and semi-fixed phrases (always translated, often by equally idiomatic equivalent expressions, in bilinguals;

e) Semantic and usage information (always in a foreign language in monolinguals, usually in the user's native language in bilinguals).

What conclusions may be drawn about these two types of dictionary?

Both types of dictionaries help in understanding a foreign language, but there can be little doubt that a bilingual makes fewer demands upon the user. With a monolingual, the student is forced to use the foreign language in order to understand it, and there is of course no guarantee that the definitions, examples (glossed or unglossed) or metalanguage notes are comprehensible. In the case of a bilingual, however, target language equivalents are given for headwords, derived forms and examples, and the metalanguage is the first language; the student thus uses the first language in order to understand the second language. When it comes to translation from the first language into the second language, a good bilingual will supply enough information to allow students to do this reasonably correctly, while a bad bilingual will at least help them along part of the way.

Consequently, there can be little surprise at the reluctance of most students to reach for the monolingual if there is a bilingual at hand. Yet, while students perversely prefer bilinguals, their teachers are for the most part struggling to wean them from these predigested manuals on to the more adult fare of the monolinguals.

Monolinguals are good for you, like: "whole meal bread and green vegetables"; bilinguals, like "alcohol, sugar and fatty foods" are not, though you may like them better. Perhaps the simile is more apt than it seems.

Students like bilinguals because they bring instant satisfaction, while teachers prefer monolinguals for their long-term benefits: the user gradually learns to operate in the second language without the the first language barrier as a brake on progress.

One further point on this subject: there is in the English-speaking world a fairly rigid dichotomy between monolingual and bilingual learners' dictionaries. Such is not

the case in other areas: in Italy, for example, **the Hybrid Dictionary** (one with both bi- and mono- features) is a normal event. Here, perhaps, is the direction we ourselves should be moving in. If we were to combine the best features of the monolingual and the bilingual dictionaries, we should produce a much more flexible teaching aid. Such a work would be possible now in book form and how much more possible when electronicallyaccessed reference works are the norm.

The dictionary is the most successful and significant book about language. In Britain, its success is shown by the fact that over 90% of households possess at least one, making the dictionary far more popular than cookery books (about 70%) and indeed significantly more widespread than the Bible (which was to be found in 80% of households in England in 1983, according to the Bible Society).

Its significance is shown by the fact that like the Bible its authority is invoked, rightly or wrongly, to settle disputes, and by the fact that, quite spontaneously.

For English-speakers, the contents of the dictionary are part of the normative social discourse that helps to constitute, maintain and give identity to our speech community. In this very fundamental sense, another analogy with the Bible is possible: in reference to the dictionary, too, we may be called “peoples of the Book”.

The dictionary discussed so far, however (though it almost certainly accounts for most of the 90%), is only one type of dictionary. It is the monolingual general dictionary for the adult native speaker of English. Each of the phrases used to describe it suggests what other types of dictionary there are.

There are bilingual dictionaries as well as monolingual ones. There are specialized dictionaries covering a part of the language, such as idioms or the technical terminology of one or more areas as well as general ones. There are dictionaries for children as well as dictionaries for adults. There are dictionaries for learners as well as dictionaries for native speakers. And the learners need not be learners of English. Now one begins to speak of “dictionaries” rather than of “the dictionary”.

The Terminological Dictionary is relevant for two reasons above all. The first reason is its frank confrontation of one of the central problems of lexicography: the relation between the lexicographic treatment of words and their encyclopaedic treatment; that is, broadly speaking, the difference between their intra-linguistic sense and their extra-linguistic reference. The second reason is the way terminological dictionaries deal with the sets formed by terms, both those relating to entities of the natural world (such as chemical elements) and those naming man-made concepts (such as government departments or university ranks): culture-bound concepts notoriously hard to translate.

As for the **Children's Dictionary**, its relevance to the learners' dictionary should be apparent. A comparison of the lexical needs of the native learner (the child) and the foreign learner is very much in keeping with the general comparison now going on of first-language acquisition and second-language learning. But there are more down-to-earth reasons for considering the children's dictionary here. It has been, especially in American lexicography, what the EFL dictionary has been in British lexicography: a centre of innovation.

American children's dictionaries have pioneered in the use of unorthodox defining techniques, the creative use of examples to complement and sometimes to replace definitions, the imaginative use of pictures, and, perhaps most interesting of all, under the inspiration of ***E.L.Thorndike***, the grouping together of semantically related senses across part-of-speech boundaries, as when the military senses of charge are explained next to each other even though some are nominal and some are verbal.

Furthermore, **Children's Dictionaries** have developed a number of devices for helping their users to acquire "the dictionary habit", and their writers have also created guides for teachers using the dictionaries with their pupils. But at this point a major problem must be faced: the children's dictionaries under discussion are intended for younger children, and there are as many differences between dictionaries

for younger and older children as there are between different types of dictionary for adults.

We know far too little about the cognitive strategies of dictionary use. Dictionaries are social artifacts, existing in the real world and compiled in "real time". Their shape is determined not just by linguistic theory or lexicographic style, but by administrative necessity. Not all dictionaries include information about pronunciation.

The dictionary is a recognized institution, but **Lexicography has yet to become a recognized profession.**

A sense of humour is probably more vital in people working on dictionaries for native speakers than in those working on dictionaries for foreign learners. Johnson, father of Lexicography, set a trend for idiosyncratic, humorous definitions which the British public at least seems to approve of. Certain it is that when some definitions of this genre which had been in previous editions of the "Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary" were removed in 1972 the public were so incensed that they wrote to the national press.

If you look a word up in a dictionary any dictionary a number of different kinds of information will be presented to you. Some of that information will be grammatical. When we speak about "**Grammar in the Dictionary**", we are going to investigate the nature of the grammatical information found in dictionaries and evaluate its usefulness for the second-language user of English monolingual dictionaries.

Arguably, Grammar and Dictionary are complementary parts of the overall description of a language. This applies whether the aim of the description is the general linguistic one of providing a comprehensive account of a language, or whether the aim is an applied one of serving the needs of an identifiable group of language users. It could be maintained, however, that language users have recourse more to the Dictionary than to the Grammar, whether they are first-language users or second-language users.

That, indeed, is the point: the inclusion of grammatical information in the Dictionary is a contribution to making the language learner an independent learner, to enabling the learner to produce for himself correct and appropriate sentences in the language he is learning.

7. Historical development of the English Lexicography.

The early modern period was an era of great change for the English Language. According to Oxford English Dictionary's record, the number of words available to speakers of English more than doubled between **1500** and **1650**. Many of new words were borrowed into English from the Latin or Greek of the Renaissance (for example, "hypotenuse") or from the far-off countries visited by travelers and traders (for instance, "pangolin"), and must have seemed hard to understand too many of the population.

At the same time, there were significant demographic shifts in Britain towards an urbanized culture based in the big cities, such as London: the population of London increased eightfold over these years. In retrospect, one can argue the growing availability of books and other printed matted as the period developed – alongside the emergence of the grammar school as a focus for education – meant that the scene was set for the emergence of the English dictionary.

In the XVI-th century the monolingual dictionaries were preceded, both in Britain and in continental Europe, by bilingual dictionaries, which served a more immediately practical need. Important examples in Britain include "The Dictionary of syr ***Thomas Eliot Knyght***" (1538), "A Latin-English Dictionary", which went into several editions throughout the XVI-th century; ***Cludius Hollyband***'s "Dictionarie French and English" (1593), and ***John Florio***'s "Italian-English Worlde of Wordes" (1598).

Historical development of English Lexicography begins from the XVII-th century. The first book generally regarded as the **first English Dictionary** was

written by ***Robert Cawdrey***, a schoolmaster and former Church of England clergyman, in 1604. ***R.Cawdrey*** made use of wordlists published earlier in educational texts, such as ***Richard Mulcaster***'s Elementary (1582) and ***Edmund Coote***'s "English Schoole-maister" (1596).

There are famous lexicographers:

Samuel Johnson (1709-1784) who was literary scholar, creator of first comprehensive lexicographical work of English;

James Murray (1837-1915) reknowned editor of the "Oxford English Dictionary" (OED) that is great multivolume historical dictionary of English.

We can show "Universal Etymological Dictionary of the English Language" of ***Nataniyel Beyli***, which was published in 1721;

"A Pronouncing and Spelling Dictionary" of ***William Johnston*** was published in London in 1764;

"General Dictionary of the English Language" of ***Tomas Sheridan***, which was published in 1780;

"Compendious Dictionary of the English Language" of ***Noah Webster*** (1758-1843) was philologist and compiler of popular comprehensive American dictionary published in 1806;

"New English Dictionary of the English Language" of ***Charles Richardson***, which was published in 1836;

Here also we can show the "Oxford English Dictionary" (1857; 1884; 1884-1928; 1933-1986; 1980; 1992);

In 1998 the "New Oxford English Dictionary" (NODE) was published, aiming to cover current English;

"Universal Dictionary of the English Language" by ***Henry Sesil Wild*** (1932);

The "Chambers 21-st century dictionary" (2000), etc.

8. Historical development of the Russian Lexicography.

Historical development of Russian Lexicography begins from XVIII-th – XXI-th cc. The first foreign manuscript dictionaries appeared in the XVIII-th century. They aimed at explaining new necessary foreign terms for being quickly mastered by society; opposing superfluous words to Russian ones in order to show that foreign words are not necessary.

Bilingual Lexicography: Russian – English, English - Russian in the XX-th – XXI-st cc. For example: "Russian – Greek – Latin – French – German - English" 1763, ***G.A.Polyetika***; Bilingual dictionaries included 32 word groups (nearly 4000 words) based on ideographic principles – the author ***P.I.Zhdanov***; "The English – Russian Dictionary" 1772; "A New Dictionary of English and Russian" 1784, 30.000 words; "The Russian Academic Dictionaries", 1-st volume in 1789-1794, 2-nd volume in 1806-1822;

In the XIX century "Academic Russian and Church Slavonic Language Dictionary", 4 volumes, 1847; "The Old Russian Dictionary" by ***I.I.Sreznevsky***, 1890-1912; "Dictionary of the Great Russian Language" by ***V.I.Dall***, 1863-1866; "Academic Russian Language Dictionary" by ***I.K.Grott***, 1895;

In the XX-th century:

"The Dictionary of Old Russian Proper Nouns" by ***N.M.Tupikov***, 1903;

"The Etymological Russian Language Dictionary" by ***A.Preobrazhensky***, 1910-1916;

"Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language" by ***D.N.Ushakov***, 1935-1940;

"Russian – English Dictionary", under the guidance of ***A.I.Smirnitsky***, 1948, contains 50.000 words;

"Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language" by ***S.I.Ozhegov***, 1949;

"Academic Dictionary of Contemporary Russian Literary Language in XVII vv." 1948-1965;

"Modern Russian dictionary" published from 1950 - up 1965 as a monolingual dictionary. This "Modern Russian dictionary" consists of 17 volumes and embraces 120.480 words;

"The Dictionary of Russian Language Etymology" by ***M.Fasmer***, 1964;

"New English – Russian Dictionary", 2 volumes, under the guidance of ***I.R.Galperin***, 1972;

"Academic Dictionary of Contemporary Russian Literary Language in XX vv.", 1991;

"Russian Language Dictionary of XI-XVII cc.", 1975-1992;

"Russian Language Dictionary of XVIII c.", 7 volumes, 1984-1992;

"The Oxford Russian Dictionary" by ***M.Wheels & B.Unbegaun***, 1997;

"Translator's Russian – English Phraseological Dictionary" compiled by ***S.S.Kuzmin***, 2001, **2000** phraseological expressions.

9. Historical development of the Azerbaijani Lexicography.

Historical development of Azerbaijani Lexicography begins from the XX-th cc. In the 20-th and 40-th of the **XX-th** century in the Azerbaijani language scholars paid attention to the semantied ideological study of words.

In 50-th and 60-th years of the **XX-th** century the first plan was put forward the investigation of interrelating connection. Scholars paid great attention to the problems of synonyms, omonyms, polysemy, etc.

Being one of the richest Altayic languages, the **Azerbaijani language** was also compiled by various scholars. At different times of the XX-th century ***Aliheydar Orujov, Bahruz Abdullayev, Mammad Tagiyev, Ismikhan Rahimov, Bayram Tahirbeyov, Oruj Musayev, Nigar Valiyeva, Ismayil Mammadov*** and others compiled by lingual dictionaries.

In the **XXI-th** century, in **2006** ***Nigar Valiyeva*** published in Azerbaijan the Triglot "Azerbaijani – English – Russian Phraseological Dictionary".

In **2010** a new "Voluminous Triglot Phraseological Dictionary" was published in Baku. It consists of two volume (1975 pages /123,5 ç.v.). The **Triglot** "Azerbaijani – English – Russian Dictionary of Idioms" contains more than 90.000 phraseological units, idioms. It was compiled by ***Nigar Valiyeva***.

In **2017** the Bilingual "Azerbaijani – English Idiomatic Dictionary" explains approximately **100.000 idioms** and consists of 764 pages. The author is ***Nigar Valiyeva***. This is due to the result of more than 25 years of hard work. This dictionary is now being used in the USA, Australia, Finland, Germany, Turkey, the UK, Sweden, Iran, Canada, etc.

In **2018** the Triglot "Explanatory Azerbaijani – English – Russian Dictionary of the Communicative Terms". The author of this dictionary is ***Nigar Valiyeva*** and it consists of 352 pages. This triglot dictionary contains the interpretation of the communicative terms of the non-kindred languages in the Linguistics as the modern education and learning of the foreign languages during the process of globalization is very actual issue in the Azerbaijan Republic.

Lecture 25.Typology of Linguistic Translation in Native and Foreign Languages.

Linguistic translation is one of branches of Linguistics. In the "Chambers XXI-st century dictionary" this word is explained as follows:

1) To express a word, speech, written text, etc. in another language closely preserving the meaning of the original;

2) To put or express an idea in other terms, especially terms that are simpler than the original;

3) To interprete the significance or meaning of an action, behaviour;

4) To change or move from one state, condition, trace, etc. to another. But in scientific researches this branch is called in different ways. Some scholars treat it as the "theory of translation". Some others treat as "translotology" which means "to carry across".

At the same time some other linguists call it "linguistic translation", which is more acceptable, convincing. So, its aim comprises the problems of translating activity, the general laws of translating process, etc.

According to the form and content of translating material, this branch has two kinds:

1) **Literary**, which has its own content and investigation method;

2) **Informative**, embracing scientific, official, social publishing, etc.

This branch of translating is closely connected with linguistics. Translating isn't arbiterary, because it has some reasons, one of which is that linguistic translating is a special kind of speech activity. It deals with speech activity problems.

Transferring from one into another language there forms a new text. This new text must be exact to its origin. This exactness demands that the language details their variants should be translated by distorting language normals.

The exactness of translation isn't easy. The translator should be qualified to do it. While translating no matter written or oral speech, text, etc. should be put into another

language exactly; all kinds of acting, for instance, the process of translating can't be forgotten.

So, we may come into conclusion, the exactness should be obtained only by knowing linguistic requirements profoundly. It is a new young branch. It appeared as independent branch in the second half of the XX-th century. Since that time it has been formalized. Linguistic translation is an ancient activity.

Peoples dealt with translating activity from ancient times. During voyages, trips and trades the people needed the translating and it began spreading all over the world. So, the history of translation goes back to ancient times. Since the translating activity has become the object of research work, there appeared a lot of principles.

There are a lot of complicated translating problems. As we know, at the end of the XX-th century the international relations between countries, societies, congresses put forward such a question – we might pay great deed to the linguistic translating problems. Some main objectives are put forward to linguistic translating. One of them is to generalize the achievements of this sphere.

Linguistic translating plays role in solving modern and acual problems of translating. The aspect of applied linguistic, which appeared in the middle of the XX-th century, was connected with machine translating.

It happened in USA in 1954 by the help IBM 701 ***P.Garvin, L.Dostert, P.Sherriton*** translated into English 60 sentences compilled 250 advanced choosen Russian words. But in 1955 by the help BECM in former USSR was done the translation from English into Russian.

Since that time many scholars have dealt with machine translating. Appearing electronical machines and computers brought some changes in practical works. In linguistic such problems began to be studied by automatic machine. Machine translating is a complicated problem, which requires some logical mathematical and engineering task. Using any procedures, those are used to find the solution to a

specific problem computerizing the sequence of operation, often representing by means of flow chart.

Algeriphmic interpretation considers analyses and synthesis of the text. In international conference in Paris algeriphmic was accepted in 1960. This aspect demands the knowledge of technical knowledge, which bases on Bulleva algebra and bully solution.

Following all these analysis we may ask: What is the essence of translation?

In translation we have two texts:

1) The original text;

2) Created on the basis of the first with the help of operations.

The first text is called the text of original, the second – the text of translation.

The language, in which the original text is written, is called the source language. The second – is transferred language – Target Language (TL).

Why do we say that: “my brother lives in London” is equal “Мой брат живёт в Лондоне”. We perceive that the inter-linguistic translation is not carried out at will. In order to regard anything as translation of the forgettable language must contain something of the text of the source language.

Namely, in the process of transforming to the text of the translated language is a certain invariant. To know what remains as an invariant in the process of translation one must understand the semiotics that is a science on the system of signs. Each sign is characterized by plane of expression (form) and the plane of content.

We know that a language is a system of signs and different languages being different in the plane of expression – are identical in the plane of content. Therefore, the word “brother” in the above sentence differs from “брат”, “qardaş” in the plane of expression and coincides in the plane of content.

If we change not only these two words, but the whole sentences, we may define translation as a process of translation of the text of a source language into the text of the translated language under the circumstances.

If semiotics we distinguish three types meanings. One must proceed from words for words are bearers of meanings. “Стол - table” refers to certain piece of furniture, “собака - dog” refers to certain type of animal. It is clear that not all language signs are things or living-beings, but they may refer also to actions as “идти”, to qualities- “большой”. They are called the referents of a sign; the relation between its sign and referent is called **referencial meaning**.

The referent of the sign isn’t a separately taken single subject, process, but the whole class of them. If a concrete quality is meant we deal with denotation. We may compare “table” is a piece of furniture. In the first sentence “table” is a word with referential meaning in the second it’s the denotant. We use a language as a system of signs in the process of communication. We express our attitude to these referents. We may compare Russian words, which express by one and the same referent, but different subjective relations. These subjective, emotional relations are called pragmatic relations and the meaning – **pragmatic meaning**.

One must remember that not any sign exists in isolation, but function as a component part of a certain sign system. Any sign is in complicated and multifarious relations with other signs of the sign system. Ex.: in Russian “стол” is in definite relations with the words “кресло” in different types of relations with the words “круглый”, “деревянный”.

The relation of a sign to other signs of the some sign system is called intra-linguistic relations, **the meaning intra-linguistic**. The semantic structure of the sign is composed of three components – **referential, pragmatic** and **intra-linguistic** meanings and they are interconnected. The transformation of these three meanings mainly depends on the type of text in the texts, where we deal mainly with factual information. The main attention is paid to the transformation of referential meaning. In texts with contextual information pragmatic meaning takes an advantage.

Lecture 26. Development of Mathematical Linguistics and Engineering Language.

1. Mathematical Linguistics.

2. Computational Linguistics.

1. Mathematical Linguistics.

For someone the term “Mathematical Linguistics” denotes a rather narrowly circumscribed set of issues including automata theory, set theory, and lambda calculus with maybe a little formal language theory thrown in.

Development of Linguistic Theory increases interest so Structural and Mathematic of studying languages. On the one hand, the structural linguistic view-points began to be criticised, on the other hand, it’s approached to logical mathematic linguistics and semiotics.

Semiotics (семиотика – врачебная наука о признаках болезни) is a study of human communication, especially the relationship between words and objects or concepts they represent.

In 1960 for the first time different compilled articles were published in “News in Linguistics”. It was full of popular ideas of structuralizm. Structuralizm is an approach to various areas study, literary criticism, linguistics, seeks to identify underlying patterns, especially as they might reflect patterns of behaviour or thought in society as a whole.

It should be noted that since that time the problems of semiotics, language structure and its stratification began to be discussed in those articles. Stratification means the formation of layers of sedimentary on the earth’s crust, the way in which these layers are arranged and an act of stratifying or stratified.

Sedimentary matter denotes any of group of rocks, line-stone or sand-stone that have formed as a result of the accumulation and the compaction of layers of

sediments. The question states of the mathematic linguistics. Three main approaches can be noted:

1) Mathematic Linguistics is considered to be Lingua-Mathematic – Mathematic is the subject developing on the basis of interest to the problem of linguistics. It is also the science, which deals with measurements numbers and shapes, usually expressed symbols. This is not a part of linguistics because the later deals with concrete laanguages, but the former deals with abstract notions, particularly used in linguistics as matters of different aspect of the language. Lingua-mathematics deals with meta-language and meta-theory.

Meta-language is a system of symbols used to discuss another language or symbolic system. It is a language described by means of another language. This language is also a language, into which a programme is translated by a compiler. These words fate interest from the point of such disciplines as mathematic logic, the theory of algorithm, typology and the theory of Graph. Graph is an instrument for writing information. Their linguistic meaning deeds to be proved.

2) Mathematic Linguistics is understood as connecting some mathematical ideas with linguistic ideas and methods. On the one hand, this is the relation of structural and semiotics ideas and applying of investigation, on the other hand, it is the relation of mathematical ideas with theory information of machine translating. In this sense, mathematical linguistics can be used here.

3) Finally, those research works belong to mathematical linguistics, which are used symbols and logics as well as statistic ideas and methods. It is a traditional linguistics, which is used models and statistics. In the middle of the XX-th century engineering linguistics developed rapidly.

This is a application of scientific knowledge, especially that concerned with matter and energy to the practical problem of design, operation and maintenance of devices encountered in life. Engineering linguistics began to be appeared as experimental phonetics. This past tries out new styles and technics or is used in

experiments. It was founded by ***V.A.Bogoroditsky***. He founded the laboratory of experimental phonetics in Kazan University; in 1899 Bulich organized such kind of laboratory in Pitsburge University and after his death Shirta deeded it.

In Azerbaijani such kind of laboratory was organized by ***Z.Tagizade*** in 1968. A lot of experimental research works have been made comparatively in this laboratory. We can note some scholars, who are closely connected with this laboratory and have made a lot of experimental results. They are ***F.Aslanov, F.Veysalov, F.Zeynalov, I.Mirzayev, S.Najafov***, etc.

Experimental phonetics embraces three devices:

1) Somatics;

2) Pneumatics;

3) Electro-acoustic.

Somatic device refers or relates to the body rather than the mind. It refers or relates to the body as opposed to reproduction. Main phonetic devices here are palatography, photography of organs of speech articulation, x-ray operators, etc.

In pneumatic device we understand that the curved lines, which are registered the pronunciation of the action of speech organs and their changes in main tone in the mouth and nasal cavities.

Electro-acoustic device is the technology of converting sounds into electrical energy and vice-versa. It is also used both acoustic and computer generated sum. Experimental phonetics devices fight and exact articulatory and acoustic features of speech sounds, formal structure. Formal structure is the dominant components, which determine the particular sound quality of all vowels and sound consonants being peaks of acoustic energy, which reflect the principal points of resonance in the vocal tract. Linguistic phonetics has a great role in solving modern problems of machine translating. Without exaggerating it should reach the linguistic theory with its achievements.

A. Kornai's contribution of the term "Mathematical Linguistics" is refreshingly different in that he treats, in this relatively compact volume, practically all areas of linguistics, phonetics and speech and language processing (2008).

A. Kornai's motivation for writing the book is to present "a single entry point to the central methods and concepts of linguistics that are made largely inaccessible to the mathematician, computer scientist, or engineer by the surprisingly adversarial style of argumentation ... and the proliferation of unmotivated notation and formalism ... all too often encountered in research papers and monographs in the humanities" (2008).

There is no question that much of what passes for rigor (mathematical and scientific) in linguistics is a joke, and that there is clearly a need for any work that can place the field on a more solid footing.

A primary concern of Mathematical Linguistics is to effectively enumerate those sets of words, sentences, etc., that play some important linguistic role. Typically, this is done by means of generating the set in question, a definitional method that is introduced by means of examples and counterexamples that show the similarities and the differences between the standard mathematical use of the term "generate" and the way it is employed in Linguistics.

The fundamental unit of linguistics is the sign, which, as a first approximation, can be defined as a conventional pairing of sound and meaning. By conventional we mean both that signs are handed down from generation to generation with little modification and that the pairings are almost entirely arbitrary, just as in bridge, where there is no particular reason for a bid of two clubs in response to one no trump to be construed as an inquiry about the partner's major suits.

One of the earliest debates in linguistics, dramatized in Plato's Cratylus, concerns the arbitrariness of signs. One school maintained that for every idea there is a true sound that expresses it best, something that makes a great deal of sense for

onomatopoeic words (describing e.g. the calls of various animals) but is hard to generalize outside this limited domain.

Ultimately the other school prevailed (J.Lyons, 1968) at least as far as the word-level pairing of sound and meaning is concerned.

Morphology, the study of the shape and structure of words, is a field that brings into sharp relief what are perhaps the most vexing aspects of linguistics from a mathematical perspective: radical typological differences, flexible boundaries, and near-truths.

Mild typological differences are common to most fields of study. For example, the internal organs of different primates are easily distinguished by experts yet differ only mildly, so that a person who knows something about gorillas and knows human anatomy well can make a reasonable guess about the position, shape, size, and functioning of gorilla livers without ever having seen one.

Radical typological differences are much less common. Continuing with the analogy, one knowledgeable about the internal sex organs of males but not of females would have a hard time guessing their position, shape, size, or functioning.

In morphology, radical typological differences abound: no amount of expert knowledge about Modern English is sufficient to make a reasonable guess e.g. about the case system of Modern Russian, in spite of the fact that the two languages descended from the same Indoeuropean origins.

Mathematics, on the whole, is much better suited for studying mild (parametric) typological differences than radical ones.

The theory of syntax addresses three strongly interconnected ranges of facts. The first of these is the combinatorical possibilities of words. It is very clear that “The boys ate” is a sentence of ordinary English, while four other permutations of these three elements, “The ate boys”, “Ate boys the”, “Boys the ate”, and “Boys ate the” are outside the bounds of ordinary English. The remaining one “Ate the boys?” is harder

to pass judgment on, but it seems clear that its stylistic value is very different from that of the first sentence.

Similarly, speakers of English will strongly agree that “The boys eat” and “The boy eats” are ordinary sentences of the language, while “The boy eat” and “The boy ates” are not, a highly generalizable observation that justifies the statement, familiar to all from school grammar, that predicates agree with their subjects in person and number.

To the mathematician encountering linguistic semantics for the first time, the whole area appears as a random collection of loosely connected philosophical puzzles, held together somewhat superficially by terminology and tools borrowed from logic. Some of the puzzles that played a significant role in the development of linguistic semantics from a narrow utilitarian perspective: suppose an appropriate technique of mathematical logic can be found to deal with the philosophical puzzle - how much does it help us in dealing with the relationship between grammatical expressions and their meaning? - must be discussed.

Grammars are imperfect models of linguistic behavior. To the extent that we are more interested in competence than in performance, this is actually desirable, but more typically discrepancies between the predictions of the model and the observables represent serious over- or undergeneration.

There is, moreover, an important range of models and phenomena where it is not quite obvious which of the cases above obtain. Suppose the task is to predict the rest of the series 2, 3, 5, ... A number of attractive hypotheses present themselves: the prime numbers, the Fibonacci numbers, square-free numbers, the sequence 2, 3, 5, 2, 3, 5, 2, 3, 5, ..., and so on.

The empirically minded reader may object that the situation will be greatly simplified if we obtain a few more data points, but this is quite often impossible: the set of actual human languages cannot be extended at will.

In general, the pattern recognition task is defined as one where an infinite, continuous set of inputs is associated with a finite variety of outputs.

A typical example is face recognition, where the goal is to identify the face as belonging to the same person in spite of changes in viewing angle, distance, light, makeup and hairdo, facial expression, etc.

We speak of linguistic pattern recognition when the set of outputs is structured linguistically. This means both that the output units of linguistic significance follow each other in discrete time (e.g. a temporal succession of letters, words, or sentences) and that these units themselves come from a finite (or finitely generated) set. We could stretch the definition to include data that lack temporal organization. For example, the recognition of isolated characters is considered by many to be a linguistic pattern recognition task, especially in the case of Han and Hangul characters, which can be decomposed spatially though not necessarily temporally (R.Sproat, 2000). However, no amount of stretching the definition will allow for face or fingerprint recognition, as the output in these domains can be made finite only by imposing some artificial cutoff or limitation on the system.

Conceptually, the techniques of linguistic pattern recognition are largely independent of the medium, but overall performance is influenced by the preprocessing to such an extent that until a few years ago the pattern recognition step was generally viewed as a small appendix to the main body of signal processing knowledge.

To this day, it remains impossible to build a serious system without paying close attention to preprocessing, and deep algorithmic work on the recognizer will often yield smaller gains than seemingly more superficial changes to the front end.

A speech coding method, linear prediction, that has played an important role in practical application since the 1970-s and a discussion of the Fourier transform-based (homomorphic) techniques that currently dominate the field has a great importance.

2. Computational Linguistics.

As it is well-known, **Computational Linguistics** is an interdisciplinary field concerned with the statistical or rule-based modeling of natural language from a computational perspective, as well as the study of appropriate computational approaches to linguistic questions.

Traditionally, Computational Linguistics was performed by computer scientists who had specialized in the application of computers to the processing of a natural language.

Today, computational linguists often work as members of interdisciplinary teams, which can include regular linguists, experts in the target language, and computer scientists. In general, computational linguistics draws upon the involvement of linguists, computer scientists, and experts in artificial intelligence, mathematicians, logicians, philosophers, cognitive scientists, cognitive psychologists, psycholinguists, anthropologists and neuroscientists among others.

Computational Linguistics has theoretical and applied components. Theoretical computational linguistics focuses on issues in theoretical linguistics and cognitive science, and applied computational linguistics focuses on the practical outcome of modeling human language use.

Computational Linguistics is often grouped within the field of artificial intelligence, but actually was present before the development of artificial intelligence. Computational linguistics originated with efforts in the United States in the 1950-s to use computers to automatically translate texts from foreign languages, particularly Russian scientific journals, into English.

Since computers can make arithmetic calculations much faster and more accurately than humans, it was thought to be only a short matter of time before they could also begin to process language. Computational and quantitative methods are also used historically in attempted reconstruction of earlier forms of modern languages and subgrouping modern languages into language families.

Earlier methods such as lexicostatistics and glottochronology have been proven to be premature and inaccurate. However, recent interdisciplinary studies which borrow concepts from biological studies, especially gene mapping, have proved to produce more sophisticated analytical tools and more trustworthy results.

When machine translation (also known as mechanical translation) failed to yield accurate translations right away, automated processing of human languages was recognized more far more complex than had originally been assumed.

Computational Linguistics was born as the name of the new field of study devoted to developing algorithms and software for intelligently processing language data. The term "Computational Linguistics" it was first coined by ***David Hays***, founding member of both the Association for Computational Linguistics and the International Committee on Computational Linguistics.

When artificial intelligence came into existence in the 1960s, the field of computational linguistics became that sub-division of artificial intelligence dealing with human-level comprehension and production of natural languages.

In order to translate one language into another, it was observed that one had to understand the grammar of both languages, including both morphology (the grammar of word forms) and syntax (the grammar of sentence structure). In order to understand syntax, one had to also understand the semantics and the lexicon (or "vocabulary"), and even something of the pragmatics of language use.

Thus, what started as an effort to translate between languages evolved into an entire discipline devoted to understanding how to represent and process natural languages using computers?

Nowadays research within the scope of computational linguistics is done at computational linguistics departments, computational linguistics laboratories, computer science departments, and linguistics departments.

Some research in the field of computational linguistics aims to create working speech or text processing systems while others aim to create a system allowing

human-machine interaction. Programs meant for human-machine communication are called **conversational agents**.

Lecture 27. Contrastive Structure Studies of Native and Foreign Languages (Non-kindred Languages).

1. Contrastive Linguistics and Language Comparison.
2. Contrastive Linguistics and Historical Comparative Linguistics.
3. Contrastive Analysis and Microvariation.
4. Contrastive Analysis and Intercultural Communication.
5. Synchronic Orientation, Granularity, Comparison of Language Pairs, Perspective, Falsifiability, Theoretical Framework – the Main Issues of Conclusion.

What **Contrastive Analisys** shares with Language Teaching is the synchronic orientation, but these two sub-fields of comparative linguistics differ greatly in their scope, in their granularity and in their explanations.

Contrastive Structure Studies mean that genetic affinity between languages is not taken into account. Thus, in contrastive structure studies of English, Azerbaijani and Russian we are to speak about the structural similarities and differences.

There are different approaches to the nature of language. There are different definitions of languages given by various scholars. Only basing upon theoretical problems, we can solve it correctly.

The social nature of language is based on its being a product of human society. Language is created by higher society and it exists only in human society. There is no language outside the society in the world. Language can be understood if it is studied in close connection with the history of human society.

The question "What is language" should be answered by learning it. There are many languages both great and small. According to modern calculations the number of living languages exceeds more than 7000. Every language has its own sound system, basic word-stock and grammatical structure. According to the relations some of the languages are alike, but here we use the word "alike" relatively.

Of course, some of these languages greatly differ from one another, like English and Azerbaijani. So, according to their relations we speak of genetical affixations of languages and according to their grammatical structure we speak of their morphological classification. According to genetic structure they are divided into family groups. Languages from one family are historically related. They are:

1) Indo-European (Hindo – Romantic: Russian, English);
2) Altayic (Tatar, Azerbaijani, Uigur, Uzbek, Turkman);
3) Chino-Tibetian (Chinese languages);
4) Hamito-Semitic languages (Arabic);
5) Dravidian (Tamil, Fellobu);
6) Malayan – Polenisio (spoken in Malayi-Peninsula);
7) Bantu (in East Africa);
8) Caucasian (Georgian);

9) Languages families of North America.

As it seen, there English and Russian languages belong to the Indo-European family. According to their grammatical structure, languages are classified morphologically. This classification considers the grammatical form. The most family's classification of languages by their structure contains four groups:

1) Isolating (Chinese);

2) Flectional (Indo-European and Semitic languages – Russian, English, etc.);

3) Agglutinative (Turkish, Azerbaijani, etc.);

4) Incorporating or polysynthetic (Chukchi, languages of American Indians).

The flectional languages are divided into synthetic and analytic. In the synthetic languages, the grammatical relations between words are expressed by inflexions. In analytic languages the sentence is of prime importance and the grammatical meanings are expressed by words in a fixed order.

The characteristic feature of agglutinative language is that a large number of sticks are added to the unchangeable root of the words. These suffixes expressed syntactic relations in the sentence.

In dealing with contrastive structure studies of English, Russian and Azerbaijani languages, it should be noted that there are two different kinds of comparison of languages.

The first type is based on infering historical development among particular related languages. This comparison, probably, the one best – known to the general public is historically oriented comparison.

While comparing Azerbaijani, Tatar, Turkish, Turkman, etc. kindred Altayic languages, we can see the certain grammatical categories of one and the same meaning or remaining unchanged. But the comparison of the second type is based on the resemblance of features between different unrelated languages without any historical consideration being involved. Therefore, we call it **contrastive structure studies**.

In 1966 the Czech linguist ***V.Skalichka*** in his work "To the question of typology" tried to establish the features that form one or another type. He selected only grammatical features. One of such features, he considered, stable word order in the sentence for agglutinative, flectional and isolating types.

For flectional and isolating types word order is such: Subject + Predicate + Object, for example, "Я читаю книгу."; "I am reading a book."; "ich lese ein Buch.", but for agglutinative type – word order is: S + O + P, for example, "Mən bir kitab oxuyuram". Then ***V.Skalichka*** marked in the agglutinative languages a lot of participles, infinitives, verbal nouns.

Any research made on this field of comparison helps teaching and learning languages of different systems and families. The significance of the later comparison can't only be limited by the above mentioned idea. The comparison of unrelated languages is necessary for future machine translating, too.

Excluding some works written in contrastive structure studies by professor ***Z.Verdiyeva***, assistant professor ***R.Gayibova,*** associate professor ***O.Musayev*** and Doctor of Science, professor ***N.Valiyeva*** this field remains unresearched. No attempt is taken in this field abroad either. Without going into details, only some research works were written abroad.

C.J.Simpson, an English scientist, is the author of the research work: "The Turkish language of the Soviet Azerbaijan". This work is about the sound system and morphology of the Azerbaijani language. His purpose was to give some brief idea on the phonology and morphology of the Azerbaijani language.

W.Fred, Householder is the author of "Basic Course in Azerbaijani". This work was published in Indiana University in America.Though it deals with the Azerbaijani language, but really it is a manual designed to help those, who wish to learn spoken Azerbaijani. Another author ***Tabrizi*** presented the dialogue in that book, but that was written very vague, too.

As far as the most basic contrasts between two languages are concerned, Contrastive Analysis can simply be based on the findings of typology, as summarized in the relevant articles, handbooks and surveys (***M.Haspelmath***, 2001, 2004; ***Sae Jung Song***, 2010).

The major contrasts between such well-described language pairs as English and German or English and French, for example, are well-known. German differs from English inter alia in its basic constituent orders, in the availability of a case system and the use of case-dependent rules, in having a gender system for all nouns and in its preservation of traditional inflectional categories for nouns verbs and adjectives.

French, like all Romance languages, differs from English inter alia in the categorical status of its pronouns, which occur as clitics in preverbal positions, in its two-term gender system and in its elaborate inflectional systems for verbs, primarily in the written language.

A contrastive study will go beyond such basic statements of similarity and contrast and explore contrasts and properties of languages that would not even be noticed without such a comparison. It is often precisely the periphery rather than the well-known core of two languages, specific constructions rather than general structures that stand in the center of attention.

It is the major goal of typologists to show that languages do not "vary randomly and without limits", as was assumed by structuralists like ***M. Joos***, but in recent years their program of finding language universals has met with increasing skepticism from people carrying out fieldwork on little-described and endangered languages (***N.Evans*** & ***S.Levinson***, 2009).

The scope of contrastive studies is typically limited to two languages which play an important role as source and target languages in the teaching of foreign languages. The scope of typology is unlimited and panchronic, even if for practical purposes a representative sample is taken as a point of departure.

Another way of describing this difference in scope is to say that typology analyzes a few parameters of variation across a wide variety of languages, whereas the goal of Contrastive Analisys is to analyze many parameters of variation in only two (or three) languages (***J.A.Hawkins***, 1986).

It is along these lines of a comprehensive comparison of two languages that the goal of providing a holistic typology of two languages can at least be envisaged (***Günter Rohdenburg***, 1990; ***Ekkehard König***, 1996).

Ekkehard König noticed that after receiving enthusiastic support during the sixties and seventies of the XX-st century the program of "Contrastive Linguistics" led a somewhat modest, if not marginal, existence during the two subsequent decades (2012).

The main reason for the apparent failure of this program was, of course, that the high hopes seen in its potential for making foreign language teaching more efficient were disappointed. Empirical work on the process of the second language - acquisition from different native languages as starting points showed that contrastive linguistics cannot simply be equated with a theory of foreign language acquisition.

A second problem was that a central aspect of the contrastive program, i.e. the writing of comprehensive contrastive grammars for language pairs, was hardly ever properly implemented.

Finally, there was the problem of finding a place of contrastive linguistics within the spectrum of language comparison, relative to other comparative approaches to linguistic analysis. It is the third of these issues that is addressed by the following article. It will be shown that only by relating contrastive linguistics to other subfields of comparative linguistics and by delimiting it from them will we obtain a clear picture of its agenda, its potential and its limits.

1. Contrastive Linguistics and Language Comparison.

The program of "Contrastive Linguistics" was formulated in the sixties and seventies of the last century, with the primary objective of making foreign language teaching more efficient (***R.Lado***, 1957; ***J.E.Alatis***, 1986; ***F.Aarts***, 1982).

After a brief period of enthusiastic support, however, this approach to language comparison has led a somewhat modest, if not marginal existence. Quite often, authors and organizers of conferences use the term almost apologetically; pointing out that their contrastive study is really a small-scale instance of a typology, of a theoretical study or of something similar. There are several reasons for this insecurity.

One reason certainly goes back to the ill-conceived idea held by many of its early proponents that Contrastive Analysis was tantamount to a theory of second language acquisition. After several years of trying to implement part of the program nobody holds this view any more. It is now generally accepted that the relationship, i.e. the similarities and the contrasts, between mother tongue and a foreign language to be learnt is only one of the factorsthat enter into the process of learning a foreign language and of planning its teaching (***G.Wienold***, 1973).

Moreover, many tests, experiments and large-scale empirical surveys have been carried out and given us a realistic picture of whether and how contrasts in the systems of two languages have an influence on learning and performance (***M.Caroll*** & ***M.Lambert***, 2006; ***C.von Stutterheim*** & ***M.Lambert***, 2005; ***J.A.Hawkins*** & ***L. Filipović***, 2011).

A second problem was the fact that a central aspect of the contrastive program, i.e. the writing of comprehensive contrastive grammars for relevant pairs of languages, was never or hardly ever properly implemented.

Most of the early attempts at writing such grammars (***W.Moulton***, 1962; ***H.L.Kufner***, 1962; ***W.Lohnes*** & ***E.Hopkins***, 1982) do not have the required depth or granularity as far as their prosodic, syntactic and morphological parts are concerned. Nor had they given much thought to the problem of selecting relevant data for their

analyses. This situation is now changing; there are many hopeful beginnings, i.e. substantial parts of such grammars already available or at least under construction.

An important contribution to this part of the program is also made in ***E.König*** & ***V.Gast*** (2007). Furthermore, ***S. Johansson*** (2007) and others have drawn attention to and demonstrated the use of parallel electronic corpora for contrastive work. The discovery and development of these new resources have certainly led toa reorientation of contrastive linguistics and contributed to its awakening from an almost dormant state.

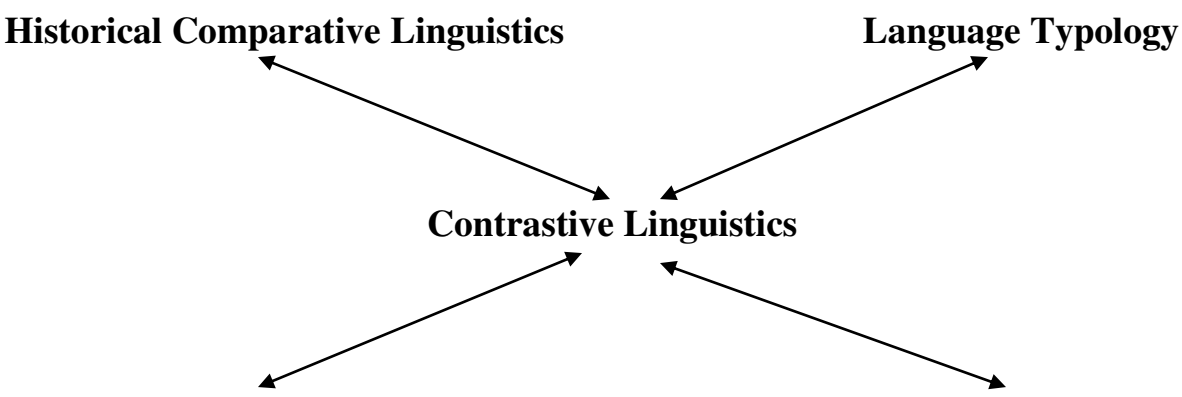
Finally, there was the problem of finding a place of contrastive linguistics within the spectrum of language comparison, relative to other comparative approaches to linguistic analysis, i.e. **historical comparative linguistics, language typology, microvariation (comparative dialectology)** and **intercultural communication**.

It will be shown that only by relating contrastive linguistics to and by delimiting it from other subfields of comparative linguistics will we obtain a clear picture of its agenda, its potential and its limits.

What contrastive linguistics shares with these other approaches is its focus on variation between languages and within a language, but it clearly has its own agenda, even if it partly overlaps with these other approaches in certain respects.

The scope of our discussion can be illustrated by the following diagram: historical comparative linguistics language typology contrastive linguistics microvariation (comparative dialectology), intercultural communication.

The scope of our discussion can be illustrated by the following diagram:



Microvariation (Comparative Dialectology) Intercultural Communication

Figure 1

We will compare the goals and the potential of contrastive linguistics step by step with those of the other approaches to language comparison placed into the four corners of Figure 1 and in doing so establish a clear agenda and profile for this field.

2. Contrastive Linguistics and Historical Comparative Linguistics

In contrast to Historical Comparative Linguistics (HCL), the oldest branch of comparative linguistics, contrastive analysis (CA) is neither concerned with historical developments nor with the problem of describing genetic relationships.

Contrastive Analysis is purely synchronic in its orientation and a comparison between the vowel systems of German and Finnish or between the form, meaning and use of reflexive markers in English and Mandarin Chinese is just as relevant as the corresponding comparisons between the relevant systems in genetically related languages (***I.Hyvärinen***, 2001).

In addition to its purely synchronic orientation Contrastive Analysis also differs in its scope from historical contrastive linguistics, since it is typically concerned with a comparison of corresponding subsystems in only two languages.

In spite of these differences Contrastive Linguistics and Historical Comparative Linguistics may overlap if two genetically related languages are examined for shared structures and contrasts. In that case contrastive linguistics can build on the findings of Historical Comparative Linguistics, which also provides the relevant explanation of the contrasts as a result of geographic separation, contact with other languages and inbuilt drifts.

A contrastive analysis will then often resemble a description of contrasts between two consecutive stages in the historical development of two languages. Many examples can be given of such partial overlap between the goals and findings of Historical Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Analysis.

It is a well-known fact that the distribution of the sentential negation marker not in English is very different from that of the German counterpart nicht (***J.Jacobs***, 1982; ***W.Harbert***, 2007, p. 376-92).

The following examples illustrate this difference between typology and Contrastive Analysis in the granularity of their observations.

If the negation marker not does not include quantifiers or other operators in its scope - as it does in (a) - its standard position is after the first auxiliary verb (b).

Furthermore, not may fuse with a following indefinite article (a) or pronoun (any) to no (c-d), with the effect of a subtle contrast in meaning:

a) Not many arrows hit the target.

b) Many arrows did not hit the target.

c) George is no scientist.

d) George is not a scientist.

In German, by contrast, the negation marker nicht occurs as closely as possible before the elements in its scope and is thus extremely flexible in its distribution (a-b). Fusion between nicht and a following indefinite expression to kein is possible and may even be obligatory, but this process is not only sensitive to positional restrictions (adjacency), as it also is in English, but also to stress and to focusing (c-e):

a) Nicht viele Pfeile haben die Scheibe getroffen.

b) Viele Pfeile haben die Scheibe nicht getroffen.

c) Georg ist kein Wissenschaftler.

If the indefinite phrase is stressed or part of a focused phrase, fusion is excluded (d-e-f):

d) Ich möchte mit keinem Studenten sprechen. – I don't want to talk to any student.

e) Ich möchte nicht mit EINEM Studenten sprechen. – I don't want to talk to a single student.

f) Ich möchte nicht einem Verbrecher in die Hände fallen. – I don't want to fall into the hands of a criminal.

The relevant change, which further separated English from German, occurred in Early Modern English. In Shakespearean English we still find the negation marker after main verbs. The introduction of positional restrictions for not had consequences for scope marking in general.

In contrast to German, where the scope of nicht is generally marked by word order, the corresponding English sentences are either ambiguous (a-b) or express the relevant contrast by lexical rather than grammatical means, as in (c-d-e-f) (***E.König***, 1992):

a) Der Direktor wäscht sein Auto nicht selbst. – The director doesn't wash his car himself.

b) Der Direktor wäscht sein Auto selbst nicht. – The director doesn't wash his car himself.

c) John did not talk to any students. – John hat mit keinen Studenten gesprochen.

d) John did not talk to some students. – John hat mit einigen Studenten nicht gesprochen.

e) John did not want to study Russian, either. – John wollte auch nicht Russisch studieren.

f) John did not want to study Russian, too. – John wollte nicht auch (noch) Russisch studieren.

The introduction of a positional restriction for negation, except in cases like (2a), occurred in close connection with another well-known contrast between the two Germanic languages under discussion. English draws a strict distinction between two

classes of verbs, between main verbs and auxiliary verbs, in German some of the counterparts of English modal auxiliaries also have properties that distinguish them from most main verbs, but the relevant historical process of differentiating two classes of verbs is much further advanced in English than it is in German (***F.Plank***, 1984).

Again Shakespearean English is much closer to German than is Modern English. One of the crucial properties of auxiliary verbs in English is that they can no longer combine with objects or directional complements and thus function as the sole predicate of a sentence. The modal auxiliary must, for example, can no longer combine with a directional expression to form a complete sentence, in contrast to both Shakespearean English and Modern German, nor can the auxiliary can combine with a direct object as its counterpart in German:

a) I must away. (Shakespeare)

b) Ich muss weg. (German)

c) I must go away. (Modern English)

d) Ich kann diese Aufgabe.

e) I can solve this problem.

These contrasts between English and German are well-known. What they are meant to illustrate here is that a contrastive description of these phenomena overlaps significantly with a historical syntactic description of Germanic languages (***W.Harbert***, 2007).

This overlap and potential for cooperation between Contrastive Analysis and Historical Comparative Linguistics can also be illustrated with more fine-grained and subtle developments currently under way. It is a characteristic feature of the German system of deictic expressions that a distinction is drawn between the deictic directional particles hin- (away from the speaker / center of orientation) and her- (towards the speaker / center of orientation), which combine with prepositions (hinauf, herunter) and the interrogative pronoun wo (woher, wohin) to form

directional adverbials. This distinction is neutralized in combination with prepositions in informal spoken German, as the following examples show:

a) Wir schwimmen über den Fluss. – Wir schwimmen jetzt hinüber zu dir. – We are swimming across to you.

b) Ich bin auf der anderen Seite des Flusses. – Schwimm doch herüber zu mir. Why don't you swim across to me!

c) Wir schwimmen jetzt rüber. – Schwimm doch rüber.

d) Geh doch rein / hinein. – Komm doch rein/herein. – Why don't you go / come in.

Interestingly enough, Modern German is here following the lead of Yiddish, where the relevant neutralization occurred much earlier:

a) Zi geyt arayn un er geyt aroys. – She is going in and he is coming out.

b) Aroyf 'up', arieber 'over';

In cases like these synchronic comparisons of two genetically related languages make us aware of changes more or less completed in one language and currently under way in another. For reasons yet to be identified one language is following the lead of the other.

Another instance of similar changes occurring in two genetically related languages at different stages in their development concerns conditionals whose protasis takes the form of an interrogative, i.e. manifests subject-auxiliary inversion in English and verb-first order in German:

a) Had I known this I would not have gone there.

b) Hätte ich das gewusst, dann wäre nicht hingegangen.

These conditionals can be analyzed as the result of syntacticizing discourse: A question is raised as a pre-sequence to another conversational move, a positive answer is anticipated and the intended speech act is added as a consequence (***van den Nest***, 2010), for example:

Lieben Sie Brahms? (Ja!) Dann lade ich Sie zu einem Konzert am Montag ein. – Do you like Brahms? Then I'll invite you to a concert on Monday. ⇒ Lieben Sie Brahms, dann lade ich Sie zu einem Konzert am Montag ein. – If you like Brahms, I'll invite you to a concert on Monday.

In both English and German such conditionals were common in earlier periods of their historical development and manifested few, if any, restrictions (***van den Nest***, 2010).

In Present-Day English they are only found in combination with three auxiliary verb forms: "had", "should" and "were", like:

a) Had I known this I would not have gone there.

b) Should he come earlier we might be able to eat out.

c) Were he to reveal these secrets it would be a catastrophe for international diplomacy.

In German there are no restrictions for the use of such verb-first conditionals as far as the selection of a verb, a tense or a grammatical mood is concerned (***M.Reis*** & ***A.Wöllstein***, 2010). The only major change that can be observed in the historical development of these conditionals is an increase in the integration of the protasis into the main clause by omitting the correlative pronouns (so, dann) and placing the protasis into the position immediately preceding the finite verb of the main clause as in d):

a) Kommt er rechtzeitig, so/dann können wir ins Theater gehen. 'If he comes back in time we can go to the movies.

b) Kam er rechtzeitig nach Hause, so gingen wir regelmäßig ins Theater. – If he came back in time we regularly went to the movies.

c) Käme er zu spät, so könnten wir nicht mehr ins Theater gehen. – If he were late we could not go to the theatre anymore.

d) Hätte ich das gewusst, wäre ich nicht hingegangen. – Had I known that, I would not have gone there.

Nevertheless, the somewhat formal stylistic quality of the last examples in show that there is a clear preference for modal verbs or conjunctions in German, too.

As yet there is no quantitative study that would demonstrate this clearly, but the following reformulations show that examples with Modal verbs or conjunctions are much more common in spoken German, for instance:

a) Wenn er rechtzeitig kommt…Kann er rechtzeitig kommen… – If he comes in time…

b) Sollte er rechtzeitig nach Hause kommen… – If he comes home in time…

c) Wenn er rechtzeitig nach Hause kam… – I he came home in time…

d) Würde er zu spät kommen… – Should he be late…

Again, German seems to be undergoing a process of change that is much further advanced in English.

As a final example of a successful cooperation between Historical Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Analysis I'd like to mention trilateral studies investigating the relations between languages of a family.

A well-known example are the comparisons between English, German and Dutch initiated by ***C.B.van Haeringen*** (1956) and further pursued in ***M.Hüning*** (2006), which invariably led to the result that Dutch shares many properties with the other two Germanic languages and can be placed between these two on a scale of similarity and contrast.

Such trilateral comparisons illuminate analogous changes manifesting different temporal instantiations and also imply detailed descriptions of contrasts between the relevant languages.

3. Contrastive Analysis and Microvariation.

During the last twenty years or so dialectology has undergone a striking reorientation: In addition to the traditional domains lexicology and phonology, morphology and syntax became a major focus and dialectologists began to be

interested in comparative work on different dialects within a language, thus examining the patterns of variation within a language in analogy to the interlinguistic variation analyzed by typologists (***B.Kortmann***, 2004).

More often than not, this program is carried out within the framework of Generative Grammar (***C.Poletto***, 2000; ***H.G.Obenauer***, 2006) but there are also many functionally oriented projects under way.

For European languages like English, German, Italian, Swedish, French, etc. major surveys of microvariation are available and sometimes even major handbooks on variation in a particular language (***B.Kortmann*** & ***E.Schneider***, 2004). It is part of the goals of this approach tovariation to obtain a more realistic picture of a language and the scope and limits of variation within it.

On the other hand, these studies are also used as a testing ground for generative theory, for the further development of the Minimalist Program and for concepts of complexity.

How does Contrastive Analysis relate to this approach to linguistic variation and what are the possibilities of a fruitful and interesting interaction? First of all, there is a clear similarity and a major difference. Both programs are interested in language variation but microvariation is concerned with intralinguistic variation, whereas Contrastive Analysis is interested in interlinguistic variation.

Moreover, standard languages are the preferred object of study in Contrastive Analysis, whereas the whole wealth of manifestations of a single language is in focus in dialect studies.

On the other hand, the systematic study of variation in a language gives us a more realistic study of what needs tobe learned. Dialects may play a role in foreign language acquisition both as a starting point and as a target. The contrasts between two languages may look very different depending on whether dialects are taken into account or not, as ***B.Kortmann*** (2004) has shown for relative pronouns in English.

Most dialects of English do not have relative pronouns as the standard language does, but introduce these attributive clauses exclusively by various particles (that, what, as, such, etc.). Or, to give a different example, a characteristic feature of the vowel system of standard German, namely the opposition between unrounded [i, e] and rounded front vowels [y, ø] is not found in most dialects of German.

E.König had found dialectal observations interesting and useful because they provide information on gaps in one's data, e.g. on phenomena that one would expect on the basis of historical and cross-linguistic considerations, but does not find in the standard languages. This will be illustrated by two examples from the semantic and syntactic domain of reflexivity.

4. Contrastive Analysis and Intercultural Communication.

Most dialects of English do not have relative pronouns as the standard language does, but introduce these attributive clauses exclusively by various particles (that, what, as, such, etc.). Or, to give a different example, a characteristic feature of the vowel system of standard German, namely the opposition between unrounded [i, e] and rounded front vowels [y, ø] is not found in most dialects of German.

The last decades have also witnessed the growth and elaboration of another kind of language comparison, now generally called 'intercultural communication' or 'intercultural pragmatics' (***L.Samovar***, 2009). What this approach does is to compare language use rather than systems and in so doing reintroduce the cultural context into the comparison that is normally excluded in any analysis of langue or of competence.

In 1999 this sub-discipline of comparative linguistics also established its specific forum for publication, the Journal of International Communication, and the first issue of a thematically related journal (Journal of Intercultural Pragmatics) appeared five years later.

It is the legacy of structuralism that linguists from various schools of thought abstract from the contexts of use: from the cultural context, from the situational

context, from the social context, from the context of genre and to a large extent also from the historical context.

The only contextual parameters that are still taken into account in comparisons of language systems are more or less the following (***S.Levinson***, 1983): the coordinates of the speech situation including the relations between speaker and addressee (→ deixis), their preferences (→ speech act theory, conversational analysis), the status of speaker and addressee (→ politeness, honorifics), contextual assumptions based on Gricean principles of cooperative communication (→ conversational inference) and the current status of the communicative exchange (→ information structure).

All other aspects of contextual embedding are left to such newly established sub-fields as pragmatics, historical sociolinguistics and intercultural communication. This latter sub-field deals with the pragmatic side of language comparison, i.e. with contrasts between communicative norms and communicative behavior in context. The language and cultures selected for such comparisons are precisely those that play a role in regular and important interactions.

Let us consider a few examples of phenomena typically dealt with in this approach to language comparison that would also be of great interest to contrastive linguistics.

It is a well-known fact that languages may differ in the number of terms they have for addressing a single interlocutor and in the conditions relevant for the use of these terms. In English we have only one (you), in German and many other European languages we find two (du, Sie) and in Japanese we find 5 according to some counts, but as many as 15, according to other analyses. To take the simpler example of terms of referring to the speaker, English and German have one expression (I, ich) – unless we include such expressions as yours truly or meine Wenigkeit, whereas Japanese has as many as four for male speakers and three for female speakers. The system of first person pronouns in Japanese can roughly be described as follows:

	Formal			Informal
Male	watakushi	watashi	boku	ore
Female	watakushi	watashi	watashi	atashi

Figure 2: personal pronouns inJapanese.

The parameters of use relevant for these pronouns are roughly describable as "informal – formal" and "male – female", but are not easily identifiable in concrete situations.

Another example of differentiations and specific norms of use in a hierarchically structured society relates to verbs of giving and receiving in Japanese. Even the most elementary teaching manuals of Japanese mention two different verbs for "give" in English, one being glossed as "to humbly present" for situations where the speaker is the source of the transfer and the receiver occupies a middle social position (ageru, agemasu) and the other one (kureru, kuremasu) being used for acts of giving with the speaker as receiver. This distinction is essential even for elementary stages of using Japanese, but the overall system is much more complicated and can be described as follows:

Verbs of giving in Japanese:

Giver	Recipient	Status of Outgrouper	Verb
Ingroup	Outgroup	Low (W: Very low)	yaru
		Medium	ageru/agemasu – "to humbly present"
		High	o-age suru
		Very high	sashi-ageru

		Status of Ingrouper	
Outgroup	Ingroup	Low/Medium	kureru/kuremasu – "to hand down""
		High	kudasaru

Figure 3

The choice of verb roughly depends on whether giver and recipient belong to the 'ingroup' (same family, same company, etc.) or not, and on the social status of giver and recipient (low – medium – high).

The phenomena just described are part of honorific systems, found especially in languages with a strict hierarchical organization of their societies in current or former stages of their history. Other recurrent topics in the analysis of intercultural communication are inter alia the following:

- How to use/perform speech acts (criticize, request, apologize, greet, invite, declining offers);

- Communication in institutional settings: in the classroom; business cultures; negotiating; telephone calls;

- Culturally distinctive speech codes (e.g. dugri 'straight talk' in Israeli Sabra culture (open, direct, blunt, to the point));

A few additional examples will provide illustration of these topics.

Even though a culturally neutral terminology, assumed to be applicable to all kinds of communicative systems, is used to talk about speech acts in different languages and countries, various studies have shown that there are culture-specific ways of apologizing, of criticizing and of declining offers.

Analogous differences are found in communication activities in institutional settings, such as business negotiations. In particular, the implicit assumptions of early studies of speech act theories (***J.Searle***, 1969; ***S.Levinson***, 1983) that the felicity

conditions of specific speech act types and their formal encoding are more or less the same across languages have turned out to be not tenable (***I.Egner***, 2006; ***M.P.Fahey***, 2006; ***Jing Liu***, 2007).

In a wide variety of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies of speech acts like 'giving advice', 'requests', 'promises', 'apologies', etc. important differences have been revealed. In her article on the speech act of promising in Western cultures and African cultures ***I.Egner*** (2006), for example, points out that a firm commitment of the speaker is not part of the essential conditions of that speech act.

A promise in the African cultures studied appears to be used primarily as a means of politely closing a verbal exchange. Moreover, different metalinguistic speech act verbs are available in a number of West African languages to differentiate a binding promise from a non-binding one. In a much earlier study of these questions ***A.Wierzbicka*** (1985) showed that English, in contrast to Polish, places heavy restrictions on the use of the imperative for requests and orders, encouraging the use of interrogative and conditional forms instead.

These differences are shown to be a reflection of cultural differences, describable in terms of spontaneity, directness, intimacy and affection as opposed to indirectness, distance, tolerance and anti-dogmatism. In ***Jing Liu*** (2007) it is shown that letters of recommendation written in England and in China look quite different. And, to give one final example, ***M.P.Fahey*** (2006) shows that act of apologizing are expressed differently in Irish and in Chilean soap operas.

Whereas expressions of regret are the preferred option in the former, direct demands for forgiveness are primarily found in the latter. Intercultural contrasts in communication relevant in institutional settings are of special interest and practical value to businessmen and businesswomen. The rules of business negations in Japan, for example, are now known to be very different from those practiced in the United States or in Europe.

Kinship systems may be very differently organized in different societies and cultures.

Even if we still find different lexical distinctions in some European languages English or German: Onkel, Oheim), these distinctions are losing or have already lost their social significance as a result of parallel social developments. Striking contrasts, however, emerge, as soon as comparisons are carried out between European systems and systems of differentiations found in remote cultures, as for instance in New Caledonia.

In Paicî, a Melanesian language of this island, kinship terms are only differentiated for three generations, i.e. for a period of time that can be experienced by the average speaker. In other words the same expressions are used for a grandfather and a son, for a father and a grandson, and for the brother of the speaker himself and the male child of a grandchild. An analogous differentiation is found for female relatives (***I.Leblic***, 2006). This organization of a kinship system clearly reveals a cyclical conceptualization of time and thus an important background assumption for the interpretation of many utterances in that language. This conceptualization of time is clearly different from anything known of European languages.

Finally, there are culturally distinctive speech codes that play an important role in shaping the communication of a specific society. One well-known example is dugri 'straight talk' a distinctive speech style in Israeli Sabra culture. In her detailed study of dugri speech ***T.Katriel*** (1986; 2004) characterized it as "open, direct, blunt, to the point, sincere" as a manifestation of being true to oneself. In neglecting considerations of politeness and smoothness of interpersonal encounters, this speech code contrasts sharply with musayra, a culturally focal way of speaking and acting among Arabs.

5. Synchronic Orientation, Granularity, Comparison of Language Pairs, Perspective, Falsifiability, Theoretical Framework – the Main Issues of Conclusion.

On the basis of the preceding attempts to find a suitable place for Contrastive Linguistics within the spectrum of comparative approaches to linguistic analysis we are now in a position to summarize the essential components of its agenda:

Synchronic orientation. Contrastive Linguistics has a synchronic orientation. Comparative Historical Linguistics can provide explanations for contrasts and their interrelations between genetically related languages and Contrastive Analysis may identify problems and phenomena worth analyzing from a historical perspective, but it is only in the case of genetically related languages that such overlap and cooperation are possible.

Granularity. Contrastive Analysis is also concerned with fine-grained, in depth-analyses of similarities and contrasts that are generally inaccessible to typological generalizations. In that sense it is a complement to typology rather than a small-scale typology. For a Contrastive Analysis the availability vs. the lack of articles and the contrasts between the uses of articles in two languages are of equal interest.

This emphasis on fine granularity does not mean, however, that the focus is on isolated observations rather than generalizations, but these generalizations will look very different from the implicational statements and hierarchies of typology. Even though we find some interesting attempts to develop a field of lexical typology (***M.Koptjevskaja-Tamm, M.Vanhoeve*** and ***P.Koch***, 2007; ***N.Evans***, 2011).

So, lexical contrasts between two languages are best described in pairwise fashion or only for a small number of languages. That this does not preclude the possibility to make interesting generalizations is shown in ***F.Plank*** (1984a).

Comparison of language pairs. Contrastive Analysis is mainly concerned with bilateral language comparisons, between mother tongue and a foreign language (→ language teaching), between source language and target language (→ translation) or between first language and second language (→ bi-linguialism), depending on what kind of applications are envisaged. Extending the scope beyond two languages is only

possible if the goal of comprehensive comparisons is given up in favor of analyses of small fragments of languages as a first step towards a typology or an areal study.

It is precisely this restriction to a comparison of two languages which enables Contrastive Analysis to consider a wide variety of parameters of variation and get as close as possible to the goal of providing a holistic typology for a language.

The question which languages should be selected for comparison receives a different, though principled, answer in all five approaches to comparative linguistics discussed above: Historical Comparative Linguistics looks at languages of one single family, microvariation at varieties of a single language; language typology is all-embracing in its scope, even though its comparisons are confined to a representative sample of the world's languages.

Cross-cultural communication selects language uses from cultures and communities that interact regularly and Contrastive Analysis selects language pairs that play a role in language acquisition, in bilingualism or translation. It goes without saying that comparisons between "sundry languages" have no clear place in this system of Comparative Linguistics.

Perspective. Contrastive Analysis means describing one language from the perspective of another and will therefore reveal properties of languages that are not easily visible otherwise.

In other words, Contrastive Analysis has a great heuristic value for the analysis of highly language-specific properties. Different languages used as standards of comparison will in all likelihood lead to different descriptions. Different properties of a language will look remarkable, depending on the language used as standard of comparison. A contrastive analysis which does not lead to new insights is pointless.

Falsifiability. Just like the results of any serious scientific inquiry, those of contrastive descriptions are easily falsifiable, if they are expressed with precision and great explicitness. This means, of course, that they are in need of constant revision

and improvements. This statement also implies a certain criterion of adequacy: contrastive descriptions have to be given in a format that makes falsification possible.

Theoretical framework. The challenge for Contrastive Analysis lies in discovering the contrasts and describing them in a maximally general way and not in the choice of a specific theoretical format. Its explanandum is the contrasts between languages. Given that Contrastive Analysis is meant to have some relevance for language teaching and the training of foreign language teachers, its statements should avoid technical jargon. Enlightened versions of traditional grammar suitably enriched with insight from generative grammar and typology seems best suited to the task of delivering descriptions intelligible to a wider audience.

On the other hand, good contrastive descriptions may lead to modifications in national traditions of grammar writing. As soon as the typical properties mentioned above are extended in one way or another (e.g. by including more than two languages or several dialects of one language, by looking at the contextual embedding and use in communication, by looking at earlier stages of the languages under comparison) contrastive studies move into the direction of one of the other four approaches.

In conclusion, I would like to point out that none of the preceding statements is meant to be prescriptive in any way. The main point of the preceding discussion is that only by finding a place for Contrastive Linguistics in relation to other forms of language comparison will we be able togain a clearer picture of what contrastive linguistics is and what it is not.

Lecture 28. Comparative Typology and Methods of Teaching English.

Falling in the reality that Modern English is truly the Global language as the main means of world's communication, during the period of globalization in our modern society the problem of the National Azerbaijan language, especially of the literary language's norms and basic word stock is an actual.

We also must take into consideration that the Russian Federation is the biggest country in the world today for their territorial features. Its territory contains 17,100 000 square kilometers, whereas USA has 9,834 million square kilometers, the Europe 10,18 million square kilometers, Turkey has 783,562 thousands square kilometers, Azerbaijan has 86,600 square kilometers.

Intercultural communication between peoples is an integral attribute of the human society development. Not a single country, even the one considered most powerful in political and economic aspect, can meet cultural and aesthetic requests

and needs of the humankind without applying to the world cultural heritage, spiritual heritage of other countries and peoples. The modern world is developing towards globalization. In this regard, the issues about the role and the place of intercultural communication become an integral part of life both the humankind in general, as well as for the individual.

Thus, it can be concluded that there is a very close relationship between language and culture in general, and a specific language and its culture in particular. That is, culture has a direct effect on language. In fact, the two issues are closely correlated and interrelated. Language is the symbolic presentation of a nation or a specific community. In other words, language is the symbolic presentation of a culture. So, we must keep, develop and generalize the use of the national language as well as Azerbaijani national culture.

We must develop the national consciousness as it consists of the complex of individual, factional, sectional, class and universal concepts, i.e. concepts, having panhuman value. Because the existence of the universal concepts provides the possibility of common grount and public relations between peoples, that is so important in the modern world.

Today the cultural diplomacy is widely used with the purpose to develop the intercultural relations in the international intercourse.

An outreach of the Azerbaijani culture in the international scope, an awareness of the world's commonality, the development of the intellectual culture in the community, the realization of the intellectual-cultural struggle in the appropriate form that we met in the abroad, an active colleaguesmanship of the scientists in such processes are the relevant orientations and courses of the cultural diplomacy of the Azerbaijan Republic.

Nowadays there are the following characteristic features of our modern Azerbaijani society: the anciety, richness, a tendency of the dynamical development of the Azerbaijani cultural values, the activity of the cultural processes, an interest to

the civilized values, and the existence of the historical and modern practices in the sphere of the unification of the Islamic and European values, the tolerance.

The Azerbaijan Republic as the synthesis of the cultures of the East and West is as the member of the European Society, so the member of the UNESCO and ISESCO.

Analyzing the ways of the enrichment of the basic word stock of the Azerbaijani language in the period of the independence we knew that the means of mass media really play a great role and have the multilateral function in the society.

A propagating of the literary language, a spreading of the objective information, an increasing of the education, an acquaintance with the various cultures and their learning, an amusement, the upbuilding of the nexus between world's population, the learning of the foreign languages, and so on became the order of the day. If all this would be used in the appropriate form, the means of mass media play the supporting role in the way of the development of the forwarding population.

Nowadays it is an irrefutable fact that global English is the agile, transactional language, it has such kind of polyphony and diplomacy that keeps the pulse of modern world, at the same time it is in the ascendant and influences on the basic word stock of all world languages, including the Azerbaijani language. And during the process globalization a such affection must not be so much.

We, Azerbaijanians must to protect our mother tongue of that kind of impact and as the result of it, from the needless borrowings. Azerbaijan is the country of the ancient history and culture, has a rich national language, and realizes a subtile policy. And we must defend our historical past, support our present culture and develop our future national consciousness.

The study of relationship between English language proficiency, employment and success of graduates in the Azerbaijani Republic in the interface of globalization, the establishment how English and Russian language skills influence on the employment mechanism in the Azerbaijani job market for our native graduates will be carried out following approach as its overall aim is to understand the role of English

language skills of universuty graduates in determining the empoyment opprtunities and carrer prospects of Azerbaijani graduates.

The research findings may inform educational policy planners, teacher educators, teachers, employers and career advisers to identify the appropriate English and Russian language learning programmes that support increased employability through English and Russian.

My dissertation is called “Comparatively – Linguistic Analysis of the Phraseological Word – Combinations (on the material of the English, Azerbaijani and Russian Languages)”. The dissertation devoted to the research of the all system of the phraseological units, including the expressions and word-combinations of the different language families.

As you know, Azerbaijani belongs to Altaic language family, Turkic group, Oguz-Seldjuk subgroup, English belongs to Indo-European language family, German group, West-German subgroup, Russian belongs to Indo-European language family, Roman group, East-Slavonic subgroup and that’s why, linguistic analysis of the phraseological word-combinations presents a great interest for fundamental and profound study of these languages.

The dissertation consists of the introduction, three parts, a conclusion, a bibliography.

The first part devoted to the structural – semantic special features of the phraseological word-combinations.

The second part deals with the special features of the using of the phraseological word-combinations in speech: about the changing, this took place in the structure of the phraseological units; the actuality of the phraseological expressions in contextual environment; the influence of national and international special features in their using in speech.

The third part devoted to the researching of the spheres of the using of the phraseological word-combinations. It consists of five parts, where were researching

the following questions: the using of the phraseological word-combinations in the national colloquial language, in the language of the artistic literature, in scientific works, in journalism and lexicographical presentation of the phraseological word-combinations.

The above given contemplation allows to make a conclusion that the process of globalization is permanent. Under the circumstances the era of globalization has at least two tends regarding its cultural aspect development. On the one hand, globalization is changing the traditional lifestyles of people. But on the other hand, some adaptation and protecting functions of each culture are generated, so the process of globalization takes an extremely controversial format.

Within the bounds of intercultural communication, some common values and ideals (tolerance, equality of traditions, ethics and politics of responsibility) are being formed. However, the process of creation of commonalities within communicational interaction is not always smooth. For example, such universal values as human rights, which were accepted by western scholars as basic values, turn out to be incompatible with the political and cultural customs of many eastern countries.

Learning foreign languages gives the learners insight into the people, culture and traditions of other countries and helps them to understand their own language and culture. Language is the means of the forming, developing and keeping of the culture. Language and culture are closely interrelated.

Culture is the foundation of communication. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing and interpreting the world. Thus, the study of cross-cultural communication is fast becoming a global research area. As a result cultural differences in the study of cross-cultural communication can already be found.

The role of cultural learning in the foreign language auditorium has been the concern of many scholars and teachers and has sparked considerable controversy, yet its validity as an equal complement to language learning has often been overlooked or even impugned.

Language and culture are so intricately related that their boundaries, if any, are extremely blurred and it is difficult to become aware of the assumptions and the assumptions and expectations that we hold. It should be reiterated that language teaching is culture teaching. Language and culture go hand in hand.

To learn foreign language is not merely to learn how to communicate but also to discover how much leeway the target language allows learners to manipulate grammatical forms, sounds, and meanings, and to reflect upon, or even flout, socially accepted norms at work both in their own or the target culture.

The cultural basis of English teaching has been closely linked to the culture of native-English-speaking countries. The fact that English has become an international language offers a serious challenge to this approach. In dealing with the linguistic and pedagogical aspect of culture in language teaching, what is needed is a full recognition that English today has become denationalized.

Hence, it is local educators who need to determine what linguistic information, cultural content, and teaching methodology are most appropriate for the local context so that learners will be able to use English to tell others about their own culture.

Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted. Culture is the foundation of communication.

Taking into consideration the reality of mega-society in order to prevent such incompatibilities, countries must find points of contact in which the principles of globalization do not contradict customs and traditions of these countries. Then, as we view it, the points of mutual contact should be found.

In cases when it seems impossible to find points of mutual contact, countries should demonstrate tolerance and respect to each other. In this connection we can declare that the future of humankind depends only on us and on our actions towards

each other. And understanding this is one of many steps which mankind must take in order to prosper together in peace.

That's why we decided to investigate the synergetics of the national language, national consciousness and national culture by the influence of modern globalization and the ways of its further development.

Lecture 29. Typology of Conversation.

1. Types of Conversation.
2. Conversation Analysis.
3. Conversation as the Main Means in the Process of Intercultural Communication.
4. General Discourse Activities.
5. Discourse and Language Teaching.

Typology is the comparative study of linguistic systems. Just like one can develop typologies of sound systems, syntax, and semantics, so one can develop typologies of the conversational structures and pragmatics. To do typology, we need systematic comparison; to do systematic comparison, we need to compare like with like. There are established methods for this in phonological, semantic and syntactic typology, but how to do this in conversation may seem less staraightforward.

Indeed many linguists have been trained to believe that conversation, the basic mode in which we experience language, is irredeemably degenerate, ridden with irrelevant performance errors and devoid of clear structure. Decades of research in conversation analysis have refuted this idea, for instance, ***Harvey Sacks*** (1992); ***Emanuel A. Schegloff*** (2007); ***Nick James Enfield, Paul Kockelman*** & ***Jack Sidnell*** (2014), but this literature is still not widely known in Linguistics and it is based mostly on English and a few other major languages. It is important to search for rigorous and systematic ways to compare conversational structures.

At the Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics in Nijmegen there are several large-scale comparative projects aimed at contributing to an emerging projects in the field of pragmatic typology – the typology of systems of language use and the principles that shape them.

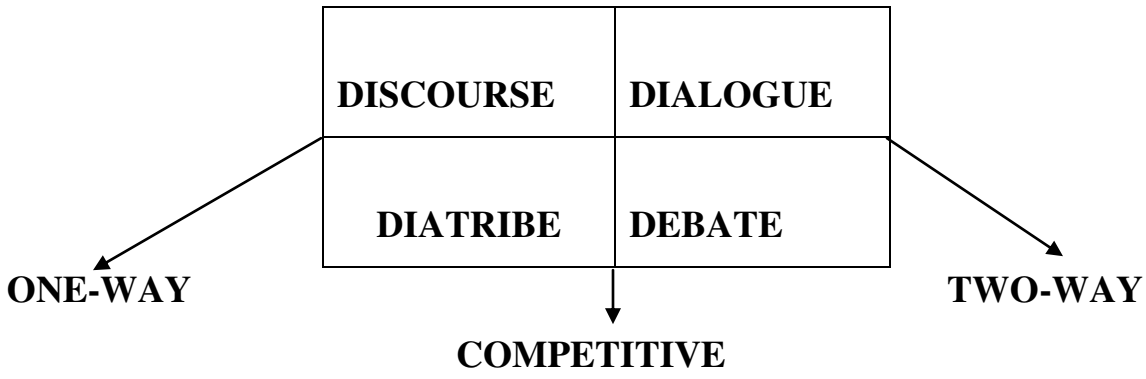
1. Types of Conversation.

When talking with someone, it is helpful to know what type of conversation you are in. You can do so based on a conversation's direction of communication (a one-way or two-way street) and its tone / purpose (competitive or cooperative).

If you are in a one-way conversation, you are talking at someone, rather than with someone. If you are in a two-way conversation, participants are both listening and talking. In a competitive conversation, people are more concerned about their own perspective, whereas in a cooperative conversation participants are interested in the perspective of everyone involved.

Based on direction and tone, I grouped conversations into four types: debate, dialogue, discourse, and diatribe.

COOPERATIVE



Debate is a competitive, two-way conversation. The goal is to win an argument or convince someone, such as the other participant or third-party observers.

Dialogue is a cooperative, two-way conversation. The goal is for participants to exchange information and build relationships with one another.

Discourse is a cooperative, one-way conversation. The goal is to deliver information from the speaker / writer to the listeners / readers.

Diatribe is a competitive, one-way conversation. The goal is to express emotions, browbeat those that disagree with you, and/or inspires those that share the same perspective.

To highlight the differences between these types of conversations, let's use politics as an example:

Debate: two family members from opposite sides of the political spectrum arguing over politics.

Dialogue: two undecided voters talking to each other about the candidates, trying to figure out who they want to vote for.

Discourse: a professor giving a lecture on international affairs.

Diatribe: a disgruntled voter venting about the election's outcome.

It is important to know which type of conversation you are in, because that determines the purpose of that conversation. If you can identify the purpose, you can better speak to the heart of that conversation. But, if you misidentify the conversation you are in, you can fall into conversational pitfalls.

Here are a few examples of conversational pitfalls I've written about:

Sometimes dialogue might actually be two separate discourses (or diatribes) instead; will you recognize that in time?

Sometimes people just want to diatribe; what can you do when that happens, especially when you want to have a dialogue or debate?

If someone appears to be in a conversational pitfall, you can help them climb back out. Regardless of how one climbs back out, the solution always starts with identifying which hole you are in. You must first know the problem before you can find the solution. And, sometimes, just identifying the pitfall itself is enough to draw attention to the problem and correct the conversation.

When you are in a conversation, take a moment to think about which conversation you are actually in. Each of the types of conversation is meaningless on their own; you give them meaning in their use. And, ultimately, it is up to you to decide what type of conversation you want to be part of.

2. Conversation Analysis.

Conversation analysis, which is sometimes regarded as distinct from discourse analysis (***Levinson, S.***, 1983, p.286), is a branch of study which sets out to discover what order there might be in this apparent chaos. It is often associated with a group of scholars in the USA known as ethnomethodologists: because they set out to discover what methods people use to participate in and make sense of interaction.

Spoken language happens in time, and must therefore be produced on line. There is no going back and changing or restructuring our words as there is in writing; there is often no time to pause and think, and while we are talking or listening, we cannot stand back and view the discourse in spatial or diagrammatic terms. Nevertheless, despite these general observations about the difference between spoken and written language, there are many types of speech which are planned in advance or structured by custom and rule.

There are also many discourse types which are intermediate cases between writing and speech: spoken language which is read or learnt from a script (like plays) or based on written notes (like lectures). The range of possibilities can be better represented by a cline than a sharp division. We should also remember that the tape recorder and the video camera can to some extent free the processing if not the production of speech from the domination of time, and with their help it is now possible to go back over what was said, and to pause and think about it too. And no longer can only lightning-fingered stenographers transcribe it.

A further weakness in the traditional division of language into the two major categories of speech and writing is that it disguises an even more important division within the category of spoken language, between "one-way" speech, for example, a lecture, and "two-way" speech, for example, a conversation.

In other words, it is a division between speech with a high degree of reciprocity and speech with a low one. There are ways in which "one-way" speech has more in common with writing than with "two-way" speech.

So we can place instances of spoken discourse on one of the following clines: planned – unplanned; socially structured – less socially structured; aided by writing – unaided by writing; less reciprocal – more reciprocal (two-way).

However, we categorize spoken discourse, casual conversation as defined a discourse type. Conversation, being unplanned, relatively unpredictable, unaided by writing and involving frequent turn-taking, is different from other discourses, and needs a different treatment in the classroom.

Teaching conversation is notoriously difficult and can seem almost a contradiction in terms. The characteristic features of conversation include greater spontaneity and freedom, and a greater equality among participants than in other discourse types. All these features are at odds with the nature of the classroom, where language is directed towards a specific purpose and where one person (the teacher) is traditionally in charge of the others (the students).

It is necessary to mention that if difficulty with “conversation classes” is widespread, so too is the desire of students to converse successfully in the language they are learning. This is especially true in the contemporary world where chances of contact with native speakers are more likely.

Conversation involves far more than knowledge of the language system and the factors creating coherence in one-way discourse. It involves the gaining, holding, and yielding of turns, the negotiation of meaning and direction, the shifting of topic, the signaling and identification of turn type, the use of voice quality, face, and body.

Conversation analysis has provided many insights into these features, and should dispel any lingering convictions, left over from the days before the advent of the tape recorder, that conversation is just the same as other discourse types, though perhaps served up faster, with a generous helping of idioms.

But the problem is that conversation analysis is an academic study not a pedagogical one and some of the mechanisms which it reveals, because they happen at speed and are among the features of language which are least accessible to consciousness, are extremely difficult to teach.

Despite the problems outlined before there are many ways in which the insights of conversation analysis can be exploited in the classroom. Most obviously the phrases, words, and noises associated with particular turn types, as well as with the getting, holding, and passing of turns may be taught quite explicity.

Thus, the following kinds of association between mechanism and realization can be made. Other means of turn-taking which do not associate with phrases, words or noises, such as pause or overlap, changes in voice quality, elongation of syllable, pitch rise, and all the signals of body, face and eyes, are of course not so easily taught, but here there is the possibility of exploiting the cassette or video recorder, either to observe native speaker interaction, or to record students’ own conversation and then overtly discuss the success or appropriateness of the strategies employed, as well as

reasons for misunderstandings, and differences between the students' culture and that associated with the language they are learning.

Recordings can bring some aspects of native speakers' conversation into the classroom, and transcripts can bring them out of time and on to the page where they can be seen and discussed. Yet whether we use invented, unscripted, or authentic material, there are many important visual aspects of conversation which cannot be captured on cassette or in writing.

For those institutions rich enough to have video equipment, the observation of video conversation may provide even better material. It is true that, like tape recording, the act of video recording to some extent destroys an important aspect of conversation, making it for an outside audience rather than private to the participants, yet even such highly public interactions as TV chat shows and interviews preserve many of the features of self-contained conversation, as do those unscripted soap operas and films in which actors improvise with a knowledge of plot.

Rob Nolasco and ***Lois Arthur*** in their book "Conversation" suggest dividing activities developing conversation into four types (1987). They also give detailed and various activities within each category. There are: controlled activities, awareness activities, fluency activities, feedback activities.

Controlled activities include many quite traditional "closed" activities, in which speech is rigorously limited by instructions, such as: the giving and eliciting of personal information by substitution; memorizing dialogue and repeating it either along with the original recording or with another student acting as prompter; caricatured, exaggerated imitation of native speaker sounds and intonation; information gap activities, sometimes involving movement around the classroom, for example, students are given half of an exchange and have to find the student with the other half; questions likely to elicit target grammatical structures; using of flow diagrams, giving the topic or function of each utterance, but not its realization.

Awareness activities, making extensive use of tape and video recordings of native speakers in conversation, such as: identifying words and phrases used as turn-taking mechanisms; watching vision without sound or hearing sound without vision and guessing at the contents of the missing channel.

Fluency activities, making use of communicative activities such as role play, games, and discussion.

Feedback activities, in which students, using tape, video, or observation of each other, analyze their own interaction, for example: note the presence or absence of features identified by awareness activities, note the strategies they have used to achieve certain purposes, overtly discuss communication problems in the culture of the language they are learning.

It is well-known that more than any other discourse type, conversation raises the vexed issue of the need and justification for effecting cultural as well as linguistic changes in student behavior. Whatever the universality of the principles of cooperation and politeness, it is clear that the realization of the politeness principle in communication varies greatly from culture to culture (***Brown P., Levinson S.***, 2008), particularly in interaction whose prime motive is establishing and maintaining social relationships.

It is therefore possible to make general statements about the culturally variable implicature of almost any aspect of conversation: of the significance of overlap and interruption, of repetition of offers, of phatic noises during a long turn, of the distance between speakers, of the conversational rights of women and men, or old and young. Instances of such differences are well documented, and well known to any person who has had the enriching experience of social interaction in more than one culture.

The problem really is twofold: firstly, any statement about contrastive pragmatics will be open to question and debate, secondly, even if we can identify differences, we may not wish to teach them, and our students may not wish to learn them. Students may feel that a feature of the conversational mechanisms of their own

culture is intrinsically good, or a part of their cultural identity which they do not wish to yield.

Many languages, moreover, and the English language in particular, are native languages in diverse cultures or may be used as a means of communication in interactions in which none of the participants belongs to an English-speaking culture. These are broad issues, of course, on which every student and teacher must make up his or her own mind.

It is possible, however, to generalize and categorize it as follows: cultural elements in communication may be universal and specific. In its turn specific elements in communication include open difference and hidden difference. Hidden difference in its turn include meaningful in specific elements, but meaningless in universal elements and different meanings in universal and specific elements.

We may assume that some elements of communication are universal though these might have to be couched in such very general terms as causing physical pain is a sign of unfriendliveness, and that others are culture specific. In this is the case, then universal features will cause no problem, only culture-specific ones. Among these, some differences will be immediately evident.

The Indian salutation with both palms pressed together in front of the forehead is a good example. It is clear that some signal is being sent, but this signal does not mean anything in many other cultures. However, there are differences which may not be so easily apparent.

Wearing shoes does not communicate any particular social meaning in British culture, but it may be offensive in certain categories of building in other cultures. A British person may therefore simply not realize that a signal is being sent and there will be a failure of communication.

Moreover, there are hidden differences which are not easily realized, and which mean different things in different cultures, in which case there is not only a failure of communication, but also communication of something which was not intended, or

even, in the worst case, which is opposite of the intention. A clear example of this category is nodding by someone from a culture where nodding means “yes” in a culture where it means “no”.

Another example is critical distance, the distance which speakers should preserve between them if they are not to signal aggression or intimacy. It has been said that this shorter in Arab culture than in North American culture. Yet as the meaning of distance is present in both cultures, then a North American may wrongly interpret the Arab speaker as aggressive or over-intimate, and Arab may interpret the North American as unfriendly or off-hand, without either being aware of the reason.

It seems reasonable to suggest, taking account of the respect which all human beings should have for the cultural identity of all others, that the foreign language learner entering another culture, and, equally importantly, native speakers in contact with people from other cultures, should be made especially aware of differences in category and certain instances of and as well.

The decision on whether to adopt that feature is their own.

3. Conversation as the Main Means in the Process of Intercultural Communication.

It is not a secret that in our days the English language is one of the most important language in the process of intercultural communication. We may say that English is a Global Language today as from the geographical point of view it is spread throughout the world between three big oceans (the Atlantic, the Pacific and the Indian Oceans) and from the social-cultural point of view almost all the population of the Earth use this language in different purposes.

Conversation Analysis is the study of talk in interaction both verbal and non-verbal in situations of everyday life. Conversation analysis generally attempts to describe the orderliness, structure and sequential patterns of interaction.

Inspired by ethnomethodology ***Harold Garfinkel*** and ***Erving Goffman***, conversation analysis was developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s principally by the sociologist ***Harvey Sacks*** and his close associates ***Emanuel Schegloff*** and ***Gail Jefferson***.

Today Conversation Analysis is an established method used in Sociology, Anthropology, Linguistics, Speech-Communication and Psychology. It is particularly influential in interactional sociolinguistics, discourse analysis and discursive psychology, as well as being a coherent discipline in its own right.

Recently Conversation Analysis techniques of sequential analysis have been employed for instance by phoneticians to explore the fine phonetic detail of speech.

The use of the term "conversation" to label this disciplinary movement is sometimes considered to be misleading. For instance, one of conversation analysis's principal practitioners, ***Emanuel Schegloff***, has more recently identified "talk-in-interaction" as conversation analysis's topic.

Perhaps for this same reason, others, for instance, ***Jonathan Potter***, who uses conversation analysis methods identify themselves as discourse analysts (DA), though that term was first used to identify researchers using methods different from conversation analysis, for example, ***Stephen C. Levinson***, (1983), and still identifies a group of scholars larger than those who use only conversation analysis methods.

Speaking about communication we must note that for a lot of us it is very hard to initiate contact with other people. The following suggestions should help make that first step easier. The most important factor in this matter is having the courage to say something to begin with.

The actual content of the conversation is often secondary. By initiating a conversation one can find out if the other person is interested in social interaction. Do not assume if someone else is interested or not. Often this interest can be made to grow during a discussion.

It is well-known that in most cases laughing opens doors. The magic way of making contact with other people easier is a genuine friendly smile. At least one should take on an open and friendly look that invites contact. When the people in front of you smiles back, then you have already established a form of contact. If you are now also able to find the right conversational topic, you have probably already "won" this person.

One of the ways of communication is to open a conversation with a compliment. This is more interesting and appealing for the other person than any remark on the weather. For the topic of your compliment, select a feature from the person that really impresses you.

Otherwise the compliment might come across as not genuine. Continue on the topic if your conversation partner shows interest. Examples: "you are wearing a beautiful…. Where did you get it?" or "you have such a wonderful smile, one cannot stop from smiling with you".

It is clear that nonverbal behavior always communicates. Using body language is the other way of communication. If you have seen couples being in love sitting in a restaurant, you have probably noticed that a lot of their body movements are similar. They support themselves with the same arm, they pick up a glass with the same hand and have their legs positioned in the same way.

Use this principle to make initiating contact with other people easier. Create an "understanding" in a non-verbal way by mirroring the other person's body attitude. Using this principle can be very useful because it will make relating much easier.

It is also important to find out who in your environment is interested in relating to you. Can you recognize any reactions from your verbal or non-verbal expressions?

Express what you have interpreted from the other persons' behavior. For example: When someone is Cleary not comfortable in a situation, you can say, "It looks like you are not feeling well here". Do not hesitate to find out if the other person

is interested in continuing the contact, for instance: “I hope my question was not too bold” or “Please excuse me for being so direct”.

Humor also plays a great role in communication. You can create an open and conversational atmosphere by applying humor (do however respect any other sentiments that might be there too). Do not joke on the expense of other people.

In order to initiate contact with other people one can refrain from acting like a reporter. Do not bombard your partner with questions. The more you are showing yourself, the more interest you can generate.

A good conversation is a mixture from interest in the other person and opening up too. When you do that, you make it easier for other people to relate to you. However, remain authentic. You can even express any insecurity you might have. Expressing your strengths and weaknesses can make it easier for other people to relate you and enjoy building a relationship.

There are four levels of social entrapment. One of the most difficult aspects of interacting with other people is figuring out how to extricate you from a conversation without appearing rude or mentally unstable. You aren’t allowed to just walk away - you need to have a reason to stop talking. And the reason can’t be that you want to stop talking. You need to find a way to end the conversation without making it seem like you want the conversation to end.

This unspoken set of rules can turn an otherwise rational person into a flailing, helpless victim in a sea of self-perpetuated social anxiety. It’s like we’re all competing in a game that no one wants to play. And even though you can’t ever win the game, you can prevent yourself from losing by pretending that you like playing long enough to be allowed to stop playing.

The game has four levels of difficulty.

Level 1: Brief encounters with kind-of friends. There is a special kind of awkwardness between two people who don't know each other well enough to interact effectively, but are familiar enough that ignoring each other's presence isn’t really an

option. No matter how much you like the person, you dread encountering them because you only know two things about each other and once you've covered those two things, there is nothing else and that is terrifying because you aren't good at ending conversations and that makes the horrible, strained silence all but inevitable.

But eventually you do run into one of these acquaintances and even though you both sense the impending awkwardness and desperately wish to avoid it, you have a social obligation to say hello. So you do, and the conversation derails even more quickly than you expected. And then there you are, standing clumsily in the parking lot of Best Buy, frantically trying to keep the conversation afloat until one of you can think of a decently acceptable way to end the encounter. You stop caring about whether you make sense or not. You'll say anything to avoid silence. At some point, the rapidly deteriorating subject material forces you to give up on being polite and just settle for the first bumbling phrase that comes out of you. Luckily, your artless delivery doesn't matter. The other person is just thankful that they finally have an excuse to stop talking to you.

Level 2: Forced proximity. Trying to end a conversation in the grocery store is like battling a sea monster that has an infinite capacity to revive itself. As soon as you figure out how to disengage with the person, you run into them again and you have to figure out how to start a new conversation. And then you also have to figure out how to end that conversation.

No matter how many times you come across each other, it never really seems acceptable to not say anything. You try to joke about it. Soon, however, you will exhaust your supply of pleasantries and lighthearted banter. The awkwardness of each new encounter is magnified by the awkwardness of the previous encounter until you have no choice but to pretend that you are so fascinated by the ingredients of what you're buying that you don't even notice the other person is there.

Level 3: The Trap, however, some acquaintances don't share your desire to avoid awkward encounters. In fact, they often seek your company despite your

complete inability to relate to each other. This person is seemingly immune to awkwardness and once they latch onto you, you are not allowed to leave until they are done with you. For example, you might be sitting by yourself in a café, enjoying a cup of coffee.

And then you see her squinting up at the drink menu. She's trapped you at social gatherings a few times, backing you into a corner and then standing at just the right angle so that you'd have to physically push her out of your path to escape. She's extremely passionate about a variety of things that you have no real interest in, like veganism and the healing properties of soy. She can talk about these things for hours without pause. While you don't mind that she feels that way, you don't particularly want to hear about it in such great detail. But she tells you anyway. Over and over and over. You might make a feeble attempt at steering the conversation to a topic of more mutual interest, but she doesn't want to talk about what you want to talk about.

The first time you escaped her conversational death-grip, you thought that she had probably said all she needed to say and that the next time you saw her, you could maybe talk about something else. But now she checks up on you. She wants to know if you've tried any of the things she suggested. When you tell her that you "haven't gotten around to it yet", the cycle starts over again. You want to avoid this kind of interaction, so you turn your chair away, hoping that she won't see you when she turns around. But it's too late. She's spotted you. She's not quite sure if it's you yet, but you can feel her eyes focusing on you. You risk a glance to see if she's still there, even though you know that she is. And then you accidentally lock eyes with her.

Once eye contact is established, she begins to lurch toward you in slow motion, like a zombie in a bad horror movie. You are consumed by a desire to bolt, but you don't. Your obligation to adhere to social decencies outweighs your sense of self-preservation. You stay right where you are, unable to look away. You are going to have to talk about soybeans. And you are going to have to pretend that you like it. To protect your dignity.

Level 4: Well-intentioned social terrorism. The well-intentioned social terrorist does not alert you before they invade your safety bubble. It's always a surprise. You'll come home, exhausted and eager to finally feel safe from unwanted interaction. But then... You're cornered like an animal. There's nowhere to go.

You'd always assumed that your own home was a safe place - a place where you were not in danger of sudden, undesired social interaction. But your pathetic delusions of safety implode into the realization that nowhere is safe anymore. You could tell them no, but you aren't busy and you don't have any immediate plans, so you don't really have an acceptable reason to decline their company. You could try to lie and say that you're just coming home to drop some stuff off before you have go somewhere. But if you do that, you'll have to spend the rest of the night in total darkness, because if your friend walks by and notices that your lights are on, they're going to know you were lying.

But if you allow this person into your house, you are no longer in control of when the interaction ends. This is not as simple as finding the right opportunity to walk away. This is some next-level shit. You can't just walk out of your own house and leave the person there. Where would you go? If you want to be left alone, you're going to have to wait it out until you can convince the other person to leave.

But even then, it isn't over. Now that you are aware that your home is not the impenetrable fortress of protection you once thought it was, you are forced to live in a constant state of slight uneasiness. Someone could surprise you at any time. What if your friend decides to surprise you with a visit every day? Now you have to worry about keeping your place picked up, "just in case". You're scared to play music or watch movies because then you can't pretend to not be home if someone knocks on your door. You are no longer in control of your life.

Thus, the best way to learn to speak English is by talking to real people in the real world or online.

It is necessary also to note that social media are media for social interaction, using highly accessible and scalable communication techniques. Social media is the use of web-based and mobile technologies to turn communication into interactive dialogue.

Virtual conversation is social media. Make no mistake about it as virtual conversations are driving the social web. Sure sharing links and re-twitting others content is part of it; but it's just one aspect of many parts that make up the overall social media experience. To build a presence and establish authority you must engage the community. Whether it's on the Twitter platform, your Facebook page or your blog community, there is no other way for people to get to know who you are, what your expertise is and what makes you tick you as an individual unless you are contributing to the conversation.

The social web can be a great place to grow your business or just meet cool interesting people, however, it's the conversation that people will judge you by and it will ultimately determine the quality of your overall social media experience. Lots of engagement, lots of value… And then of course there's the in-between's.

One can find out about anything on the social web… From breaking news stories to access to the best products and services in marketplace; its instant access to real-time conversations on what's hot and what's not based on what people are saying right now about the subject matter and not what a highly optimized website for search engines says about it.

Conversations drive all of the content that's being consumed on the social web. They influence consumer buying decisions and mobilize concerned citizens to get behind worthy causes. If the information shared on the social web fell on deaf ears and nobody talked about it or shared their discoveries, social media would be dead.

If you are trying to figure out how to go about participating on the social web, a good starting point would be joining in conversations that are of interest to you. This will get you traction fast and can help you establish a presence on Twitter, Face book,

LinkedIn and even your personal or business blog. The longer you stay on the sidelines as a bystander looking in, the longer it will take for you experience the benefits the social web can provide.

4. General Discourse Activities.

With the need for general discourse practice in mind, it is well to examine any language teaching activity for the practice it provides in the elements of discourse, so that students may have varied practice, either within one activity or over a range of them. We'll assess one activity in this way as an example, which draws on an exercise that is a staple of communicative language teaching (***Melville M., Langenheim L., Rinvolucri M., Spaventa L.***, 1980).

The role of it is the re-ordering of jumbled sentences. This is by now a fairly commonplace pedagogic activity, though this fact in itself should count neither for nor against it. This task involves more than simple rearrangement.

The procedure is as follows: each student is given a piece of paper on which is written one sentence of story. By talking together, they must decide on the original order, and solve the problem. As in other recombination activities in the book, the following rules must be obeyed: you can read your paper out to the group, but you must not show it to anyone; don't write; only ask the teacher language questions.

The teacher is recommended to avoid intervention in the task by, for example, pre-teaching vocabulary, sitting outside the group, avoiding eye-contact, only intervening if absolutely necessary and then only by writing on the blackboard.

This apparently simple activity is both motivating and entertaining, for puzzles and problems of this kind have an intrinsic interest, even for native speakers, and are widely popular. It also involves students in a wide range of discoursed activity, involving both spoken and written language, production and processing, and several discourse types: negotiation, conversation, narrative and riddle.

If the rules are followed, the activity will involve students in all of the following discourse and language skills: negotiation of relationships and roles within the group; discussion of procedure; turn-taking without control by the teacher; application of schemata; knowledge of narrative structure; reading aloud with accurate enough pronunciation to be understood; the handling and repetition of new vocabulary in context; repetition of correct sentences; assessing hypotheses; arguing a point of view; reaching a consensus as a group; presentation of a group decision to an outsider – teacher.

It may also involve regulation of relationships within the group: urging another student to participate, curbing a domineering student; conflict and argument with other students; dispute with the teacher; discussion of wider issues raised by the story, for example, politics, lateral thinking, and the role of the teacher.

One of the reasons that this activity generates such a wide range of practice is its restructuring of the traditional lines of communication in the auditorium between teacher and students. This gives the student both a wider range of relationships, and conversational autonomy, bringing a corresponding variety of discourse.

The least desirable approach to this activity is perhaps to predict difficulties and explain them beforehand, as this disrupts one of the advantages of this kind of activity: that language knowledge is sought only when necessary for language use. To answer questions when requested runs the gauntlet of re-involving the teacher.

So, perhaps the best solution, when no student knows and guesses fail, is to allow students to do what they would do in authentic communication when no one around them knows an important word: use a dictionary. The teacher may also point out and discuss pronunciation, grammatical and discourse's problems which arose in the activity after it is finished.

Pair work is invaluable in maximizing the involvement of all pupils. Individual capabilities vary but even less able pupils will be more active and involved in their own learning than if the teacher is asking all the questions. Initially pair work may be

time consuming but a little initial patience in using the above techniques will be greatly rewarded (***Ashworth J., Clark J.***, 1989, p.3).

The activity though it may not have been designed with discourse in mind, has been chosen here as an example of an enjoyable and motivating activity which generates a wide range of discourse's practice.

When choosing activities from existing materials, it can only be to the good to assess the practice which they offer in the various elements structuring discourse, ensuring that students, in the course of their studies, experience a variety of senders and receivers, social relationships, schemata, discourse types, topics, and functions, as well as gaining practice in orientating themselves within the internal structure of discourses and with conversational mechanisms and cohesion. Only by exposure to a wide selection of these elements, interacting in a multitude of ways, can students become fully competent users of the language they are learning.

The lowest level which falls within the domain of discourse is cohesion. This is an area which is of relevance to all discourse, spoken and written, one-way and two-way alike, although the choice of appropriate cohesive ties is profoundly affected by whether the discourse is spoken or written and by the discourse type.

Cohesion has often been neglected in language teaching, where sentences have been created, manipulated, and assessed in isolation. It has been assumed that student difficulties arise primarily from lack of vocabulary or the complexity of grammatical structure at sentence level, whereas difficulties can as easily arise from problems with cohesion: finding the referent for a pronoun, for example, or recovering a phrase or clause lost through ellipsis.

The results of this neglect are familiar to teachers and learners at all levels, for they affect both production and processing. In production they can result in the creation of a stretch of language in which every sentence, in isolation, is faultless, yet the overall effect is one of incoherence or inappropriateness. In processing they manifest themselves in a sensation known to all language learners: that of

understanding every word and every construction in each individual sentence, but still not understanding the whole.

The neglect of cohesion arises partly from a simple lack of awareness. Although grammar has been extensively studied, Anglo-American linguistics in the middle decades of this century, believing the sentence to be the highest unit amenable to formal analysis, paid little attention to cohesion. The current revival of interest dates only from the mid 1970-s and in particular, from the publication of ***M.A.K.Halliday*** and ***R.Hasan***'s "Cohesion in English" (1976).

Where there has been knowledge of cohesion in language teaching, there has sometimes been an implicit assumption that cohesive links must operate between sentences in the same way in the first and second language, in other words, through straightforward translation equivalents. Even now, when extensive research has been done on cohesion, there is still a reluctance to give it much prominence in language pedagogy. In part this stems from a bottom-up approach. Cohesion between sentences is too easily seen as an aspect of language use to be developed after the ability to handle grammar and words within sentences.

In addition, the situation is made worse by the traditional approach which prefers a use to be right or wrong. The cohesion between sentences is not as easily assessed as the grammar within them. It is often a matter of style, different uses being appropriate to particular discourse types.

This role of cohesion in creating style is yet another reason for its neglect, for style is often considered to be the concern of advanced students only. This belief is unfortunate, for an error of style can so antagonize an interlocutor that it will negate the positive effects of lower accuracy. Style should be a major concern of all students.

Activities focusing on cohesion will need to consider every intersection. They should, however, avoid confusing the use of cohesion with knowledge about cohesion. There is no need to burden students with the cumbersome terminology for analyzing cohesion used in linguistics.

As teachers we will need to approach any stretch of language in two ways. We need first to analyze its cohesive devices and their stylistic effect, and secondly, to devise activities which will develop their use and understanding by the student. But the two stages should not be confused.

We need always to remember that the final goal of the language student is to operate the interlocking systems of discourse, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation in their entirety.

5. Discourse and Language Teaching.

It is necessary to notice that, traditionally, language teaching has divided discourse into two major categories, the spoken and the written, further divided into the four skills of speaking and listening, writing and reading. Many courses try to provide a balanced coverage.

When we speak about sentence study in language teaching and linguistics, it is important to mention that in defense of concentrating on the sentence, different teachers and learners give different answers.

Teachers of mother tongue students might argue that their students already have oral and communicative skills, that what they need is to learn and demonstrate literacy that putting full stops in the right place and writing grammatical sentences is a sign of this literacy. They might also point out that these skills, rightly or wrongly, are demanded by examination boards, and are often considered a sign of acceptable language behavior by the world at large.

Foreign language teachers might say that their students already know how to communicate and interact in their own language; what they need in the foreign language are formal skills and knowledge – pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar which will provide the basis for communicating and interacting.

Exercises, whether for translation or other kinds of manipulation, can be neatly presented in sentences, with a tick or a mark for each one, and this way everybody

knows where they are going, how far they have come in developing the necessary formal basis. Given practice and exposure, it is argued, and maybe a trip to the country where the language is spoken, the rest will follow of its own accord.

It is sometimes argued that even if the sentences analyzed in linguistics are abstractions, which sometimes sound very odd, they are still the best material for language study, because they isolate it from its context. Furthermore, it is said, as native speakers of a language seem able to recognize correct and incorrect sentences, the idea of there being language rules exemplified in such sentences does seem to correspond to some kind of reality, even if people don't always speak according to these abstracted rules.

Some might go further and add that, contrary to popular and some scholarly belief, people do, in any case, usually speak in well-formed sentences. ***M.A.K. Halliday*** claims that "impeccably well-formed language is typical of casual spontaneous speech including that of children" (1985, p.35). In this view he is completely at odds with ***Noam Chomsky*** (1965, p.31), who assumes that actual language is degenerate and deviates from the rules of grammar.

It might also be argued that the treatment of language in terms of sentences has been quite successful in revealing how language works, that within the sentence we can establish rules and constraints concerning what is and is not allowed, whereas beyond the sentence, such rules seem either to disintegrate or turn into rules of a different kind social rules or psychological rules, which are not within the area of linguistic study at all. So linguists too tend to come up with grammatically correct.

All these arguments, from people involved in different ways in the study of language, have weight, and should not be ridiculed or dismissed out of hand, as has become rather fashionable in some language teaching circles.

There are types of language use which demand the ability to formulate grammatical, correctly bounded sentences, and being able to exploit the formal sentence grammar is one of the most important elements in being able to

communicate in a language. Yet if we are going to approach language as isolated artificially constructed sentences, even if only occasionally and for limited purposes, we do need to make a case for this, and just do it because that is the tradition: in mother tongue classroom, for the foreign language learner, or in linguistics.

We should also recognize that there is more to producing and understanding meaningful language to communicating that knowing how to make or recognize correct sentences. A person who could do only that and did so without any other considerations, would be as the ***Dell Hymes*** has said "likely to be institutionalized" for saying all kinds of inappropriate, irrelevant, and uninteresting things (1971, p.277). Being a communicator, having what ***Dell Hymes*** calls communicative competence, involves much more.

If the sentence begins with "The…", there are rules which limit what word can follow it, perhaps there are also rules which limit what kind of sentence follow another. We can also investigate the possibility that grammar extends beyond sentences. If we violate the internal rules of sentences we produce examples which would be dismissed as wrong. We can identify three kinds of sentence which are considered wrong, in addition to those with writing errors of spelling and punctuation.

Morphological errors: where the word endings are wrong. For example, "The knight kills *a* dragons". Syntactic errors: where the word order is wrong. "*The a* knight dragon killed". Semantic errors: where the meaning is wrong. "The knight killed a teaspoon". Although in this last case we should note that it is much harder to talk of the sentence being "wrong". There are circumstances when people validly violate semantic norms.

In the same way that there are rules within sentences, limiting which words can follow others, so there might also be rules within discourses, limiting which sentence can follow another one, if there is a sentence "The knight killed the dragon", then there might be limits, or constraints, on what can be put as the next sentence. "The knight killed the dragon. He cut off its head with his sword" and this would seem

quite reasonable. “The knight killed the dragon. The pineapple was on the table.” It is unlikely. In other words, the two sentences might go together, but the reasons are not strictly linguistic, they are to do with our knowledge of the world where these events take place.

It is necessary to mention that, we have seen how our feeling that a particular stretch of language in some way hangs together, has unity that is discourse, cannot be accounted for in the same way as our feeling for the acceptability of a sentence. In order to account for discourse we need to look at features outside the language: at the situation, the people involved what they know and what they are doing. These facts enable us to construct stretches of language as discourse, as having a meaning and unity for us. The way we recognize correct and incorrect sentences is different. We can do this through our knowledge of grammar without reference to outside facts.

We can describe the two ways of approaching language as contextual, referring to facts outside language, and formal, referring to facts inside language. A way of understanding this difference may be to think of formal features as in some way built up our minds from the black marks which form writing on the page, or from the speech sounds picked up by our ears, while contextual features are somewhere outside this physical realization of the language in the world, or pre-existing in the minds of the participants. Stretches of language treated only formally are referred to as text.

Now although it is true that we need to consider contextual factors to explain what it is that creates a feeling of unity in stretches of language of more than one sentence, we cannot say that there are no formal links between sentences in discourse.

There are some, although language teaching and mainstream linguistics has traditionally concentrated only upon those formal features which operate within sentences, discourse analysis may suggest ways of directing teachers’ and students’ attention to formal features which operate across sentences as well.

Formal links between sentences and between clauses are known as cohesive devices. Another link within discourse is affected by parallelism, a device which

suggests a connection, simply because the form of one sentence or clause repeats the form of another. This is often used in speeches, prayers, poetry, and advertisements. It can have a powerful emotional effect.

Referring words are the words whose meaning can only be discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context which are clear to both sender and receiver. The most obvious example of them is third person pronouns as "she – her – herself". Repetition of words can create the same sort of chains as pronouns, and there are sometimes good reasons for preferring it.

In Britain, mother tongue learners of English are discouraged from using repetition on the grounds that it is "bad style" and encouraged to use a device known as "elegant repetition", where synonymous or more general words or phrases are used.

The kind of link we choose will depend upon the kind of discourse we are seeking to create, and elegant repetition is not always desirable. It may sound pretentious in casual conversation or create dangerous ambiguity in legal document. As teachers, we need to sensitize students to the interplay of discourse type and choice between referring expressions, repetition and elegant repetition.

Another kind of formal link between sentences is the substitution of words like "do" or "so" for a word or group of words which have appeared in an earlier sentence. It would be very long-winded if we had always to answer a question like "Do you like oranges?" with a sentence like "Yes, I like oranges" or "Yes, I think, I like oranges." It is much quicker and it means the same if we say "Yes, I do" or "Yes, I think so."

Unfortunately, much traditional language teaching, in its zeal for practicing verb tenses and using new vocabulary, has concentrated exclusively on longer forms and deprived students of briefer, more authentic options. Sometimes we don't even need to provide a substitute for a word or phrase which has already been said.

We can simply omit it, and know that the missing part can be reconstructed quite successfully. Instead of answering "Would you like a glass of water?" with "Yes, I would like a glass of water" we can just say "Yes I would" knowing that "like a glass

of water" will be understood. Omitting part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context will make the meaning clear is known as ellipsis.

The other type of formal relation between sentences is provided by those words and phrases which explicitly draw attention to the type of relationship which exists between one sentence or clause and another. These are conjunctions. These words may simply add more information to what has already been said or elaborate or exemplify it.

As teachers, we should notice that a clear understanding of the formal connections between sentences may help to explain one of the ways in which foreign language students sometimes write supposedly connected sentences, each of which is well-formed in itself, but which somehow add to very strange discourse.

It can also help us to identify why a student is not achieving the stylistic effect he or she is seeking. It should be clear that the correctness and the effect of some expressions cannot only be judged within the sentence, but must be judged in connection with other sentences in the discourse as well.

So, we have two possible answers to the problem of how we recognize a stretch of language as unified and meaningful. One is that we employ language rules of the type studied by grammarians and taught in most language textbooks, and that these rules operate between sentences as well as within them. The other is the knowledge of the world, of the speaker, of social convention, of what is going on around us as we read or listen in order to make sense of the language we are encountering.

Lecture 30. Pragmatic Typology.

1. Semantics and Pragmatics.
2. Intercultural Pragmatics.

1. Semantics and Pragmatics.

It is well-known that semantics is the study of meaning. As a distinct field of investigation it has a history of over a hundred years. Linguistics in its recent history has approached semantics with great caution and for a period had rejected it almost completely as a study within the framework of linguistics.

It is necessary to notice that if we have discussed theories of the pragmatic interpretation of language, we must investigate how people create meaning and make sense of what is said in specific circumstances. The fact that meaning is not constructed from the formal language of the message alone is crucial in explaining what it is that makes people perceive some stretches of language as coherent discourse and others as disconnected jumbles. It is also important for the successful teaching and learning of foreign languages.

In the twentieth century many linguists, particularly in America, argued that linguistics should confine itself to the study of the observable linguistic forms so much so that one linguist, ***Charles Fries***, complained that for many students of linguistics meaning had almost become anathema. Linguists have never denied that it is the essence of language to be meaningful. The question was whether meaning was a proper subject for scientific enquiry.

The importance of pragmatic theories in language learning is really twofold. Firstly, the divergence of function and form means that we cannot rely upon teaching only form. In production, learners need to choose the words which most suitably realize their intention, and this does not always entail the most closely related form. In reception of language, given the human penchant for indirection, they also need to be able to move from the form to the function. There are times when making language function effectively is more important than producing perfectly pronounced, grammatically correct sentences.

Secondly, the linking of form to function may help learners to orientate themselves within a discourse. All learners of a foreign language are familiar with the disturbing sensation of understanding every word, and the literal meaning, but somehow missing the point. The underlying structure of the discourse may be a progression of functional units, and a breakdown in pragmatic interpretation may easily lead to a learner losing his or her way. We shall need to go further in examining how functional units interact to create discourse, and how the learner may be guided through them.

During the sixties it was increasingly recognized that, since language cannot function without meaning, linguistics must pay attention to the problem of meaning. But the questions of meaning which relate words and sentences to each other and to states processes and objects in the universe are so complex that they deserve special consideration.

Once this was recognized the interest in semantics and the relationship between semantics and other branches of linguistics grew rapidly. Some of the curriculum reforms in language teaching, particularly those advocated in Europe in the seventies, are attempts to organize second language curricula on semantic rather than grammatical principles.

In other words, instead of arranging a language course primarily in terms of the noun, the article, verb tenses, agreement of adjectives, and the basic categories of meaning should constitute the essential framework of the course. For example, Wilkins's scheme includes notions of time, space, quantity, and so on, as well as the communicative functions which learners need in the foreign language, such as enquiring, informing, requesting, greeting and so forth.

In recent years the role of knowledge in discourse production and comprehension has been significantly stimulated by findings in the field of "artificial intelligence", which, among other endeavors, attempts to program computers to produce and understand discourse. As we have seen, this involves far more than the language being used; it involves pre-existent knowledge of the world. Artificial intelligence tries to understand how this knowledge and language interact, and to reproduce the process in computers.

For discourse analysis, the most important idea to come out of the field of artificial intelligence is that of knowledge "schemata". These are mental representations of typical situations, and they are used in discourse processing to predict the contents of the particular situation which the discourse describes. The idea is that the mind, stimulated by key words or phrases in the text, or by the context, activates a knowledge schema, and uses it to make sense of the discourse.

To program a computer to understand a discourse, artificial intelligence researchers need to reproduce this process, and to give computers both the necessary language knowledge, and the necessary schemata. The suggestion is that computers can be programmed to process discourse in a similar way to human beings, though the

complexity of human language competence and human knowledge are far greater than those of any existing computer.

Considering the complexity of the interaction of minds, language, and the world, the description is highly simplified. Actual discourse is unlikely to be interpretable with reference to a single schema. In reality the mind must activate many schemata at once, each interacting with the other. It must be capable of moving rapidly from one to another, of using more than simultaneously, of focusing on a sub-schema. It must be capable of building new schemata, and of ditching old ones.

As it is known, schemata are data structures, representing stereotypical patterns, which we retrieve from memory and employ in our understanding of discourse. The successful communicator selects just those features which differ from this schema, enabling the receiver to adjust it and to bring it closer to the individual instance which is being described.

Schema theory can go a long way towards explaining the sender's choice and arrangement of information in communication. It can also elucidate some of the vaguer notions of pragmatic theory. One of ***Herbert Paul Grice***'s maxims tells us to "be relevant", but it does not attempt to explain the notion of relevance. Speech act theory, by attempting to single out the pieces of shared knowledge which enable us to interpret the function of what is said, also assumes that we can distinguish which factors in the situation are relevant, but again it does nothing to explain how we distinguish the relevant from the irrelevant.

The pragmatic theories we have examined leave a number of unanswered questions, and they are in need of considerable extension before they can be fruitfully applied to discourse analysis and language teaching.

It is not always clear, for example, where the context of an utterance ends, and even when that is established we are still left with the vagueness of the central concept of relevance. Another weakness is the implicit assumption that underlying

meaning can always be formulated in words. Speech act theory assumes that there is one neat, verbally expressible illocution to each locution.

The theories of pragmatic language use are from philosophy rather than linguistics, and the examples used are invented and stylized. They concern spoken discourse in which sender and receiver interact with each other rapidly, and they tend to be short and deal with a few turns at most.

This is not a criticism of the theories in themselves, but if discourse analysis is to incorporate them, and to demonstrate their relevance to the language learner, it will need to test their value in interpreting language which has actually occurred, to select what is relevant from context rather than invent a few elements of it, to account for writing as well as speech, and to account for discourse where there is no constant feedback from the receiver who may not even be present. And it will need to deal with long stretches of language, rather than handfuls of utterances.

When we talk about people following the co-operative principle, this does not mean that they can consciously and explicity formulate it to themselves. It means rather that people act as though they know the principle just as they act as though they know the rules of grammar, though very few people can even begin to formulate them, and nobody can formulate them completely.

Trying to understand the process by which two or more people come together through text to create discourse and thus communicate can be a very stimulating and exciting investigation. But there are also times when it can seem depressing. Increasingly, we seem to be talking about the unity and meaningfulness of discourse in terms of conformity: to another person’s view of the world, to shared stereotypes.

If communication is characterized as a successful attempt to alter the mental state of another human being, it seems that the most successful communication will take place where there is already a considerable coincide between mental states, and the alteration achieved is only minimal. People who see the world differently, and

therefore need to communicate, both for mutual education and to avoid conflict, may seem the least likely to be able to do so.

Language learners are social outsiders of a different kind, standing outside one community by virtue of belonging to another. They may fail to understand or to make themselves understood because they lack the social knowledge which enables them to make text into discourse in the language they are learning. They may come out with oddities, and again we may judge this negatively or positively.

2. Intercultural Pragmatics.

It is necessary to notice that if we have discussed theories of the pragmatic interpretation of language, we must investigate how people create meaning and make sense of what is said in specific circumstances. The fact that meaning is not constructed from the formal language of the message alone is crucial in explaining what it is that makes people perceive some stretches of language as coherent discourse and others as disconnected jumbles. It is also important for the successful teaching and learning of foreign languages.

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progression of functional units, and a breakdown in pragmatic interpretation may easily lead to a learner losing his or her way. We shall need to go further in examining how functional units interact to create discourse, and how the learner may be guided through them.

These two points raise the issue of the extent to which pragmatic interpretation and discourse structure are culture specific, and the extent to which they need to be or can be taught. In order to "do things with words" either actively as language producers or passively, as language understanders, we clearly need more tools than the formal language system, though we do need that too. The needs of the language user might be represented as:

U S E R

Language system	Paralanguage	Knowledge	Reasoning
pronunciation grammar vocabulary	voice face body	cultural world	globalization process intercultural communication
goal	goal	goal	goal

Traditionally, language teaching has concentrated only on the three levels of the formal language system – pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and the way in which they function within the sentence, on the assumption that other aspects of communication will follow fairly automatically.

It remains true, that the formal system of a foreign language is very obviously different from that of the learner's first language, that it therefore forms the basis of any full communication and that it needs to be acquired in some way. However, it is

not all that is needed for communication. In our search for the forces which create coherence, we have examined some of the other factors in communication.

It is useful to mention the importance of world knowledge and social knowledge in the production and reception of discourse. Existing knowledge in the receiver of a message, and the correct assessment of the extent of that knowledge by the sender, are essential for successful communication.

In recent years the role of knowledge in discourse production and comprehension has been significantly stimulated by findings in the field of "artificial intelligence", which, among other endeavors, attempts to program computers to produce and understand discourse. As we have seen, this involves far more than the language being used; it involves pre-existent knowledge of the world. Artificial intelligence tries to understand how this knowledge and language interact, and to reproduce the process in computers.

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once, each interacting with the other. It must be capable of moving rapidly from one to another, of using more than simultaneously, of focusing on a sub-schema. It must be capable of building new schemata, and of ditching old ones.

Schemata need not be limited to unordered catalogues of people and things within a stereotyped situation, or stereotyped sequences of events and things within a stereotyped situation, or stereotyped sequences of events telling us what is likely to happen next.

They may also predict stereotypical roles and relationships of participants, or they can be stereotypical text types, predicting plot structure or conversational development. Participants in conversation have certain, no doubt highly culture-bound, assumptions about possible courses for a conversation, length and type of turn, total duration and so on. Less reciprocal discourse will also activate schemata.

When we watch a TV police thriller, we match it against a schema which contains certain characters, playing particular roles in certain sequences of events, in a plot with certain episodes and a particular outcome. Our pleasure or displeasure depending on our taste or mood will derive either from the high degree of conformity of the individual example to the schema, or from its divergence.

As it is known, schemata are data structures, representing stereotypical patterns, which we retrieve from memory and employ in our understanding of discourse. The successful communicator selects just those features which differ from this schema, enabling the receiver to adjust it and to bring it closer to the individual instance which is being described.

Schema theory can go a long way towards explaining the sender's choice and arrangement of information in communication. It can also elucidate some of the vaguer notions of pragmatic theory. One of ***Herbert Paul Grice***'s maxims tells us to "be relevant", but it does not attempt to explain the notion of relevance. Speech act theory, by attempting to single out the pieces of shared knowledge which enable us to interpret the function of what is said, also assumes that we can distinguish which

factors in the situation are relevant, but again it does nothing to explain how we distinguish the relevant from the irrelevant.

The idea that conversation proceeds according to a principle, known and applied by all human beings, was first proposed in a limited form by the philosopher ***Herbert Paul Grice*** (2005), who put forward what he described as the co-operative principle.

According to this principle, we interpret language on the assumption that its sender is obeying four maxims. We assume speaker is intending to be true (the maxim of quality), brief (the maxim of quantity), relevant (the maxim of relevance) and clear (the maxim of manner). Using this assumption, combined with general knowledge of the world, the receiver can reason from the literal, semantic meaning of what is said to the pragmatic meaning and induce what the sender is intending to do with his or her words.

In 1986 ***Dan Sperber*** and ***Deirdre Wilson*** have used a model of communication which is very closely related to schema theory to explain the concept of relevance. Human minds, they say, have a long-term aim: to increase their knowledge of the world. In each encounter with discourse, we start with a set of assumptions, whose accuracy we seek to improve.

Information is relevant when it has a significant effect on our assumptions, in other words, when it will allow us to alter our knowledge structures to give us a more accurate representation of the world. On the other hand, successful communication must work within the framework of the receiver's existing knowledge; it must not make too many demands.

So, relevant information adjusts our picture of the world very subtly. It is, say Sperber and Wilson, information which yields the greatest change in our knowledge for the least processing effort. Successful communication gives us new information, but works within the framework of the receiver's assumptions.

Schemata allow human communication to be economical. It would be hard to see how communication could take place if we could not take some sort of mutually shared knowledge for granted, if every discourse had to begin from scratch.

The idea of pre-existing schemata will thus explain ***Grice***'s other maxims too. If we provide information which is already known to the receiver, then we are too long-winded; if we take knowledge for granted, we are too brief. In either case we violate the maxim of brevity.

Communication also suffers when people make false assumptions about shared schemata, and it is then that they cease to "be clear". Lastly, our perception of the truth of discourse is also a comparison of the schemata it evokes its assumptions and our own.

Misjudgments and mismatches of schemata are particularly likely when people try to communicate across cultures and across languages. The resulting misunderstandings are endemic in the foreign language classroom. For this reason schema theory is of as great importance in language teaching as it is discourse analysis.

We also know how knowledge of the world or of the culture enables people to make their language function as they intend and to understand how others do the same to them. To connect their knowledge with the language system people use reasoning and pragmatic theories go some way towards explaining how people reason their way from the form to the function and thus construct coherent discourse from the language they receive.

What we need to decide as language teachers is the degree to which other components of communication need teaching. All human beings have reasoning power, world knowledge and knowledge of at least one culture, but the divisions between these categories and the nature of their contents are not always clear.

How far do conversational principles and the interpretation of speech acts proceed differently in different cultures, for example?

We also need to help learners integrate the components of communication one with another. It is no good teaching them as discrete units and hoping that the learner, suddenly faced with a communicative situation, will be able to integrate them all with immediate success.

Whatever cultural variation there may be in pragmatic interpretation, we may be sure that its interaction with form is language specific. It does need teaching, though we must be careful not to go to the opposite extreme, as many courses do, and patronizingly treat adult learners like new-born babes. They bring with them immense reasoning power, knowledge of the world, and a sophisticated skill at implementing through their own language and culture the complex needs of all humans, to relate to others, and to act with them.

The pragmatic theories we have examined leave a number of unanswered questions, and they are in need of considerable extension before they can be fruitfully applied to discourse analysis and language teaching. It is not always clear, for example, where the context of an utterance ends (***Guy Cook***, 1986), and even when that is established we are still left with the vagueness of the central concept of relevance.

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What happens to those who step outside the predictable patterns and regularities? Some are vilified and some are glorified. Some are called mad, disturbed, maladjusted, rebellious, even criminal; others are called individualists, poets, comedians, philosophers. It is easy to escape this issue by saying that the discourses of the two groups have little in common.

But discourse analysis should teach us that it is as likely to be our attitude to what they say that categorizes them. Yet however we may judge deviation, whether negatively or positively, being a social outsider is very much a case of non-conformity to the norms and regularities of discourse structure.

Language learners are social outsiders of a different kind, standing outside one community by virtue of belonging to another. They may fail to understand or to make themselves understood because they lack the social knowledge which enables them to make text into discourse in the language they are learning. They may come out with oddities, and again we may judge this negatively or positively.

The discourse strategies of a foreign speaker may seem refreshing exactly because they do not conform to conventions of the culture whose language they are learning. On the other hand they may cause serious misunderstanding and breakdown of communication.

The task of the language teacher is a difficult one: to facilitate a degree of socialization which will enable learners to send and receive text as discourse, while also guarding their right to be different and to enrich others through that difference, bringing to the language they are learning the wealth of their own individuality and culture. As in the case of deviation within the social group: we do not have to judge difference negatively.

Success in communication depends as much upon the receiver as on the sender. Between speakers of different languages it depends as much upon the native speaker as on the foreign learner.

REVISION

Language learners must take into consideration an importance and a great necessity of the relationship of the language and culture. Today the actual is to focus on teaching culture in the context of foreign language education. It is necessary to emphasize that culture plays a role in language teaching in two important ways.

First, culture is significant in the linguistic dimension of the language itself, affecting the semantic, pragmatic, and discourse levels of the language.

Second, culture is operative in a pedagogical sense in that choices need to be made regarding the cultural content of language materials and the cultural basis of the teaching methodology.

The role of cultural learning in the foreign language auditorium has been the concern of many scholars and teachers and has sparked considerable controversy, yet its validity as an equal complement to language learning has often been overlooked or even impugned.

Up to now, two main perspectives have influenced the teaching of culture. One pertains to the transmission of factual, cultural information, which consists in

statistical information, that is, instutional structures and other aspects of the target civilization, highbrow information, that is immersion in literature and the arts, and lowbrow information, which may focus on the customs, habits, and folklore of everyday life (***Kramsch, C.***, 1993, p.24).

This preoccupation with facts rather than meanings, though, leaves much to be desired as far as an understanding of foreign attitudes and values is concerned, and virtually blindfolds learners to the minute albeit significant aspects of their own as well as the target group's identity that are not easily divined and appropriated. All that it offers is "mere book knowledge learned by rote" (***Huebener, T.***, 1959, p.177).

The other perspective, drawing upon cross-cultural psychology or anthropology, has been to embed culture within an interpretive framework and establish connections, namely, points of reference or departure, between one's own and the target country. This approach, however, has certain limitations, since it can only furnish learners with cultural knowledge, while leaving them to their own devices to integrate that knowledge with the assumptions, beliefs, and mindsets already obtaining in their society. Prior to considering a third perspective it is of consequence to briefly sift through the relevant literature and see what the teaching of culture has come to be associated with.

It is evident that much as the element of culture has gained momentum in foreign language learning, most educators have seen it as yet another skill at the disposal of those who aspire to become conversant with the history and life of the target community rather than as an integral part of communicative competence and intercultural awareness at which every educated individual should aim.

The idea of teaching culture is nothing new to second language teachers. In many cases, teaching culture has meant focusing a few lessons on holidays, customary clothing, folk songs and food. While these topics may be useful, without a broader context or frame they offer little in the way of enriching linguistic or social insight,

especially if a goal of language instruction is to enable foreign language learners to function effectively in another language and society.

Understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greetings, farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments means more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences. It means knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations, and it means understanding the beliefs and values represented by the various forms and usages ofthe language.

Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning. Second language teachers should identify key cultural items in every aspect of the language that they teach. Foreign language learners can be successful in speaking a second language only if cultural issues are an inherent part of the curriculum.

Language and culture are so intricately related that their boundaries, if any, are extremely blurred and it is difficult to become aware of the assumptions and the assumptions and expectations that we hold. It should be reiterated that language teaching is culture teaching. Language and culture go hand in hand.

Many scientists have attempted to show that language and culture are from the start inseparably connected. The reasons why this should be the case are: language acquisition does not follow a universal sequence, but differs across cultures; the process of becoming a competent member of society is realized through exchanges of language in particular social situations.

As it is well-known language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Undoubtedly, language is social by nature not only as it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users, but also, we must mention that it grows and develops together with the development of society. It is naturally that depending on different circumstances each language has its own development.

It is necessary to mention that mutual connections of the different languages and their mutual influence on the historical development of the peoples during all periods were not the same. Only as the consequence of the mutual relations one language borrows lexical, phonetic and morphological features from another one. Vocabulary of any language is enriched by all these borrowing features and it is developed by means of cooperation of countries.

Today we investigate foreign language learning. In our days the English and Russian languages are the most important language in the intercultural communication. As it is not our native language, the role of its learning is greater up today.

Foreign language learning is comprised of several components, including grammatical competence, communicative competence, language proficiency, as well as a change in attitudes towards one's own or another culture. Foreign language learning is foreign culture learning.

"Culture" is "the whole way of life of the foreign country, including but not limited to its production in the arts, philosophy and high culture" (***Byram,*** p.15). Really, culture covers a wide territory. Culture includes such areas as literature, the arts in general, history, music, folklore, customs, habits and traditions, human's behaviour, gestures, social relationship. This can be considered a problem deriving from the complicated nature of culture.

Culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writting. It is always in the background. The teaching of culture is not akin to the transmission of information regarding to people of the target community or country, even though knowledge about the target group is an important ingredient. It would be nothing short of ludicrous to assert that culture is merely a repository of facts and experinces to which one can have recourse, if need be.

To learn foreign language is not merely to learn how to communicate but also to discover how much leeway the target language allows learners to manipulate grammatical forms, sounds, and meanings, and to reflect upon, or even flout, socially accepted norms at work both in their own or the target culture.

The cultural basis of English teaching has been closely linked to the culture of native-English-speaking countries. The fact that English has become an international language offers a serious challenge to this approach. In dealing with the linguistic and pedagogical aspect of culture in language teaching, what is needed is a full recognition that English today has become denationalized.

Hence, it is local educators who need to determine what linguistic information, cultural content, and teaching methodology are most appropriate for the local context so that learners will be able to use English to tell others about their own culture.

When we speak about integration of foreign language teaching with culture we should remember that the teaching of culture has certain goals and is of and in itself a means of accomplishing them. There are:

to help students to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviours;

to help students to develop an understanding that social variables such as age, sex, social class, and place of residence influence the ways in which people speak and behave;

to help students to become more aware of conventional behaviour in common situations in the target culture;

to help students to increase their awareness of the cultural connotations of words and phrases in the target language;

to help students to develop the ability to evaluate and refine generalizations about the target culture, in terms of supporting evidence;

to help students to develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information about the target culture;

to stimulate students' intellectual curiosity about the target culture and to encourage empathy towards its people.

The aim of teaching culture is "to increase students' awareness and to develop their curiosity towards the target culture and their own, helping them to make comparisons among cultures" (***Tavares, R.*** & ***Cavalcanti, I.***, 1996, p.19).

Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted. Culture is the foundation of communication (***Samovar, L., Porter, R.*** & ***Jain, N.***, p.24).

Teaching culture in language class is already a concept accepted by language teachers the world over and this concept has been put into practice for a long time.

Teaching culture has been considered important in foreign language instruction for almost a century. It is important to point out that the reference here is made to culture integrated in foreign language teaching, English in particular, in auditorium situated in a different linguistic environment, in this case, looking at the foreign language as a part of learners' education. Foreign language teaching as referred to learning in a non-native language environment (***Valdes, J.M.***, 1968) is very complex.

The focus will fall on culture as a valuable component to which often attention is paid by course book writers on one hand, and teachers on the other. However, it was not until more recent years that teaching culture in language courses has been widely emphasized in high schools and universities.

Now most scholars in second language acquisition have operated with the assumption that learning a language means acquiring the set of pragmatic norms and cultural values embodied in the target language. Brooks states: "Turning to culture, we deliberately shift focus away from language as such towards the people who use the language: where and how they live, what they think, feel, and do. It is nowadays a

commonplace in a language pedagogy that language and culture are interwined, that it is possible to teach language without culture, and that culture is the necessary context for language use" (***Brooks, N.***, 1968, p.45).

The cultural dimension in language learning is nothing new, but in the traditional models of language education culture means mainly highly culture. It occupies a prominent but isolated position (***Byram, M.*** & ***Fleming,*** 1998). This component is usually given little importance if it is considered at all. Recent models have tended to put more emphasis on the behavioural aspects of culture and its role in communication (***Morgan, C.***, 1993, p.63-75).

It is recently that the concept of culture has become fashionable in language teaching (***Tomalin, B.*** & ***Stempleski, S.***, 1993). At present, the need for learning about culture is widely recognised, as it is seen that it is inadequate to teach the language only in itself.

In order to get meaningful results when integrating culture in foreign language learning, it is necessary to look at the process and the small particular aspects of it. Truly, learners want to have a good command of the foreign language, therefore, they need competence in grammar and vocabulary.

However, learners need more in order to communicate in the foreign language. In addition linguistic knowledge, a vast amount of cultural information is needed. The role of cultural background knowledge that derives from textbooks, pictures and realia is seen as essential. Cultural knowledge makes it easier to understand texts (***Brown, G.***, 1990, p.11-17). If we consider culture as knowledge, this body of knowledge should be conveyed to the learner. In order to find the key to success, we need to understand the very process of conveying as well as encountering.

It must be stressed here that when we teach a language, one encounter follows the other. As far as the process of becoming adapted to the new culture (acculturation) is concerned, research has found that there are four stages:

First, euthoria, which refers to the time when knowing little about the foreign language can be a source of excitement;

Second, culture shock that goes with feelings of irritability and anxiety;

Third, gradual recovery that means gaining confidence with the language;

Fourth, adaptation or assimilation related to language awareness and high level of competence.

Needless to say, the role of the teacher is extremely important in each stage in order to help learners through the process of acculturation.

Narrowing the scope, however, every time we meet culture there is a cognitive and affective process of seeing the cultured self and the cultured other, therefore, perception is seen as crucial. The assumption is that schemas, cues, values and cultural experience influence perception. The picture will be incomplete without making a point of how important it is for teachers to refer their students to schematas and beliefs that they possess in their own culture.

Furthermore, broad stereotyping is necessary in order to establish self-identity. Response to the language can be due to positive or negative perceptions. The negative ones as well as cross-cultural misunderstandings are related to perceptual mismatches and differences perceived. How people perceive others is further related to the notions of identity, role and voice (***Kramsch, C.***, 2000).

According to ***C.Kramsch*** these three factors constitute someone's culture and they find their realisation through discourse. The concept is that knowledge about culture helps discourse and enables people to communicate. The communicative approach to language learning is now the prevailing method in foreign language teaching.

One of the main reasons for the acceptance of anything communicative is that language is seen as means of communication or passing messages between people. The communicative approach to language learning provides relevant teaching and is better means of motivating pupils.

The communicative approach has given us a more complete view of language, a more realistic view of what our teaching goals are. Inevitably, there is a strong demand for linguistic fluency but cultural fluency is also needed. There are good reasons for stressing that language is above all means of communication, but successful cultural as well as intercultural competence are necessary.

On balance, actions taken with the communicative approach have become a lot better but at the same time everything is more complicated, and it is harder than ever to prioritise. What communication or miscommunication are about is that it is not only a question of finding the right words to fit what you want to say but trying to see things as others see them.

It is particularly useful to develop various strategies. In this respect the role of ethnography is believed as crucial. Shifting the perspective, the ultimate aim to surpass the native speaker model and have the intercultural speaker and prepare the learners for intercultural communication.

It is necessary to point out that dealing with cultural knowledge and understanding only is not sufficient. Truly, much more is needed in order to gain success in language teaching. In addition to cultural knowledge and understanding, the weight comes down on cultural awareness and interpretation. It should be made clear that the aim of raising cultural awareness is to promote learning as well as to increase the motivation of learners.

Using culture as subject matter not only provides enjoyment and a clearer self concept to the students, but it also allows the teacher to learn about the students through their eyes. The teacher can gain a general idea of their assumptions about school and teachers, home and family, which would be impossible for him or her to arrive at through library research or asking students even the most expertly phrased questions.

Recent research in the field of foreign language teaching has pointed out that students' motivation and interest are among the most important factors for the

learning of a foreign language. There are several means to improve the teaching effectiveness and to raise the interest and motivation of the students.

It is especially useful to be conscious of thick and thin ego boundaries of students. This leads us to the role of the affective domain in language learning and in this respect tolerance of ambiguity which is crucial to success in auditorium. And also recorded tapes, sound films, songs, comics, newspapers and magazines are familiar to teachers and students and they have proved to be very effective especially when cultural background is presented.

We may conclude that the need to integrate culture into language learning has long been recognised. Apparently, it is not enough to get information about culture elements and evaluate only them. We should go beyond this and try to interpret the elements connected with culture. Thus, a demand has been created for teachers with a great deal of experience and knowledge about what is relevant to be discussed and how it is to be discussed.

Cultural information should be presented in a nonjudgmental fashion, in a way that does not place value or judgement on distinctions between the students' native culture and the culture explored in the auditorium.

It is also important to help foreign language learners understand that cultures are not monolithic. A variety of successful behaviors are possible for any type of interaction in any particular culture. Teachers must allow students to observe and explore cultural interactions from their own perspectives to enable them to find their own voices in the second language speech community.

Cultural activities and objectives should be carefully organized and incorporated into lesson plans to enrich and inform the teaching content. Using authentic sources from the native speech community helps to engage foreign language learners in authentic cultural experiences. Sources can include films, news broadcasts, television shows, web sites, photographs, magazines, newspapers, restaurant menus, travel

brochures and other printed materials. Teachers can adapt their use of authentic materials to suit the age and language proficiency level of the learners.

Discussion topics might include nonverbal behaviors, for example, the physical distance between speakers, gestures, eye contact, societal roles and how people in different social roles relate to each other. Foreign language learners might describe the behaviors they observe and discuss which of them are similar to their native culture and which are not and determine strategies for effective communication in the target language.

Using proverbs as a way to explore culture also provides a way to analyze the streotypes about and misperceptions of the culture, as well as for students to explore the values that are often represented in the proverbs of their native culture. Discussion of common proverbs in the target language could focus on how the proverbs are different from or similar to proverbs in the students' native language and how differences might underscore historical and cultural background.

Foreign language learners can be presented with objects, for example, jewelry, art, figurines, or images that originate from the target culture. The students are then responsible for finding information about the item in question, either by conducting research or by being given clues to investigate. They can either write a brief summary or make an oral presentation to the class about the cultural relevance of the item. Such activities can also serve as a foundation from which teachers can go on to discuss larger cultural, historical and linguistic factors that tie in with the objects. Such contextualization is, in fact, important to the success of using culture capsules.

One of the effective way for foreign language learners to study about the target language and culture is to send them into their own community to find information. Learners can carry out ethnographic interviews with native speakers in the community, which they can record in notebooks or on audiotapes or videotapes.

Discussion activities could include oral family histories, interviews with community professionals, and studies of social groups. It is important to note that

activities involving the target-language community require a great deal of time on the part of the teacher to help set them up and to offer ongoing supervision.

Literary texts are often replete with cultural information and evoke memorable reactions for readers. Texts that are carefully selected for a given group of students and with specific goals in mind can be very helpful in allowing foreign language learners to acquire insight into a culture.

Film and television segments offer foreign language learners an opportunity to witness behaviors that are not obvious in texts. Film is often one of the more current and comprehensive ways to encapsulate the look, feel and rhythm of a culture. Film also connects students with language and cultural issues simultaneously such as depicting conversational timing or turn-taking in conversation. At least one study showed that students achieved significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching videos from the target culture.

Thus, language is the carrier of culture and vocabulary is the basic ingredient of language. The cultural difference will inevitably exhibited on the vocabulary, and the explanation of vocabulary will also reflect the national or cultural difference. In a word, culture is a comprehensive composite with abundant implication and each factor in it may be exhibited on words. Learning vocabulary, while paying attention to cultural factors, is vital and crucial.

It's obvious that the teaching situation and teaching methods used in English language teaching in Azerbaijan need to be changes to involve culture instead of language knowledge only. To account for the roles culture plays in language learning and teaching, it is necessary to demonstrate the functions it may perform in the components of language learning and teaching, such as listening, speaking, reading and translating.

Writing a textbook is a process that forces upon the author a neutral stance since it is clear that the student is best served by impartial analysis. Yet textbook authors can feel as compelled to push their own intellectual agenda as authors of

research papers, and for this final chapter I will drop the impersonal we together with its implied neutrality and present a view of the overall situation in Comparative Linguistics that makes no claims to being the standard view or even the view of a well-definable minority.

Questions in Typology

1. What is Typology?
2. What does Structural typology study?
3. What does Onomosiological typology study?
4. What is Genetic typology?
5. What does Contrastive structure mean?
6. What does General typology study?
7. What do you know about Historical Linguistics, Typological Linguistics and Applied Linguistics?
8. What is the difference between Comparative Linguistics and Contrastive Linguistics?
9. … was the first scholar who paid a great attention to the typology of different languages with different morphological structure.
10. I.I.Meschaninov includes all the agglutination flective and amorphous languages into …
11. All the Indo-European languages, such as Albanian, Anatolian, Armenian, Baltic, Celtic, Germanic, Hellenic, Indo-Iranian, Slavic, Italic, Tocharian include ...
12. … divided languages into three groups according to the sentence structure.
13. In the segmental lingual-hierarchy the …
14. Which level is the proposemic level?
15. All the Turkic languages comprises 23 written languages, such as ...
16. What is the major syntactical relation in the third type?
17. What does subordination comprise?
18. The fourth difference of phrases in English and Azerbaijani is observed in…?
19. What is the predicate, its resemblant features and definitive distinctions in the non-cognate languages?
20. According to the first principle sentences are divided into …

21. In compared languages the sentence has nominative construction, as it has been determined by…

22. How many groups can be divided in languages, according to the I.I.Meschaninov?

23. According to Joseph Greenberg English and Russian languages belong to the group of languages with …

24. Same scholars treat it as “transotology” which means ...

25. What is the aim of Linguistic Translation?

26. Linguistic Translation appeared as independent branch in the second half of …century.

27. What is the application of computers to the task of translating texts from one language to another?

28. Literary translation which has its own … and …

29. The translation of the meanings depends on …

30. The semantic structure of the sign is composed …

31. ...is the smallest sound unit of a language?

32. What does Functional Typology study?

33. …compares units of phonetic levels of languages, it studies concrete physiological unit.

34. …compares units of phonology, phonemic levels of languages.

35. … distinguishes 4 principal styles of good spoken English? Familiar, formal, public-speaking style, public-reading style – their isomorphic and allomorphic features.

36. A.A.Reformatsky put forward that ….should belong to Graphic Arts.

37. …have 2 forms: joining ligatures approaching ligatures.

38. In linguistic under “…” we understand joining two or three having one and the same sound.

39. The word “Typology” is derived from … words.

40. Which of them is not typology’s type?

41. Comparative typology based on…

42. What is the aim of the Comparative Typology?

43. The sentence unit ıs unit of speech which is formed according to the … rules of the given language.

44. Who includes all the agglutinative flective and amorphs language into the first group?

45. … was the first scholar who paid a great attention to the typology of sentences of different languages with different morphological structure.

46. ... of complex syntactic units are those complexes which the missing of either principal or the subordinate clause in transform-construction doesn't seem to be incomplete either structurally or semantically.

47. Which subject doesn't exist in Azerbaijan?

48. Typology of Lexical Systems in Modern English and Russian / English and Azerbaijani.

49. B.Ilyish's classification is based on three principles. Which principles are they?

50. Typology of Sentences in Modern English and Russian / English and Azerbaijani.

51. The word "orthoepy" is of ... origin.

52. Linguistic typology is a field of Linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their....

53. The role of Fredrich Schlegel?

54. What are the main components of the Syntax?

55. ... is considered to be the founder of the linguistic typology.

56. The peculiarities of Typology of Phonological Systems.

57. The term "agglutination" was introduced by....

58. What does Areal typology study?

59. According to its object and aim how many types can Typology are divided into?

60. Which are types of Linguistic Translation?

61. What are the peculiarities of Nigar Valiyeva's classification of the phraseological units?

62. ... translation which has its own content and investigating methods.

63. The peculiarities of Typology of Morphological Systems.

64. How many types does linguistic translation have?

65. Which type of translation is connected with Linguistics?

66. … is the application of computers to the task of translating texts from one language to another.

67. "Translotology" means:

68. What is word order?

69. What does referential meaning mean?

70. The semantic structure of the sign is composed of three components:

71. In Modern English and Russian / English and Azerbaijani Common Properties of the Verbs.

72. What is referent?

73. What does Typology concern with?

74. What does Computational Linguistics Study?

75. How many types does Language Typology have?

76. Which types of Typology Studies the compared facts of language from meaning to function?

77. The Notion of Syntactic Level in Modern English and Russian / English and Azerbaijani.

78. Syllables can't coincide with … represent semantic units having definite forms.

79. What do you know about computational and quantitative methods?

80. Which types are units of language divided into?

81. To the supra-segmental units belong … .

82. What do you know about the history of typological investigation?

83. What is the definition of the grammatical category?

84. What are the main nominal grammatical categories?

85. What kind of category is gender in Azerbaijani?

86. How many degrees of adjectives in Azerbaijani?

87. What degree of adjectives is not marked?

88. What are the functional parts of speech in English and Russian / English and Azerbaijani?

89. Types of Phrases in Modern English and Russian / English and Azerbaijani?

90. The peculiarities of the Typology of Conversation?

91. What are the kinds of the Particle in English and Russian?

92. What is the aim of the Pragmatic Typology?

93. The difference between “idi” and “imis” is that former expresses “...” but the latter probability “...”.

94. In Azerbaijani generally the particles are divided into the following groups:

95. Copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causative-consecutive are the kinds of ... .

96. ... have no grammatical categories, no lexical stem building elements.

97. Conjunction, particle, preposition, modal words, connective, preposition are ... .

98. ... postulates 3 principles according to which the words are to be classified: Meaning, Form and Function.

99. The English Common case like Azerbaijani and Russian Nominative case is characterized by the ... .

100. The English Genitive case like Azerbaijani and Russian is characterized by the ... .

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For notes