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INTRODUCTION

For many years, the role of grammar in foreign language teaching was one of the most discussed topics among language researchers. Studies and findings in this field have revealed that after a relatively long period of an exaggerated underestimate, grammar stands now where it should. This paper attempts to explore some Uzbek EFL teachers' perceptions of the role of grammar knowledge and grammar instruction during English lesson. Furthermore, it shows which methods of teaching are more used and the ways and methods of making English grammar learning more comprehensible to the students. It also explores shortly the learners' attitudes towards grammar instruction in the classroom and how it affects their proficiency in the target language. This study finds that teachers and pupils consider grammar as an important aspect when learning a language. Some EFL teachers in comprehensive and high schools of Uzbekistan believe that grammar should be taught systematically, and inductively in order to acquire a foreign language.

It is our task to prepare and teach professionally competent and energetic personnel, real patriots to see them in the world depository of science and culture. In this plan the notional program about training personnel was worked out on the

formation of new generation of specialist. “With the high common and professionally culture, creative and social activity, with the ability to orientate in the social and political life independently, capable to raise and solve the problems to the perspective”

Actuality of the research. Language is essential in expressing the feelings, thoughts, and perceptions and plays an important role in the development of personality, social and cultural identity as well as for communication. By learning a foreign language, students understand better different aspects of culture and point of views of every people in the society. Nowadays, teaching English language has become a complex task and requires teachers to have multidimensional skills. Recently, in Uzbekistan, the teaching of English from the first grade has become a priority for Ministries of Education paying special attention to learning foreign languages. This attention came as a need for direct communication with the world in various scientific fields as well as for a quality of translation.

When learning a language, grammar plays an important role. The position that grammar should have in L2 teaching and learning changed over the years. The researches made resulted in teaching approaches and methods whose role has been either overestimated or completely downplayed. According to Ellis, grammar had an important role in language teaching methods and approaches such as Grammar-Translation and Audio-Lingual methods and has been closely related to language learning. On the other hand, with the upbringing of the Natural Approach, grammar instruction was excluded from language classroom. However, in order to communicate with one another, we should be capable of presenting appropriately what we want to say, make the message interpersonally relevant to what has been said before. This can be done by selecting proper process types, participants, tenses, moods, modalities, theme, and reference. In other words, it can be understood that grammar lies at the very heart of communication.

The novelty of the qualification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation special emphasis is laid various types of nouns from English into Uzbek.

The aim of this qualification paper is to study of the Semantic classification of some parts of speech in English and Uzbek.

To close study of the usage and classification of nouns in English and other languages put forward a lot of tasks

1. To define more exactly some linguistics.
2. To work out methods terms of revealing the linguistic research.
3. To study specific semantic peculiarities of nouns.
4. To study functional semantic peculiarities of the nouns in English and other languages.

The main material of our research work is illustrated with examples in English, Uzbek and Russian languages which are gathered from English and other languages dictionaries, text books and literature

To investigate the research more clearly a lot of methods have been used in the paper. They are comparative methods – the survey of the work in the sphere of two languages, comprehensive study of semantic classification of nouns. The methods of observation in the selection the units and suitable methods.

Scientific scrutiny of the research. The given topic has been investigated by a lot of scientists throughout the world and correspondingly in our country. As the topic concerns the methodology of teaching English the works of Jamol Jalolov, Penny Ur, Rod Ellis and others' served as the main resources for making the research. Just "Foreign language teaching methodology" (2012) by can prove that in our country the topic of teaching foreign languages in our country is highly evaluated. In this book the author suggests different approaches to teaching languages both for young and adult learners. The author tried to give solutions to the problems like teaching foreign languages to the learners whose language sentence structure is different from the one that's taught. Also, language teaching was investigated by great scientists of abroad. Rod Ellis' "Understanding Second Language Acquisition" (1996) is dedicated to the methodology of language teaching. The author mostly emphasizes the ways of speaking to adult learners in her book.

The subject is the investigation of different ways, approaches and even difficulties in teaching English grammar to Uzbek students and their solutions.

Object of the research is the way of improving learners speaking skills in the classroom and also as an object may serve a learner and a teacher who play crucial role in classroom interaction.

Methods used in the research are

- descriptive method;
- comparative method;
- quantitative and qualitative methods;
- analysis and synthesis.

The theoretical value of the Qualification Paper is that the theoretical position of the work can be used in translating different texts. Besides that, they may be used in delivering lectures of translation theoretical English grammar and lexicology.

The practical value of the given Qualification Paper is that the practical results and conclusion can be used while translating different literary text from English into Uzbek as the material for theoretical courses of grammar, comparative typology as well as used for practical lessons in grammar and conversation practice

The structure of work the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters and a conclusion which are followed by the lists of Literature used in the course of the Research.

Introduction tells about the aim of the Research, methods used in the course of it, explains its actuality, novelty, practical and scientific value.

Chapter I deals with a problem of the characteristics of noun in English

Chapter II deals with functional- semantics aspect, characteristic features of the nouns grouped into semantic classes and methods of teaching.

Chapter III with the problems of teaching kinds of noun and advanced level students and general problems of teaching grammar.

Conclusion presents the results of the investigation produced in the Qualification paper. The list of used literature names all the books used in the course of this research.

CHAPTER I. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON PROBLEMS OF GRAMMATICAL SEMANTICS OF LINGUISTIC UNITS

1.1. Analysis of the semantics in linguistics

The problem of parts of speech is one that causes great controversies both in general linguistic theory and in the analysis of separate languages. We shall have to examine here briefly a few general questions concerning parts of speech which are of some importance for Modern English.

The term "parts of speech" (as well as the corresponding terms in Russian, German, French, and other languages), though firmly established, is not a very happy one. What is meant by a "part of speech" is a type of word differing from other types in some grammatical point or points. To take the clearest example of all, the verb is a type of word different from all other types in that it alone has the grammatical category of tense. Thus, while it is perfectly reasonable to ask, "What is the past tense of the word *live*?" (the answer of course is, *lived*), it would make no sense to ask, "What is the

past tense of the word *city*?" or "What is the past tense of the word *big*?" Those words just have not got any past tense, or any tense whatever, for that matter: the notion of tense cannot be applied to them. Tense is one of the distinctive features characterising the verb as against every other type of word. However, the question is much less simple with reference to some other types of words, and a general definition of the principles on which the classification of parts of speech is based becomes absolutely necessary.

We cannot here go into the controversy over these principles that has lasted a considerable time now, and we will limit ourselves to stating the principles of our classification and pointing out some difficulties inherent in it.

The principles on which the classification is based are three in number, viz. meaning, form, function. Each of these requires some additional explanations.

By meaning we do not mean the individual meaning of each separate word (its lexical meaning) but the meaning common to all the words of the given class and constituting its essence. Thus, the meaning of the substantive (noun) is "thingness". This applies equally to all and every noun and constitutes the structural meaning of the noun as a type of word. Similarly, the meaning of the verb as a type of word is that of "process", whatever the individual meaning of a separate verb may happen to be. We shall have to dwell on this later in considering every part of speech in detail.

By form we mean the morphological characteristics of a type of word. Thus, the noun is characterised by the category of number (singular and plural), the verb by tense, mood, etc. Several types of words (prepositions, conjunctions, and others) are characterised by invariability.

By function we mean the syntactical properties of a type of word. These are subdivided into two, viz. its method of combining with other words, its function in the sentence; has to deal with phrases, with sentence structure.

Taking, as we did previously, the verb as a specimen, we can state that, for example, a verb combines with a following noun (*write letters*) and also with a following adverb (*write quickly*). As to second one, i. e. the syntactical function of a verb in a sentence, it is that of a predicate.¹

Two additional remarks are necessary before we proceed to the analysis of parts of speech in detail.

In the first place, there is the question about the mutual relation of the criteria. We cannot be sure in advance that all three criteria will always point the same way. Then, again, in some cases, one of them may fail (this especially applies to the criterion of form). Under such circumstances, it may prove necessary to choose between them, i. e. to attach to one of them greater value than to another. We may say, provisionally, that we shall treat them in

the order in which they have been enumerated, viz. meaning shall come first, form next, and function last.

It will also be seen that the theory of parts of speech, though considered by most scholars to be a part of morphology,² cannot do without touching on some syntactical problems, namely on phrases and on syntactical functions of words (point 3 in our list of criteria). We shall regard the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

1. Proceeding in the usual order, we start with the noun, or substantive.³

Its characteristic features are the following.

Meaning: thingness. Thus, nouns include not only *chair* and *iron*, etc., but also *beauty*, *peace*, *necessity*, *journey*, and everything else presented as a thing, or object.

Form. Nouns have the category of number (singular and plural),

¹ We do not consider here the functions of the infinitive, participle and gerund

² Some scholars took a different view of the problem. Thus, Academician A. Shakhmatov held that parts of speech should be treated in Syntax. (See A.A. Shakhmatov. *Sintaksis russkogo yazika* 1941)

³ In the prevailing Modern English terminology the terms "noun" and "Substantive" are used as synonyms.

though some individual nouns may lack either a singular or a plural form. They also, in the accepted view, have the category of case (common and genitive); see, however.

Function. (a) Combining with words to form phrases. A noun combines with a preceding adjective (*large room*), or occasionally with a following adjective (*times immemorial*),

with a preceding noun in either the common case (*iron bar*) or the genitive case (*father's room*), with a verb following it (*children play*) or preceding it (*play games*). Occasionally a noun may combine with a following or a preceding adverb (*the man there; the then president*). It also combines with prepositions (*in a house; house of rest*). It is typical of a noun to be preceded by the definite or indefinite article (*the room, a room*).

(b) Function in the sentence. A noun may be the subject or the predicative of a sentence, or an object, an attribute, and an adverbial modifier. It can also make part of each of these when preceded by a preposition.

Next, we come to the adjective.

Meaning. The adjective expresses property.¹⁴

Form. Adjectives in Modern English are invariable. Some adjectives form degrees of comparison (*long, longer, longest*).

Function. Adjectives combine with nouns both preceding and (occasionally) following them (*large room, times immemorial*). They also combine with a preceding adverb (*very large*). Adjectives can be followed by the phrase "preposition + noun" (*free from danger*). Occasionally they combine with a preceding verb (*married young*). In the sentence, an adjective can be either an attribute (*large room*) or a predicative (*is large*). It can also be an objective predicative (*painted the door green*).

The pronoun.

The meaning of the pronoun as a separate part of speech is somewhat

⁴ The property may be either permanent or temporary.

difficult to define. In fact, some pronouns share essential peculiarities of nouns (e.g. *he*), while others have much in common with adjectives (e. g. *which*). This made some scholars think that pronouns were not a separate part of speech at all and should be distributed between nouns and adjectives. However, this view proved untenable and entailed insurmountable difficulties. Hence it has proved necessary to find a definition of the specific meaning of pronouns, distinguishing them from both nouns and adjectives. From this angle the meaning of pronouns as a part of speech can be stated as follows: pronouns point to the things and properties without naming them. Thus, for example, the pronoun *it* points to a thing without being the name of any particular class of things. The pronoun *its* points to the property of a thing by referring it to another thing. The pronoun *what* can point both to a thing and a property.

Form. As far as form goes pronouns fall into different types. Some of them have the category of number (singular and plural), e. g. *this*, while others have no such category, e. g. *somebody*. Again, some pronouns have the category of case (*he* — *him*, *somebody* — *somebody's*), while others have none (*something*).

Function. Some pronouns combine with verbs (*he speaks*, *find him*), while others can also combine with a following noun (*this room*). In the sentence, some pronouns may be the subject (*he*, *what*) or the object, while others are the attribute (*my*). Pronouns can be predicative.

Numerals. The treatment of numerals presents some difficulties, too. The so-called cardinal numerals (*one*, *two*) are somewhat different from the so-called ordinal numerals (*first*, *second*).

Meaning. Numerals denote either number or place in a series.

Form. Numerals are invariable.

Function. As far as phrases go, both cardinal and ordinal numerals combine with a following noun (*three rooms*, *third room*); occasionally a numeral follows a noun (*soldiers three*, *George the Third*). In a sentence, a

numeral most usually is an attribute (*three rooms, the third room*), but it can also be subject, predicative, and object: *Three of them came in time; "We Are Seven"* (the title of a poem by Wordsworth); *I found only four*.

The stative. The next item in our list of parts of speech is a controversial one. Such words as *asleep, ablaze, afraid*, etc. have been often named adjectives, though they cannot (apart from a few special cases) be attributes in a sentence, and though their meaning does not seem to be that of property. In spite of protracted discussion that has been going on for some time now, views on this point are as far apart as ever. We will expound here the view that words of the *asleep* type constitute a separate part of speech, and we will consider the various arguments for and against this view in Chapter IX. As for the term "stative", it may be used to denote these words, on the analogy of such terms as "substantive" and "adjective".

Meaning. The meaning of the words of this type is that of a passing state a person or thing happens to be in.

Form. Statives are invariable.

Function. Statives most usually follow a link verb (*was asleep, fell asleep*). Occasionally they can follow a noun (*man olive*). They can also sometimes be preceded by an adverb (*fast asleep*). In the sentence, a stative is most usually a predicative (*he fell asleep*). They can also be objective predicatives (*I found him asleep*) and attributes, almost always following the noun they modify (*a man asleep in his chair*).

The verb. Meaning. The verb as a part of speech expresses a process.

Form. The verb is characterised by an elaborate system of morphological categories, some of which are, however, controversial. These are: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person, and number.

Function. Verbs are connected with a preceding noun (*children play*) and with a following noun (*play games*). They are also connected with adverbs (*write quickly*). Occasionally a verb may combine with an adjective (*married young*). In a sentence a verb (in its finite forms) is always the predicate or

part of it (link verb). The functions of the verbals (infinitive, participle, and gerund) must be dealt with separately.

The adverb.

The meaning of the adverb as a part of speech is hard to define. Indeed, some adverbs indicate time or place of an action (*yesterday, here*), while others indicate its property (*quickly*) and others again the degree of a property (*very*). As, however, we should look for one central meaning characterising the part of speech as a whole, it seems best to formulate the meaning of the adverb as "property of an action or of a property".

Form. Adverbs are invariable. Some of them, however, have degrees of comparison (*fast, faster, fastest*).

Function. An adverb combines with a verb (*run quickly*), with an adjective (*very long*), occasionally with a noun (*the then president*) and with a phrase (*so out of things*). An adverb can sometimes follow a preposition (*from there*). (c) In a sentence an adverb is almost always an adverbial modifier, or part of it (*from there*), but it may occasionally be an attribute.

8. Prepositions. The problem of prepositions has caused very heated discussions, especially in the last few years. Both the meaning and the syntactical functions of prepositions have been the subject of controversy. We will treat of this matter at some length in Chapter XVIII, and here we will limit ourselves to a brief statement of our general view on the subject.

Meaning. The meaning of prepositions is obviously that of relations between things and phenomena.

Form. Prepositions are invariable.

Function. Prepositions enter into phrases in which they are preceded by a noun, adjective, numeral, stative, verb or adverb, and followed by a noun, adjective, numeral or pronoun. In a sentence a preposition never is a separate part of it. It goes together with the following word to form an object, adverbial modifier, predicative or attribute, and in extremely rare cases a subject (*There were about a hundred people in the hall*).

Conjunctions. The problem of conjunctions is of the same order as that of prepositions, but it has attracted less attention. We will reserve full discussion of the matter to Chapter XIX and we will only state here the main points.

Meaning. Conjunctions express connections between things and phenomena.

Form. Conjunctions are invariable.

Function. They connect any two words, phrases or clauses. In a sentence, conjunctions are never a special part of it. They either connect homogeneous parts of a sentence or homogeneous clauses (the so-called co-ordinating conjunctions), or they join a subordinate clause to its head clause (the so-called subordinating conjunctions).

A further remark is necessary here. We have said that prepositions express relations between phenomena, and conjunctions express connections between them. It must be acknowledged that the two notions, relations and connections, are somewhat hard to distinguish. This is confirmed by the well-known fact that phrases of one and the other kind may be more or less synonymous: cf., e. g., *an old man and his son* and *an old man with his son*. It is also confirmed by the fact that in some cases a preposition and a conjunction may be identical in sound and have the same meaning (e. g. *before* introducing a noun and *before* introducing a subordinate clause; the same about *after*). Since it is hard to distinguish between prepositions and conjunctions as far as meaning goes, and morphologically they are both invariable, the only palpable difference between them appears to be their syntactical function. It may be reasonably doubted whether this is a sufficient basis for considering them to be separate parts of speech. It might be argued that prepositions and conjunctions make up a single part of speech, with subdivisions based on the difference of syntactical functions. Such a view would go some way toward solving the awkward problem of homonymy with reference to such words as *before*, *after*, *since*, and the like. However, since this is an issue

for further consideration, we will, for the time being, stick to the traditional view of prepositions and conjunctions as separate parts of speech.

Particles. By particles we mean such word as *only*, *solely*, *exclusively*, *even* (*even old people came*), *just* (*just turn the handle*), etc. These were traditionally classed with adverbs, from which they, however, differ in more than one respect.

Meaning. The meaning of particles is very hard to define. We might say, approximately, that they denote subjective shades of meaning introduced by the speaker or writer and serving to emphasise or limit some point in what he says.

Form. Particles are invariable.

Function. Particles may combine with practically every part of speech, more usually preceding it (*only three*), but occasionally following it (*for advanced students only*). Particles never are a separate part of a sentence. They enter the part of the sentence formed by the word (or phrase) to which they refer. (It might also be argued that particles do not belong to any part of a sentence.)

Modal words. Modal words have only recently been separated from adverbs, with which they were traditionally taken together. By modal words we mean such words as *perhaps*, *possibly*, *certainly*.

Meaning. Modal words express the speaker's evaluation of the relation between an action and reality.

Form. Modal words are invariable.

Function. Modal words usually do not enter any phrases but stand outside them. In a few cases, however, they may enter into a phrase with a noun, adjective, etc. (*he will arrive soon, possibly to-night*). The function of modal words in a sentence is a matter of controversy. We will discuss this question at some length in Chapter XXI and meanwhile we will assume that modal words perform the function of a parenthesis. Modal words may also be a sentence in themselves.

Interjections.

Meaning. Interjections express feelings (*ah, alas*). They are not names of feelings but the immediate expression of them. Some interjections represent noises, etc., with a strong emotional colouring (*bang!*).

Form. Interjections are invariable.

Function. Interjections usually do not enter into phrases. Only in a few cases do they combine with a preposition and noun or pronoun, e.g. *alas for him!* In a sentence an interjection forms a kind of parenthesis. An interjection may also be a sentence in itself, e. g. *Alas!* as an answer to a question.

So far we have been considering parts of speech as they are usually termed and treated in grammatical tradition: we have been considering nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. Some modern linguists prefer to avoid this traditional grouping and terminology and to establish a classification of types of words based entirely on their morphological characteristics and on their ability (or inability) to enter into phrases with other words of different types. Thus, for instance the words *and* and *or* will fall under one class while the words *because* and *whether* will fall under another class.

These classes are not denoted by special terms, such as "noun" or "adjective"; instead they are given numbers; thus, the words *concert* and *necessity* would belong to class 1, the words *seem* and *feel* to class 2, etc. Without even going into details, it is easy to see that the number of such classes is bound to be greater than that of the usual parts of speech. For instance, in the classification proposed by S. S. Fries there are no less than 19 classes of words.

It must be recognised that classifications based on these principles yield more exact results than the traditional ones, but the system thus obtained proves to be unwieldy and certainly unfit for practical language teaching. Whether it can be so modified as to be exact and easily grasped at the same time remains to be seen.

1.2 The Role of semantic in linguistic investigations.

Gender and other nominal classification systems have recently been the subject of several comprehensive studies. The papers in the volume edited by Unterbeck and Rissanen deal primarily with structural aspects of gender, i.e., gender assignment and agreement, with occasional comparisons with other nominal classification systems, i.e. noun classes and classifiers. In turn, the two volumes which have so far appeared in the three-volume series edited by Hellinger and Buřimann concentrate on the socio-cultural aspects of gender, e.g., generics and gender-related stereotypes. The books under review offer a different perspective: gender is here treated as one of the several types of nominal classification, together with noun classes and classifiers. While such common treatments have been attempted before, the two books build upon recent data from typologically diverse languages. This allows the authors to construct typologies of nominal classification systems and provide interdisciplinary insights, particularly into psycholinguistics and cultural anthropology. *Classifiers: A typology of noun categorization devices* by Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald will be reviewed first as it is more comprehensive and can thus serve as the starting point for issues dealt with in the individual papers collected in the volume *Systems of nominal classification* edited by Gunter Senft.

Classifiers: A typology of noun categorization devices begins with a Preface (pp. vii-viii), in which a few terminological clarifications are made. The ongoing nature of the research in the field is reflected in the Acknowledgements and the Plea (pp. ix-xi), where Aikhenvald welcomes comments on the book.

The chapters can be arranged as follows: following the Preliminaries, a detailed introduction is given in Chapters 2-9 into the individual classification systems. Chapter 10 deals with the interactions between noun classification and other grammatical categories, while Chapters 11 and 12

consider the semantics and functions of noun classification systems. Finally, diachronic issues, together with the acquisition and dissolution of the systems are dealt with in Chapters 13 and 14. The volume is complemented with three appendixes, together with two lists (of languages, and of language families, linguistic areas and proto-languages) and two indexes

In Preliminaries, Aikhenvald presents the motivation for a typology of noun classification systems in the face of new data and a terminological confusion. A brief overview is given of classification types and the last two decades of research, including examples of terminological confusion and relatively recent statements that have been revised through new data made available. Aikhenvald draws on an extensive sample of convenience from about 500 languages, frequently based on her own field data. The inductive, empirically-based approach underlines the whole study, which is made manifest by a quotation from Bloomfield on the value of inductive generalizations. In line with the typology proposed by Colette Grinevald (Craig and "A morph syntactic typology of classifiers" in the other volume), the typology is based on morph syntactic criteria, and treats the classification types as prototypes located along a continuum. Several dimensions, or parameters, are distinguished within this continuum; they fall into definitional parameters (morph syntactic locus of coding, scope of categorization, assignment, surface realization, agreement, markedness relations and degree of grammaticalization) and contingent parameters, e.g., semantic organization and diachronic patterns.

The term "noun/nominal classification" is thus used beside "noun/nominal categorization"¹; likewise, both terms will be used in the present paper. The term "classifier (system)", as it appears in the title of the book, is used in a more general sense, equivalent to a noun classification system. Since "classifier" is used in the narrow sense (i.e. for a type of classifiers, e.g., numeral) in the second volume under review, only the narrow meaning will be adopted here. In addition,

"linguistic categorization of a noun" is taken as "linguistic categorization of the referent of a noun". This approach will have important implications throughout the two volumes (cf. especially John A. Lucy's "Systems of nominal classification: a concluding discussion").

classification and are characterized by agreement. Aikhenvald first presents the properties of assignment to genders/noun classes (semantic, formal, mixed).⁴ This is followed by a discussion of several issues dealing with agreement: the loci of agreement, differences between semantic and syntactic agreement, determining the number of genders/noun classes in a language, and finally markedness relations, crucial in gender/noun class resolution. Lastly, Aikhenvald considers the realization of noun classes and gives examples of languages with more than one gender/noun class system.⁵ This Chapter, as well as Chapters 3-6, is complemented with a summary and a map showing the distribution of a given noun classification type.

Chapters 3 "Noun classifiers" and 4 "Numeral classifiers" take us to the less grammaticalized systems. Of the two types numeral classifiers are by far the most common one; in contrast, noun classifiers are restricted to South-East Asia, Australia and central and south America. However, they have distinct semantics, involving inherent properties such as animacy or physical properties. In addition, they may occur together with other types in a single language. These characteristics warrant a separate treatment (cf. Grinevald's typology in the other volume). Aikhenvald discusses the semantic and syntactic properties of noun classifiers, and provides contrasts with numeral classifiers and noun classes, including a brief comparison with lexical means found in non-classifying languages, e.g., E-berry. In contrast, numeral classifiers occur in the context of quantification, i.e. with a numeral or quantifier. They are usually associated with isolating languages, but examples are also given of languages of other profiles, including polysynthetic and fusional (Indie). Numeral classifiers can be

realized as independent lexemes; they can also be attached to the numeral or much less frequently to the noun. The chapter on numeral classifiers is concluded with a discussion of the contrasts between sortal classifiers, which categorize in terms of inherent properties, and mensural classifiers, which categorize in terms of quantity, and an illustration of the differences between the latter and quantifiers in non-classifying languages. Here Aikhenvald provides examples of incipient numeral classifiers from nouns in gender languages: Russian and varieties of Arabic.

While English is initially treated separately, it is eventually included within a wider definition of agreement that allows for anaphoric agreement.

In Chapters 5-7 Aikhenvald deals with the less common types of classifiers: "Classifiers in possessive constructions", "Verbal classifiers", and "Locative and deictic classifiers". Three subtypes are distinguished among classifiers that occur in possessive constructions. "Possessed" classifiers categorize the possessed noun; their use may or may not depend on the distinction alienable : inalienable. "Relational" classifiers constitute a distinct type as they categorize a relation between nouns - between the possessor and the possessee - and are restricted to alienable possession. And finally, the possessor is classified by the least common "possessor" classifiers. As above, examples are given to illustrate the functionally similar classification of the possessor in non-classifying languages. Verbal classifiers, discussed in Chapter 6, appear on the verb and classify a noun in Subject or Object function. Aikhenvald distinguishes three types, realized as affixes, classificatory noun incorporation, where a noun is incorporated into a verb, and suppletive classificatory verbs. This last type, found in North American Indian languages, classifies the argument in terms of its inherent properties (and its orientation in space). It is treated by Aikhenvald as a grammatical means, unlike lexical items as in, e.g., E *drink* vs. *chew*, as their choice is paradigmatic. These systems may interact diachronically in the form of a continuum from incorporated nouns through

affixes to classificatory verbs. Another type of interaction may involve the presence of complex systems, with separate types of affixes or affixes and classificatory verb stems. And finally, Chapter 7 is devoted to locative and deictic classifiers, which have received little attention as they have only been attested in a few American Indian languages. Locative classifiers appear in locative NPs and involve shape, dimensionality, boundedness and animacy, while deictic classifiers occur with articles and demonstratives and classify the referent of the noun for shape, extendedness, position and animacy, as well as visibility in Eskimo.

In Chapters 8 "Different classifier types in one language" and "Multiple classifier languages". Aikhenvald considers two types of complex systems. While in the former type different sets of morphemes appear in different morphosyntactic environments, in "multiple classifier" systems the same set of morphemes is used in different environments. Different sets appear most frequently in pairs, e.g. as noun classes and numeral classifiers in the Indo-Iranian branch of Indo-European. The richest system has been found in Palikur (Arawak, Amazonia), with five types.⁶ In contrast, in "multiple classifier" systems the same set of morphemes is used in several distinct morphosyntactic environments; the most complex configurations occur in Amazonia and Papua New Guinea. Depending on the context, the morphemes may differ with respect to morphological realization, obligatoriness and derivational function. In addition to the discussion of the properties of these systems, Aikhenvald considers contrasts between multiple classifier languages and noun class agreement on multiple targets. While the choice of a classifier is always semantically based, she acknowledges the presence of fuzzy types, or systems "in transition from a system with classifiers in multiple environments to a system with noun classes distinct from other noun categorization devices", as in Baniwa and Tariana (Arawak), Chapter 10 "Classifiers and other grammatical categories" is devoted to the

interactions with other grammatical and lexical categories. Generally, these are more likely in fusional languages and with nominal categories than verbal ones. The interdependency of genders/noun classes and number has recently attracted much attention; it strongly appears to be mutual, with the exception of languages with different noun class systems in different numbers. Interestingly, Aikhenvald provides exceptions to Greenberg's Universals 37 and 45, which specify the implicational nature of noun class distinctions in the singular and plural. Closely related are the interactions with person, which also appear in noun classifiers used pronominally, with declensional class, and with grammatical function, also found in verbal classifiers. Further dependencies analysed involve types of possession, politeness and verbal and deictic categories, and finally the lexicon, either by way of derivation in genders/noun classes, or through the expression of further semantic distinctions by classifiers.

In the following two chapters, Aikhenvald focuses on semantic and functional aspects of nominal classification: "Semantics of noun categorization devices" and "Semantic organization and functions of noun categorization". Animacy, physical properties and function as the basic semantic parameters, together with countability, individuation and abstractness as additional parameters, all tend to correlate with individual classification types. Aikhenvald analyses in turn the prototypical semantics of each categorization type. To mention the most common preferences, animacy/humanness/sex are central in noun classes, but they also - contrary to earlier predictions - appear in numeral and possessed classifiers. While physical properties are less frequent in noun classes, they are present in all the other types except for noun and relational classifiers.

On Tariana see also Aikhenvald's "Unusual classifiers in Tariana" in the other volume.

Chapter 12, in which we turn to the semantic organization and functions of nominal classification, provides the most significant

implications. Nominal classification systems are extremely valuable from a cognitive and cultural point of view; as Aikhenvald acknowledges, "[s]emantic features encoded in noun categorization reflect principles of human cognition and world perception". In addition, the chapter contains several arguments against redundancy of nominal classification systems. Aikhenvald begins with the semantic organization of classification systems, which can be best accounted for in terms of prototypes and extension. The semantic roles and discourse-pragmatic functions discussed then provide rich evidence against redundancy. Two main semantic roles are identified: individuation and classification; the use of classifiers with nouns such as 'river' in Burmese demonstrates that classifiers add information to the noun. Several discourse-pragmatic functions can be identified, particularly in systems where the use of classifiers is optional. Anaphora, reference tracking, and correlations with definiteness and specificity occur in all the systems. A related issue involves applicability - or the range of nouns assigned - and the types of default found in classification systems.

The semantics of nominal classification systems provide a reflection not only of universal patterns but also of the physical world, and cultural, environmental and social parameters. While perceptual mechanisms reveal a dependence on visual features, cognitive mechanisms involve categorization in terms of basic level as cognitively most salient. The correlations with extralinguistic phenomena may well be interpreted in terms of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Further, we are dealing here with "probably the only grammatical category which directly reflects (...) social phenomena and shifts", including hierarchies in social and kinship status, as well as changes, e.g., in Khmer during and after the Khmer Rouge revolution, as well as the less dramatic abandonment of the generic *he* in English.

In Chapter 13 "Origin and development of noun categorization devices", Aikhenvald considers the growing amount of diachronic evidence.

To begin with, she discusses patterns of the origin of classification devices from open and closed classes. Lexical sources typically involve nouns, where, e.g., words referring to body parts give rise to numeral, verbal and locative classifiers; in addition, in languages with "repeaters" any noun can function as a classifier. Classifiers can also develop from verbs, including nominalized verbs; in mixed types these may coexist with classification devices derived from nouns. The other source involves closed classes, typically demonstrative or 3rd person pronouns. The age of a system, includ

However, Aikhenvald points to the limited predictive power of such inductive correlations: thus while the contrast visible : non-visible in Eskimo can be attributed to life in open treeless environment, the contrast also appears, c.g in Dyirbal (Australian) spoken in closed forest environment.

Characteristically, a discussion of gender traditionally focused on the origin of gender in Indo-European - in contrast, only a short paragraph is here devoted to the issue in those with several classification types, can be established on the basis of parameters of grammaticalization, i.e. degree of semantic transparency and phonological reduction. In addition to the typical paths of grammaticalization, the origin of classification systems may involve polygrammaticalization, where a single set of lexical items develops into distinct classification types. Internal evolution may also involve another category; either in a development through reanalysis of case (as in the Slavic subgroups) or derivation (as in Indo-European gender), or in a reduction and loss, e.g., through mergers in paradigms (again as in Indo-European). In her discussion of external reasons for the development and decay of classification systems, Aikhenvald gives examples of development by way of either areal influence or borrowing, and decay during creolization and obsolescence. Two final issues dealt with in the chapter involve the development and loss of agreement, again due to internal and external reasons, and the semantic changes that occur in the development of classification systems. These are in line with typical grammaticalization

changes, i.e. bleaching, abstraction and metaphorical extensions; an illustration is here provided of historically attested changes in Chinese classifiers.

In the brief final Chapter 14 "Noun categorization devices in language acquisition and dissolution" , Aikhenvald discusses the primary role of formal features in the acquisition of gender and noun class languages,¹² and the prominence of lexical information in the acquisition of classifiers. Certain parallels can be found with the dissolution of noun classes and classifiers in aphasia, i.e. prominence of humanness in noun classes and stability of classifiers based on inherent properties.

The volume ends with the Conclusions and three appendixes. The properties of nominal classification systems are summarized, with three summary tables showing classifier types arranged with respect to selected parameters. Prospects for future studies include especially endangered languages, multiple classifier systems, and acquisition and dissolution of classifiers. According to Aikhenvald, "the most important task (...) is first to pursue descriptive studies, in order to collect additional materials which may then assist us in rethinking the whole framework". The appendixes deal with nominal classification in non-classifying languages ("Noun categorization by means other than classifiers", examples of semantic changes in the development of classifiers ("From nouns to classifiers: further examples of semantic change", and lastly a "Fieldworker's guide to classifier languages", the aim of which is facilitate the analysis of a previously undescribed nominal classification system.

However, contradictory evidence has been provided by Muller and Wegener,

On the formal side, while summaries are clearly presented in tables, e.g., the different configurations of systems in a language, those in which the individual systems are arranged to form a continuum should also allow for lexical means, as in Grinevald's typology in the other volume under review. Such a diagram would be useful in the several cases where

Aikhenvald compares classifiers with lexical terms, e.g., mensural classifiers and quantifiers. As far as the maps in Chapters 2-6 are concerned, it was certainly a good idea to include them. Nevertheless, more attention should have been paid to their accuracy as well as the distribution of the languages discussed. While I admire the accurate contour of Ellesmere Island up in northern Canada, a search for other locations may prove a hazardous exercise, especially for the missing Black Sea, Caspian Sea or the Gulf of Finland. Often languages discussed at length are missing on the map (e.g., Hungarian or the isolate Ket), or more seriously, erroneous information is provided (e.g., in the location of noun classes where the whole of Europe is covered, including Finland and Hungary).

Aikhenvald's *Classifiers: A typology of noun categorization devices* provides an excellent introduction to nominal classification systems. Together with the more detailed account of genders and noun classes in Corbett, it is the best source available in the field. As the two volumes under review deal with the same subject matter, I will comment on selected issues raised in both volumes in the final part of the paper.

We now turn to the ten contributions collected in *Systems of nominal classification* edited by Gunter Senft. The volume begins with Acknowledgements and an Introduction. This is followed by the papers broadly dealing with three topics: general issues involving all nominal classification systems; the analysis of classifier systems; and the analysis of gender and noun classes. The volume ends with a combined Index of names, places and languages. In the Introduction, Gunter Senft presents a summary of the contents of the volume and clarifies the aim behind it, i.e. the construction of a theory and a typology of nominal classification systems within an "anthropological linguistic perspective".

Senft's "What do we really know about nominal classification systems?" is concerned with a number of fundamental issues regarding the topic, with an illustration drawn from the author's own research on

classifiers in Kilivila (Aus- tronesian). The author begins with an overview of formal devices used in classification systems, including classificatory noun incorporation, suppletive classificatory verbs, numeral classifiers, noun classes and gender. Senft also considers the legitimacy of a common treatment and the nature of semantic distinctions and their discourse functions. Here he points to, e.g., terminological confusion, the presence of several types within a language, and the movement from one type to another. In the second part of the paper which deals with classifiers in Kilivila Senft insists on the presence of formal distinctions between classifier types. In addition, he discusses selected semantic properties of classifiers, including the interplay between universal and culture-specific motivation, and their dynamic nature, captured by way of a network model. A few comments are due on the introductory overview given by Senft, While such an overview is clearly necessary, it suffers from a number of flaws which render it confusing, not only for uninitiated readers. In addition to being too sketchy, its arrangement is counter-intuitive: it begins with the least familiar classificatory noun incorporation and ends with the most well-known type, i.e. gender. Further, the second type mentioned by Senft involves "classification by verb", i.e. suppletive classificatory verbs in Aikhenvald's typology. The use of such an example in an introductory overview is problematic as this means of classification has also been treated as lexical (cf the following paper by Grinevald). And finally, the overview ignores noun classifiers; in fact, that these classifiers have been "generally ignored" is given by Grinevald as the original motivation for her typology.

1.3. The Problem of English semantic field in present day grammar

Nouns are a part of speech typically denoting a person, place, thing, animal or idea. In linguistics, a noun is a member of a large, open lexical category

whose members can occur as the main word in the subject of a clause, the object of a verb, or the object of a preposition.

Lexical categories are defined in terms of the ways in which their members combine with other kinds of expressions. The syntactic rules for nouns differ from language to language. In English, nouns are those words which can occur with articles and attributive adjectives and can function as the head of a noun phrase.

History. The English word noun comes from the Latin *nōmen*, meaning "name" or "noun", a cognate of the Ancient Greek *ónoma* (also meaning "name" or "noun").

Word classes like nouns were first described by Pāṇini in the Sanskrit language and by Ancient Greek grammarians, and were defined by the grammatical forms that they take. In Greek and Sanskrit, for example, nouns are categorized by gender and inflected for case and number.

Because nouns and adjectives share these three grammatical categories, grammarians sometimes do not distinguish between the two. For example, Dionysius Thrax uses the term *ónoma* for both, with words of adjectival type largely contained in the subclass that he describes as *paragōgón* (plural *paragōgá*), meaning "derived". See also the section on substantive below.

Definitions of nouns. Nouns have sometimes been defined in terms of the grammatical categories to which they are subject (classed by gender, inflected for case and number). Such definitions tend to be language-specific, since nouns do not have the same categories in all languages.

Nouns are frequently defined, particularly in informal contexts, in terms of their semantic properties (their meanings). Nouns are described as words that refer to a person, place, thing, event, substance, quality, quantity, etc. However this type of definition has been criticized by contemporary linguists as being uninformative.

Linguists often prefer to define nouns (and other lexical categories) in terms of their formal properties. These include morphological information, such as

what prefixes or suffixes they take, and also their syntax – how they combine with other words and expressions of particular types. Such definitions may nonetheless still be language-specific, since syntax as well as morphology varies between languages. For example, in English it might be noted that nouns are words that can co-occur with definite articles (as stated at the start of this article), but this would not apply in Russian, which has no definite articles.

There have been several attempts, sometimes controversial, to produce a stricter definition of nouns on a semantic basis. Some of these are referenced in the Further reading section below.

Forms of nouns. A noun in its basic form will often consist of a single stem, as in the case of the English nouns *cat*, *man*, *table* and so on. In many languages nouns can also be formed from other nouns and from words of other types through morphological processes, often involving the addition of prefixes and suffixes. Examples in English are the verbal nouns formed from verbs by the addition of *-ing*, nouns formed from verbs using other suffixes such as *organization* and *discovery*, agent nouns formed from verbs usually with the suffix *-er* or *-or*, as in *actor* and *worker*, feminine forms of nouns such as *actress*, *lioness*, nouns formed from adjectives such as *happiness*, and many other types.

Nouns may be identical in form to words that belong to other parts of speech, often as a result of conversion (or just through coincidence). For example the English word *hit* can be both a noun and a verb, and the German *Arm/arm* can be a noun or an adjective. In such cases the word is said to represent two or more lexemes.

In many languages nouns inflect (change their form) for number, and sometimes for case. Inflection for number usually involves forming plural forms, such as *cats* and *children*, and sometimes other forms such as duals, which are used in some languages to refer to exactly two of something. Inflection for case involves changing the form of a noun depending on its syntactic function – languages such as Latin, Russian and Finnish have extensive case systems, with different forms for nominatives (used principally for verb subjects), accusatives (used especially for

direct objects), genitives (used to express possession and similar relationships) and so on. The only real vestige of the case system on nouns in Modern English is the "Saxon genitive", where 's is added to a noun to form a possessive.

Gender. In some languages, nouns are assigned to genders, such as masculine, feminine and neuter (or other combinations). The gender of a noun (as well as its number and case, where applicable) will often entail agreement in words that modify or are related to it. For example, in French, the singular form of the definite article is *le* with masculine nouns and *la* with feminines; adjectives and certain verb forms also change (with the addition of *-e* with feminines). Grammatical gender often correlates with the form of the noun and the inflection pattern it follows; for example, in both Italian and Russian most nouns ending *-a* are feminine. Gender also often correlates with the sex of the noun's referent, particularly in the case of nouns denoting people (and sometimes animals). Nouns do not have gender in Modern English, although many of them denote people or animals of a specific sex.

Proper noun. A proper noun is a noun that in its primary application refers to a unique entity, such as London, Jupiter, Sarah, or Microsoft, as distinguished from a common noun, which usually refers to a class of entities (city, planet, person, corporation), or non-unique instances of a certain class (a city, another planet, these persons, our corporation). Some proper nouns occur in plural form (optionally or exclusively), and then they refer to groups of entities considered as unique (the Hendersons, the Everglades, the Azores, the Pleiades). Proper nouns can also occur in secondary applications, for example modifying nouns (the Mozart experience; his Azores adventure), or in the role of common nouns (he's no Pavarotti; a few would-be Napoleons). The detailed definition of the term is problematic and to an extent governed by convention.

A distinction is normally made in current linguistics between proper nouns and proper names. By this strict distinction, because the term noun is used for a class of single words (tree, beauty), only single-word proper names are proper nouns: Peter and Africa are both proper names and proper nouns; but Peter the

Great and South Africa, while they are proper names, are not proper nouns. The term common name is not much used to contrast with proper name, but some linguists have used the term for that purpose. Sometimes proper names are called simply names; but that term is often used more broadly. Words derived from proper names are sometimes called proper adjectives (or proper adverbs, and so on), but not in mainstream linguistic theory. Not every noun or noun phrase that refers to a unique entity is a proper name. Blackness and chastity are common nouns, even if blackness and chastity are considered unique abstract entities.

Few proper names have only one possible referent: there are many places named New Haven; Jupiter may refer to a planet, a god, a ship, or a symphony; at least one person has been named Mata Hari, but so have a horse, a song, and three films; there are towns and people named Toyota, as well as the company.

In English, proper names in their primary application cannot normally be modified by an article or other determiner (such as any or another), although some may be taken to include the article the, as in the Netherlands, the Roaring Forties, or the Rolling Stones. A proper name may appear to refer by having a descriptive meaning, even though it does not (the Rolling Stones are not stones and do not roll; a woman named Rose is not a flower). Or if it had once been descriptive (and then perhaps not even a proper name at all), it may no longer be so (a location previously referred to as "the new town" may now have the proper name Newtown, though it is no longer new, and is now a city rather than a town).

In English and many other languages, proper names and words derived from them are associated with capitalization; but the details are complex, and vary from language to language (French lundi, Canada, canadien; English Monday, Canada, Canadian).

The study of proper names is sometimes called onomastics or onomatology; for a survey of detailed and pragmatic issues in naming see Name. Rigorous analysis of the semantics of proper names is a matter for philosophy of language; see Proper name (philosophy).

Proper nouns and proper names current linguistics makes a distinction between proper nouns and proper names; but this distinction is not universally observed, and sometimes it is observed but not rigorously. When the distinction is made, proper nouns are limited to single words only (possibly with the), while proper names include all proper nouns (in their primary applications) as well as noun phrases such as United Kingdom, North Carolina, Royal Air Force, and the White House. United Kingdom, for example, is a proper name with the common noun kingdom as its head, and North Carolina is headed by the proper noun Carolina. Especially as titles of works, but also as nicknames and the like, some proper names contain no noun and are not formed as noun phrases (the film *Being There*; *Hi De Ho* as a nickname for Cab Calloway and as the title of a film about him).

Though the term common name is not much used in this context, it would mean a noun (or a noun phrase) that is not a proper name (Swiss cheese, and the common noun bluebird, are both common names in this sense). Sometimes proper names are called simply names; but that term is often used more broadly (as in "chair is the name for something we sit on").

Common nouns are frequently used as components of proper names. Some examples are agency, boulevard, city, day, and edition. In such cases the common noun may determine the kind of entity, and a modifier determines the unique entity itself. For example:

A rose grows on the third floor of the main building.

(common-noun senses throughout; main building is simply a description of the building)

Rose lives on Floor 3 of the Main Building.

(Main Building is the name of the building, Floor 3 names the third floor, and Rose names a person)

The 16th robotic probe to land on the planet was assigned to study the north pole, and the 17th probe the south pole.

(common-noun senses throughout)

When Probe 17 overflowed the South Pole, it passed directly over the place where Captain Scott's expedition ended.

(in this sentence, South Pole is a proper name referring to Earth's south pole)

Sanjay lives on the beach road.

(the road that runs along the beach)

Sanjay lives on Beach Road.

(as a proper name, Beach Road may have nothing to do with the beach; it may be any distance from the waterfront)

My university has a school of medicine.

(no indication of the name of the university or its medical school)

The John A. Burns School of Medicine is located at the University of Hawaii at Manoa.

Proper nouns, and all proper names, differ from common nouns grammatically. They may take titles, such as Mr Harris or Senator Harris. Otherwise, they normally only take modifiers that add emotive coloring, such as old Mrs Fletcher, poor Charles, or historic York; in a formal style, this may include the (the inimitable Henry Higgins). They may also take the in the manner of common nouns in order to establish the context in which they are unique: the young Mr Hamilton (not the old one), the Dr Brown I know; or as proper nouns to define an aspect of the referent: the young Einstein (Einstein when he was young). The indefinite article a may similarly be used to establish a new referent: the column was written by a Mary Price. If the is inherent, however, as in The Hague, it cannot be dropped. Similarly, proper names based on noun phrases differ grammatically from common noun phrases. They are fixed expressions, and cannot be modified internally: beautiful King's College is acceptable, but not *King's famous College. As with proper nouns, so with proper names more generally: they may only be unique within the appropriate context. For instance, India has a ministry of home affairs (a common-noun phrase) called the Ministry of Home Affairs (its proper name). Within the context of India, this identifies a unique organization. However, other countries may also have ministries of home affairs

called "the Ministry of Home Affairs", but each refers to a unique object, so each is a proper name. Similarly, "Beach Road" is a unique road, though other towns may have their own roads named "Beach Road" as well. This is simply a matter of the pragmatics of naming, and of whether a naming convention provides identifiers that are unique; and this depends on the scope given by context.

Capitalization and proper names

In languages that use alphabetic scripts and that distinguish lower and upper case, there is usually an association between proper names and capitalization. (A prominent exception is German, in which all nouns are capitalized.) The details are complex, and vary sharply from language to language: for proper names, as for several other kinds of words and phrases. For example, expressions for days of the week and months of the year are capitalized in English, but not in Spanish, French, Swedish, or Finnish, though they may be understood as proper names in all of these. Languages differ in whether most elements of multiword proper names are capitalized (American English has House of Representatives, in which lexical words are capitalized) or only the initial element (as in Slovenian Državni zbor, "National Assembly"). In Czech, multiword settlement names are capitalized throughout, but non-settlement names are only capitalized in the initial element, though with many exceptions.

Brand names versus proper names. In most alphabetic languages brand names and other commercial terms that are nouns or noun phrases are capitalized whether or not they count as proper names. Not all brand names are proper names, and not all proper names are brand names.

Microsoft is a proper name, referring to a specific company. English does not allow these phrases, unless Microsoft is treated, by a non-standard secondary application, in the role of a common noun: *"Microsofts"; *"the Microsoft"; *"another Microsoft".

Chevrolet is similarly a proper name referring to a specific company. But unlike Microsoft, it is also used in the role of a common noun to refer to products of the named company: "He drove a Chevrolet" (a particular vehicle); "The

Chevrolets of the 1960s" (classes of vehicles). In these uses, Chevrolet does not function as a proper name.

Corvette (referring to a car produced by the company Chevrolet) is not a proper name: it can be pluralized (French and English Corvettes); and it can take a definite article or other determiner or modifier: "the Corvette", "la Corvette"; "my Corvette", "ma Corvette"; "another new Corvette", Corvette". Similarly, Chevrolet Corvette is not a proper name: "We owned three Chevrolet Corvettes."

Alternative marking of proper names

In non-alphabetic scripts proper names are sometimes marked by other means. In Egyptian hieroglyphs, parts of a royal name were enclosed in a cartouche: an oval with a horizontal line at one end. In Chinese script, a proper name mark (a kind of underline) has sometimes been used to indicate a proper name. In the standard Pinyin system of romanization for Mandarin Chinese, capitalization is used to mark proper names, with some complexities because of different Chinese classifications of nominal types, and even different notions of such broad categories as word and phrase.

European alphabetic scripts only developed a distinction between upper case and lower case in medieval times; so in the alphabetic scripts of ancient Greek and Latin proper names were not systematically marked. They are marked with modern capitalization, however, in many modern editions of ancient texts. Sanskrit and other languages written in the Devanagari script, along with many other languages using alphabetic or syllabic scripts, do not distinguish upper and lower case and do not mark proper names systematically.

In English

In English, it is the norm for recognized proper names to be capitalized. The few clear exceptions include summer and winter (contrast April and Easter). It is often indeterminate both whether an item qualifies as a proper name and whether it should be capitalized: "the Cuban missile crisis" is often capitalized ("the Cuban Missile Crisis") and often not, regardless of its syntactic status or its function in

discourse. Most style guides give decisive recommendations on capitalization; but not all of them dwell on the indeterminate matter of proper names.

Words or phrases that are neither proper nouns nor derived from proper nouns are often capitalized in present-day English: Dr, Baptist, Congregationalism, His and He in reference to the deity (or "the Deity"). For some such words, capitalization is optional or dependent on context: northerner or Northerner; aboriginal trees but Aboriginal land rights in Australia. When the comes at the start of a proper name, as in the White House, it is not normally capitalized unless it is a formal part of a title (of a book, film, or other artistic creation, as in *The Keys to the Kingdom*). Nouns and noun phrases that are not proper may be uniformly capitalized to indicate that they are definitive and regimented in their application (compare brand names, discussed earlier). For example, Mountain Bluebird does not identify a unique individual, and it is not a proper name but a so-called common name (somewhat misleadingly, because this is not intended as a contrast with the term proper name). Such capitalization indicates that the term is a conventional designation for exactly that species (*Sialia currucoides*), not for just any bluebird that happens to live in the mountains.

Words or phrases derived from proper names are generally capitalized, even when they are not themselves proper names. For example, Londoner is capitalized because it derives from the proper name London, but it is not itself a proper name (it can be limited: the Londoner, some Londoners). Similarly, African, Africanize, and Africanism are not proper names, but are capitalized because Africa is a proper name. Adjectives, verbs, adverbs, and derived common nouns that are capitalized (Swiss in Swiss cheese; Anglicize; Calvinistically; Petrarchism) are sometimes loosely called proper adjectives (and so on), but not in mainstream linguistics. Which of these items are capitalized may be merely conventional. Abrahamic, Buddhist, Hollywoodize, Freudianism, and Reagonomics are capitalized; quixotic, bowdlerize, mesmerism, and pasteurization are not; aeolian, and alpinism may be capitalized or not.

Some words have one meaning when capitalized and another when not. Sometimes the capitalized variant is then a proper noun (the Moon; dedicated to God; Smith's apprentice) and the other variant is not (the third moon of Saturn; a Greek god; the smith's apprentice). Sometimes neither is a proper noun (a swede in the soup; a Swede who came to see me). Such words that vary according to case are sometimes called capitonyms.

In past centuries, orthographic practices in English varied widely. Capitalization was much less standardized than today. Documents from the 18th century show some writers capitalizing all nouns, and others capitalizing certain nouns based on varying ideas of their importance in the discussion. There are examples among United States historical documents: the end (but not the beginning) of the Declaration of Independence and all of the Constitution show nearly all nouns capitalized; the Bill of Rights capitalizes a few common nouns but not most of them; and the Thirteenth Constitutional Amendment only capitalizes proper nouns. Current English orthography has been standardized to the point that most capitalizing of common nouns is considered incorrect.

Capitalized common nouns derived from proper nouns

Proper nouns may be used as common nouns, as members of a unique class of common nouns. For example, the corporation Toyota builds vehicles which are colloquially called Toyotas; the fact that the latter is a common noun can be seen in how it can be modified: a Toyota, my Toyota, many Toyotas. Such uses typically arise through ellipsis or metonymy: a car made by Toyota → a Toyota car → a Toyota. Similarly with nationalities and members of religions: America and Christ are proper nouns, American and Christian are not, but retain the capitalization of the proper nouns they are based on. In many languages, such derivations lose the capitalization.

Count noun. In linguistics, a count noun (also countable noun) is a common noun that can be modified by a numeral and that occurs in both singular and plural form, as well as co-occurring with quantificational determiners like every, each,

several, etc. A mass noun has none of these properties. It can't be modified by a numeral, occur in singular/plural or co-occur with the relevant kind of determiner.

Below are examples of all the properties of count nouns holding for the count noun chair but not for the mass noun furniture.

Occurrence in plural/singular.

There is a chair in the room.

There are chairs in the room.

There is a furniture in the room. (incorrect)

There are furnitures in the room. (incorrect)

Co-occurrence with count determiners

Every chair is man made.

There are several chairs in the room.

Every furniture is man made. (incorrect)

There are several furnitures in the room. (incorrect)

CHAPTER II. CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF THE NOUNS GROUPED INTO SEMANTIC CLASSES

2.1 Semantic classification of parts of speech in English and Uzbek.

The Noun and Its Main Features (Ot va uning asosiy belgilari)

The noun in English and Uzbek has a common lexico-grammatical meaning of substance:

Eng: book, water, beauty, walk, love etc.

Uzb: kitob, suv, go`zallik, sevgi etc.

In the languages compared the noun has some grammatical (morphological) categories:

	number	case	possession
Engl	+	+	-
Uzb	+	+	+

Note. + stands for «exists», - stands for «does not exist»

As you see, English, in contrast to Uzbek, has no category of possession.

In the languages compared the noun has typical stembuilding morphemes of its own:

Eng: -ship, -ment, -ist, -hood, -er, -ness, -tion, -dom, -ity etc.

Uzb: -lik, -ist, -chi, -ish, -rap, -duz, -kor, -paz etc.

In both languages the noun usually forms combinations with:

adjectives: Eng: a good boy, an interesting book etc.

Uzb: yaxshi bola, qiziqarli kitob etc.

verbs: Eng: to write a letter, to buy a book etc.

Uzb: xat yozmoq, kitob olmoq. etc.

pronouns: Eng: this book, that pen etc.

Uzb: bu kitob, u ruchka etc.

numerals: Eng: Five pens, two cars etc.

Uzb: beshta kitob, ikkita mashina etc.

other nouns: Eng: aunt Polly, uncle Tom etc.

Uzb: Polli xola, Tom Tog`a etc.

function words: Eng: because of Nick, for Nick etc.

Uzb: Niksababli, Nik uchun etc.

The English noun can also form combinations with articles: a book, the book.

In both languages the noun can function as:

a subject: Bob is a teacher; Bob o`qituvchi;

an object: I bought a car; Men mashina oldim;

a predicative: She was a student; U talaba edi;

an attribute : This is a gold watch; Bu oltin soat;

an adverbial modifier: He worked day and night; U kecha-kunduz ishladi.

In English the nouns cannot function as a predicate. Compare:

Eng: He is a student (a predicative) Uzb: U talaba (a predicate)

This difference may cause such mistakes as *He student or *He a «Indent when Uzbeks speak English.

Types of Nouns and Their Grammatical Value (Ot turlari va ularning grammatik jihatdan ahamiyati)

In the languages compared nouns can semantically be divided into several groups: proper nouns; common nouns; animate nouns; inanimate nouns; concrete nouns; abstract nouns; countable nouns; uncountable nouns; collective nouns; nouns of material; personal nouns; non-personal nouns; nouns denoting male sex; nouns denoting female sex. But they go of different grammatical value in these languages.

Proper Nouns (Atoqli otlar)

Proper nouns are individual names given to separate persons or things:

Eng: Brown, Nick, New-York, the Volga, the Black Sea etc.

Uzb: Ergashev, Toshkent, Volga, Kora dengiz etc.

In English the names of months are regarded as proper nouns, while in Uzbek they are common nouns:

Eng: He came in September

Uzb: U sentyabrda keldi.

This difference may cause an interlanguage interference in spelling the result of which is error as He came in september.

In the languages compared proper nouns are written with a capital letter.

In English proper nouns are of more grammatical value than those of Uzbek ones, because they impose certain restrictions on the usage of articles. As a rule proper nouns do not take articles. Below we present types proper nouns.

Antroponims (Antroponimlar). Antroponims are the names of persons, family names, pen-names, nicknames etc.

Engl: Shakespeare, Madonna, Michael, Ann, Anna, Mary, Jack London, Peter, Stevenson etc.

Uzb: Navoiy, Mirmuxsin, Rayxon, Begzod, Ozod Sharafiddinov, Aziza etc.

Antroponims are considered to be a part of linguaculturemes. *ya* linguacultureme is a linguistic unit which denotes a piece of the culture of the nation whose language is being learned. The spelling, pronunciation and rendering of linguaculturemes present certain difficulties for foreign language learners. The grammatical value of English antroponims are observed in the fact, that they, as a rule, do not take articles, do not have the category of number, but have the category of case (Mike - Mikes) Antroponims usually contain the meaning of sex, therefore in English texts they can be replaced either by he (on), or she (ona):

Mike is a student. He was born in New-York.

Jane is a teacher. She came here yesterday.

As there is no pronouns expressing sex in Uzbek, this rule does not exist in this language.

Toponims (Toponimlar). Toponims are the names of cities, villages, districts, provinces, counties, states, countries etc.:

Eng.: London, England, Europe, Chilanzar District, Andijan Region.

Uzb.: Toshkent, Angliya, Evropa, Olmazor tumani, Samarkand viloyati.

Grammatical value of English toponims : as a rule, they do not take articles, do not have the categories of number and case, whereas Uzbek toponims almost have not any grammatical value.

Hydronims (Gidronimlar). Hydronims are the names of rivers, lakes, canals, gulfs, seas, oceans etc.

The names of group of islands, constellation of stars, mountain ranges (Orollar va yulduzlar to`dasi, tog` chizmalarining nomlari):

Eng.: The British Isles, The Great Bear, The Alps etc.

Uzb.: Kuril orollari, Katta chumich yulduz turkumlari, Ann tog`lari etc.

Grammatical value of these English proper nouns: they come with the article the, do not have the categories of number and case. Their Uzbek counterparts almost have not any grammatical value.

The names of months and weeks (Oylar va xaftalarning nomlari)

Eng.: September, May, Monday, Sunday etc.

Uzb.: may, sentyabr, yakshanba, dushanba etc.

These English proper nouns have grammatical and orthographical value: they do not take articles, do not have the categories of number and case. Besides, they are written with a capital letter. Their Uzbek counterparts almost have not any grammatical value and they are written with a small letter.

The names of languages and nations (Til va millat nomlari)

Eng.: English, Russian, Uzbek, the English, the Russians

Uzb.: ingliz tili, rus tili, inglizlar, ruslar

In English these nouns are considered to be proper nouns, in Uzbek common nouns. This difference causes orthographic errors: such, as ingliz, uzbek, russian, an ingliz, an uzbek, a russian, the english language, the uzbek language.

Common Nouns (Turdosh otlar)

Common nouns are the names applied to any individual of a class of living beings or things:

Eng: man, pen, rain, love, bird

Uzb: odam, ruchka, yomg`ir, sevgi, Qush

The most general linguistic feature of common nouns lies in the fact, that they are written with a small letter.

Common nouns are divided into the following subtypes:

Animate Nouns (Jonli narsalarni ifodalovchi otlar)

Animate nouns denote living beings:

Eng: man, girl, woman, bird, Helen, teacher.

Uzb: odam, qiz, xotin, Qush, Nigora, o`qituvchi.

Inanimate Nouns (Jonsiz narsalarni ifodalovchi otlar)

Inanimate nouns denote lifeless things:

Eng: book, bread, apple, love, flower.

Uzb: kitob, non, olma, sevgi, gul.

In contrast to Uzbek animate and inanimate nouns, English animate and inanimate nouns are of grammatical value which is observed in respect to the category of case. In Uzbek both animate and inanimate nouns have the grammatical category of case, whereas in English only animate nouns has it. Compare:

Engl. Nick's book

"Table`s legs (correct: the legs of the table)

Uzb. Nikning kitobi

Stolning oyoklari

Concrete Nouns (Konkret otlar)

Concrete nouns denote things, persons or substance.

Eng: pen, Jespersen, box, gas, water, air etc.

Uzb: ruchka, Karimov, quti, gaz, suv, havo.

Abstract Nouns (Mavhum otlar)

Abstract nouns denote some quality, state, action, relation or idea:

Eng: love, friendship, conversation, sadness, thought etc.

U z b: sevgi, do`stlik, suxbat, hafalik, fikr etc.

English concrete and abstract nouns are of more grammatical value than Uzbek ones. In English they dictate certain rules for using is which express number

and the rules for using articles, where as in Uzbek they only dictate rules of the first kind.

Countable Nouns (Sanaladigan otlar)

Nouns denoting things that can be counted are called countable nouns:

Eng: plate, man, bird, house, hen, table etc.

Uzb: likob, odam, Qush, uy, tovuq, stol etc.

Uncountable Nouns (Sanalmaydigan otlar)

Uncountable nouns denote things that cannot be counted:

Eng: water, milk, sand, friendship, gas, beauty etc.

U z b: suv, sut, qum, do`stlik, gaz, go`zallik etc.

Grammatical value of English and Uzbek countable and uncountable nouns lies in the fact that countable nouns have the category of number while uncountable ones have not. In English they also illustrate certain rules when using pronouns such as many, much, few,

Many and few are used with countable nouns, much and little -with uncountable ones.

Collective Nouns (Jamlovchi otlar). Collective nouns denote a collection of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit:

Eng: people police the proletariat etc.

Uzb: xalq politsiya proletariat etc.

English collective nouns, in contrast to Uzbek ones, are subdivided into the following groups:

Collective nouns which are used in the singular and denote a number of things regarded as a single unit:

the proletariat, the bourgeoisie, foliage, machinery, the peasantry etc.

These nouns take the singular form of a verb in the predicate: Our machinery is modern.

Collective nouns which are singular in form though plural in meaning: people, cattle, police, poultry, gentry, public, jury, militia.

Such nouns take the plural form of a verb in the predicate: The police have arrested the man. The cattle are grazing in the field. The public are applauding.

Collective nouns that can be both singular and plural: family, group, crowd, fleet, nation, committee, delegation, board, staff, team, crew, government etc. E.g.

His family is large.

The family are sitting around the table.

The team has done badly this season.

The team are now resting.

As far as Uzbek is concerned, there are only collective nouns on the first type in this language. This difference usually causes interlanguage interferences the results of which will be errors such as:

The team is now resting

The police has arrested the man.

The cattle *is grazing in the field.

Nouns of Material (Modda ifodalovchi otlar)

Nouns of material denote matter:

Eng: water, paper, iron, tea, gold.

U z b: suv, qog`oz, temir, choy, oltin.

The grammatical value of nouns of this type is observed when choosing forms which express number in both languages and using articles in English.

Personal Nouns (Shaxs ifodalovchi otlar)

Personal nouns denote persons:

Eng.man, girl, Brown, boy, Bob.

U z b: odam, qiz, Komilov, bola, Ergash.

Non-Personal Nouns (Shaxs ifodalamaydigan otlar)

Non-personal nouns do not denote persons.

Engl: door, window, dog, bird, water, flower.

U z b: eshik, deraza, it, Qush, suv, gul.

The grammatical value of personal and non-personal nouns is Observed when replacing nouns with interrogative pronouns who, Which, kim, nima.

Eng: - Look at this boy. - Who is he?

- Look at this thing. - What's it?

Uzb: - Mana bu bolaga qarang. - Kim u?

- Mana bu narsaga qarang. - Nima u?

In English the grammatical value of personal and non-personal nouns is also observed when choosing the relative pronoun who and which:

The man who is coming here is my brother.

The pen which you lost yesterday is here.

The dog which is barking is Nick's.

This difference between the languages compared may cause in-larlanguage interferences when Uzbek students speak English (Error: The man which is coming here is my brother).

Nouns Denoting Male Sex (Erkak jinsini ifodalovchi otlar)

Eng: father, husband, boy, brother, gentleman, uncle, David, bull, cock, actor, hero etc.

Uzb: ota, er, aka, uka, tog`a, Salim, xuroz, Ergashev, shoir etc.

Nouns Denoting Female Sex (Ayol jinsini ifodalovchi otlar)

Eng: mother, sister, girl, lady, woman, Helen, poetess, directress, Bunt, hen, cow etc.

Uzb: ona, opa, qiz, ayol, xonim, Halima, shoir, raqqosa, amma, xola, biya etc.

In contrast to English nouns denoting male and female sex, Uzbek ones are of no grammatical value. The grammatical value of English nouns denoting male and female sex is observed when they are replaced by the pronouns he and she:

I have a brother. He is a doctor

I have sister. She is a teacher

Besides, English nouns denoting sex have the category of case: hen`s tail, actor`s words

Some of the nouns denoting living beings do not express sex:

Human beings; doctor, friend, cousin, teacher, stranger, neighbor, student, clerk and atc.

Animals: wolf, dog, bear, eagle, ass, goat, elephant etc.

If we desire to indicate the sex of what is expressed by those nouns, a word denoting the sex is added to them: boy-friend, girlfriend; man-servant, maid-servant; man-doctor, woman-doctor; male-elephant, female-elephant; he-dog, she-dog; male- (Tom-, he-) cat, female- (pussy- she-) cat; he- (Billy-) goat, she- (nanny-goat); dog- (he-) wolf, she-wolf. In Uzbek in such cases we use the words erkak, ayol, urg`ochi, nar, moda (erkak vrach, ayol vrach, erkak mushuk, urg`ochi mushuk, nar kaptar, moda kaptar etc.

In Spoken English there is a tendency to associate the names of animals with the female or male sex.

When the noun indicates the sex of the animal it is generally spoken of as he (lion, tiger etc) or she (lioness, tigress, cow etc);

The tiger approached the camp: his dreadful roar made us shudder.

The horse lowered his head.

Our dog is called Jenny; she is of a very good breed.

When the sex of the animal is not indicated by the noun, nouns denoting the larger and bolder animals are generally associated with their male sex (elephant, horse, dog, eagle, etc), while nouns denoting! the smaller and weaker ones with the female (cat, hare, parrot etc):

The elephant lifted his mighty trunk.

The cat has upset her milk.

In English inanimate things or abstract notions are usually personified and the nouns denoting them are referred to as belonging to those of the male or female sex. Here are some traditional associations:

The things and notions expressed by the noun sun and by the nouns expressing such ideas as strength, fierceness (anger, death, fear, war etc) are associated with the male sex. E.g:

It is pleasant to watch the sun in his chariot of gold, and the moon in her chariot of pearl (Wilde)

...it seemed as if death were raging round this floating prison seeking for his prey (living)

The things expressed by the nouns moon and earth, by the names (Vessels (ship, boat, steamer etc), vehicles (car, carriage, coach

countries and by the nouns expressing such ideas as gentle-lilt, beauty (kindness, spring, peace, dawn etc.) are associated with female sex:

The Moon was behind the clouds but an hour later we saw her in hill

She is a good car.

She was a good boat.

France sent her representative to the conference.

Nouns Used in the Singular and Plural (Birlik va kuplikda ishlatiladigan otlar)

Nouns of this kind have the category of number, therefore they can be used in the singular and in the plural.

Eng: book - books, woman - women, phenomenon - phenomena

Uzb: kitob - kitoblar, xotin - xotinlar, hodisa - hodisalar

Singularia Tantum Nouns (Faqat birlikda ishlatiladigan otlar)

Singularia tantum nouns have no category of number and they are used only in the singular:

Eng: water, salt, air, coal, curiosity, foolishness etc.

Uzb: suv, tuz, havo, ko'mir, qizikuvchanlik, sinchkovlik, axmoklik (axmokgarchilik) etc.

Pluralia Tantum Nouns (Faqat ko'plikda ishlatiladigan otlar)

As we have already stated, Pluralia Tantum nouns do not exist in Uzbek. They have no category of number and they are always used in the plural:

scissors, trousers, spectacles, scales, tongs

English Pluralia Tantum nouns usually cause interlanguage interferences when Uzbeks speak English. Errors: Where are my trousers? The trousers are on the table.

2.2 Structural classification of parts of speech in English and Uzbek.

According to their structure English nouns are divided into the following groups: simple nouns derivative nouns, compound nouns, compound-derived nouns, composite nouns. (Ingliz tilida otlar strukturasi ko`ra, sodda otlar, yasama otlar, qo`shma otlar, qo`shma-yasama otlar, murakkab otlarga ajratiladi.

Simple nouns are such words which consist of one root: book, bread, pen, pencil. Sodda otlar bir o`zakli so`zlardan iborat bo`ladi: kitob, non, ruchka, qalam.

Derivate nouns are nouns which are formed by the help of affixes from rooted words: happiness, reader, bicycle, transport. (Yasama otlar bir o`zakli otlarga affikslar qo`shish yo`li bilan yasaladi)

Compound nouns are nouns built from two or more stems: speedometer, railway, post office. (Qo`shma otlar ikki va undan ortiq o`zaklardan tuzilgan otlardir.)

Compound-derived nouns are built from two or more stems adding affixes: moviegoer, shoemaker. (Qo`shman-yasama otlar ikki o`zakli otlarga affikslar qo`shilishi natijasida yasaladi.)

Composite nouns are such nouns which express one common lexical meaning and consist of different lexico-grammatical word morphemes: brother in law, forget-me-not. (Murakkab otlar bitta umumiy leksik ma`noni anglatib, yakka-yakka keluvchi leksik-grammatik so`z morfemalaridan tuziladi.)

English simple noun.

Pen- ruchka	Wall- devor
Pencil- qalam	Window- deraza
Picture-kartina	Floor- pol
Hand- qo`l	Tree- daraxt
Letter – xat	Book- kitob
Table-stol	Chair- stul

Derivative nouns

Teacher- o`qituvchi	Reader- o`quvchi
Boder- payonsiz	Bootless- poyavzalsiz
Worker- ishchi	Astronomer- astranom
Baker- nonvoy	Barber- sartarosh
Consumer- iste`molchi	Doer- bajaruvchi
Creator- yaratuvchi	Translator- tarjimon

Compound nouns

Looking glass- ko`zoynak	blackboard- doska
Black-shirt- qora ko`ylak	heartache- yurak og`rig`i
Headache- bosh og`rig`i	breakdown- quvvatsizlik
Heart-break- yurak huruji	post-office- pochtaxona

Within the class of compound nouns we distinguish endocentric and exocentric compounds. In endocentric nouns the referent is named by one of the elements and given a further characteristic by the other. In exocentric nouns only the combination of both elements names the referent. A further subdivision takes into account the character of stems.

The sunbeam type. A noun stem is determined by another noun stem. This is a most productive type, the number of examples being practically unlimited.

The maidservant type also consists of noun stems but the relationship between the elements is different. Maidservant is an appositional compound. The second element is notionally dominant.

The *looking-glass* type shows a combination of a derived verbal stem with a noun stem.

The *searchlight* type consisting of a verbal stem and a noun stem is of a comparatively recent origin.

The *blackboard* type has already been discussed. The first stem here very often is not an adjective but a Participle II: *cutwork*. Sometimes the semantic

relationship of the first element to the second is different. For instance, *a green-grocer* is not a grocer who happens to be green but one who sells vegetables.

There are several groups with a noun stem for the first element and various deverbial noun stems for the second: *housekeeping*, *sunrise*, *time-server*.

In exocentric compounds the referent is not named. The type *scarecrow* denotes the agent (a person or a thing) who or which performs the action named by the combination of the stems. In the case of *scarecrow*, it is a person or a thing employed in scaring birds. The type consists of a verbal stem followed by a noun stem. The personal nouns of this type are as a rule imaginative and often contemptuous: *cut-throat*, *daredevil* ‘a reckless person’, ‘a murderer’, *lickspittle* ‘a toady’, ‘a flatterer’, *pickpocket* ‘a thief’, *turncoat* ‘a renegade’.

A very productive and numerous group are nouns derived from verbs with postpositives, or more rarely with adverbs. This type consists chiefly of impersonal deverbial nouns denoting some action or specific instance. Examples: *blackout* ‘a period of complete darkness’ (for example, when all the electric lights go out on the stage of the theatre, or when all lights in a city are covered as a precaution against air raids); also ‘a temporary loss of consciousness’; *breakdown* ‘a stoppage through accident’, ‘a nervous collapse’; *hangover* ‘an unpleasant after-effect’ (especially after drink); *makeup*, a polysemantic compound which may mean, for example, ‘the way anything is arranged’, ‘one’s mental qualities’, ‘cosmetics’; *take-off*, also polysemantic: ‘caricature’, ‘the beginning of a flight’, etc. Compare also: *I could just imagine the brush-off he’d had* (Wain). Some more examples: *comedown*, *drawback*, *drop-out*, *feedback*, *frame-up*, *knockout*, *set-back*, *shake-up*, *splash-down*, *take-in*, *teach-in*, etc.

A special subgroup is formed by personal nouns with a somewhat derogatory connotation, as in *go-between* ‘an intermediary’, *start-back* ‘a deserter’. Sometimes these compounds are keenly ironical: *die-hard* ‘an irreconcilable conservative’, *pin-up* (such a girl as might have her

photograph pinned up on the wall for admiration, also the photograph itself), *pick-up* ‘a chance acquaintance’, ‘a prostitute’. More seldom the pattern is

used for names of objects, mostly disparaging. For instance: “*Are these your books?*” “*Yes*”. *They were a very odd collection of throw-outs from my flat* (Cooper).

The group of compound nouns is not very numerous. The term is borrowed from the grammarians of ancient India. Its literal meaning is ‘much-riced’. It is used to designate possessive exocentric formations in which a person, animal or thing are metonymically named after some striking feature they possess, chiefly a striking feature in their appearance. This feature is in its turn expressed by the sum of the meanings of the compound’s immediate constituents. The formula of the compound nouns is adjective stem + noun stem. The following extract will illustrate the way compounds may be coined: *I got discouraged with sitting all day in the backroom of a police station with six assorted women and a man with a wooden leg. At the end of a week, we all knew each other’s life histories, including that of the woodenleg’s uncle, who lived at Selsey and had to be careful of his diet* (M. Dickens).

Semantically the bahuvrihi are almost invariably characterised by a deprecative ironical emotional tone. Cf. *bigwig* ‘a person of importance’, *black-shirt* ‘an Italian fascist’ (also, by analogy, any fascist), *fathead* ‘a dull, stupid person’, *greenhorn* ‘an ignoramus’, *highbrow* ‘a person who claims to be superior in intellect and culture’, *lazy-bones* ‘a lazy person’.

2.3 Grammatical categories of parts of speech in English and Uzbek.

The English noun has 2 grammatical categories - number and case, the Uzbek noun has 3 - number, case and possession

The Category of Number (Son kategoriyasi)

In the languages compared the category of number is a system of two-member opposition - the singular and the plural.

Eng:

Uzb:

house - houses uy - uylar

woman - women xotin - xotinlar

room - rooms xona - xonalar

In English and Uzbek the singular form is represented by zero mor-**j** pHEME. The exceptions in English are some of the nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek:

datum, crisis, bacterium, phenomenon.

In English the singular forms serve mainly to express oneness:

The book is on the table. I have a book.

In certain contexts and speech situations they may not express 'number':

Eng:

to hunt bear (Ayiql ovlamoq).

to hunt hare (quyon ovlamoq).

In Uzbek both cases occur equally:

Kitob qani? (Where is the book?)

Bugun kitob sotib oldim (Today I have bought a book (books),

In the first case the singular form expresses oneness, in the second case it does not express any number. This can be proved by putting the question «Bitta kitob sotib oldingmi yoki ko`pmi?» (Did you buy one or many?)

If there were any information about the number of the books, in the second sentence we could not have put that question.

In English there are several ways of forming the plural. It is formed:

by adding one of the following suffixes a) -e(s) which has three phonetically conditioned allomorphs [s], [z], [ɪz]: books/pens, houses, b) -en: oxen; e) -a: memoranda, d) -ei; nuclei; c) -ae: formulae; f) -i: stimuli.

by vowel alternation: man - men, goose - geese, foot - feet, i. HI - women, tooth - teeth, mouse - mice, louse - lice.

3) by the suffix -en and vowel alternation: child - children.

Adding the suffixes of the plural does not cause any change in Word stress but in certain nouns ending in -f and in -th morphological changes take place: shelf-shelves, knife - knives, bath [ba:9] baths [ba:6z], path [pa:9] - paths [pa:6z].

Among the forms of the plural the suffix -(e)s is productive, others unproductive.

In Uzbek the plural of nouns is formed by adding the suffix -lar to stem and the stress is shifted onto this ending: bola - bolalar, kitob - kitoblar, film - filmlar.

In English nouns forming the plural by taking the suffix -(e)s have common form for number and case, other nouns have separate for them.

girls' school; men's hats; children's home etc.

In certain English composite nouns the first element takes the plural form.

E.g.

Singular	Plural
brother-in-law	brothers-in-law
editor-in-chief	editors-in-chief
looker-on	lookers-on

In Uzbek compound nouns the final element (word) takes the plural

Some of the English countable nouns have zero morpheme both in singular and plural:

one fish - ten fish

one sheep - two sheep

one deer - five deer

one swine - twenty swine

one trout - two trout

The Uzbek counterparts of these English nouns have both the singular and plural forms. Compare:

Eng: Where is the fish? Where are the fish?

Uzb: Baliq qani? Baliqlar qani?

Some English abstract nouns (information, advice, business, news, work progress etc.) are used only in the singular, whereas in Uzbek the corresponding nouns are used in both numbers:

Singular	Plural
Eng: information	-
advice	-
business	-

Uzb: axborot axborotlar
 maslaxat maslaxatlar
 ish ishlar

The differences and similarities between the English and Uzbek plural forms in meaning are as follows:

The Meanings of the plural form.	Engl.	Uzb.
Plurality of things, phenomena and notions (books - kitoblar)	+	+
Plurality of sorts, kinds and types (soils - tuproklar)	+	+
Honour (Dadamlar keldi)	-	+
Plurality of similar individuals (Qurilishga minglab Farxodlar keldi)	-	+
The members of a family (The Browns - Braunlar)	+	+
Boundless extention or repetition (the waters of the Volga - Volganing suvlari)	+	+
Plurality of parts (trousers)	+	-
Complexity	+	-
A group of people who work together or keep company (Ahmadlar kelishdi)	-	+
A stretch of time which includes a definite year (in the thirties - O`ttizinchi yillarda)	+	+
Inclusion (U Moskvalarda bo`ldi)	-	+
Approximateness (Pulimni erlarda yukotdim)	-	+
Collectiveness (Xolima, Adiba va Gulchexralar kelishdi)	-	+

Intensification (Badanlarim muzlab ketdi) -

+

There are differences between English and Uzbek singular and

plural forms in usage. In English the noun is used in the plural if it combines with any numeral expressing more than oneness, whereas in Uzbek it is used in the singular: Eng: ten pens, five birds etc.

nil unta ruchka, beshta Qush etc. » In Uzbek the final homogeneous object or subject usually takes the form even if it denotes one thing or person:

Qalam, daftar, portfellar oldim.

Erkin, Shavkat va Karimlar kelishdi.

In English in such cases a noun in the singular is used:

likin, Shavkat and Karim have come.

Borne of the differences between the categories of number of English

Nouns may cause interlanguage interferences. The errors of

Uzbek when they speak English are ten book; foots; gentlemans; cherry; advices; father-in-laws; I played domino (billiard); The fl lies are on the table, two scissors; bacterias; datas etc.)

The Category of Case (Kelishik kategoriyasi)

The category of case of nouns shows the relation of the noun to the Other words in the sentence. In both languages we find the category of case, but their oppositions differ. In English the noun has two cases (girl's), in Uzbek - six cases (qiz - qizning - qizni - qizga - qizda - qizdan).

The differences and similarities in the nomenclature of the category of case of English and Uzbek nouns are as follows:

Engl.		Uzb.
The Nominative (Common) Case	++	
The Genitive Case	++	
The Dative Case	- +	
The Accusative Case	- +	
The Locative Case	- +	
The Ablative Case	- +	

As seen from the table, the category of case of Uzbek nouns is much more developed than that of English nouns. There is a great differences between English and Uzbek nouns in their relation to the category of case. In Uzbek all the nouns have the category of case, hut in English only animate nouns have it.

This difference may cause interlanguage interferences when English is spoken by Uzbeks (Errors: the mountain's height; the ichool's garden).

Nominative (Common) Case (Bosh kelishik). In English and Uzbek the noun in the nominative (common) case is always unmarked. In other words the nominative case in these lan-J guages is represented by a zero morpheme.

Eng: boy, girl etc.

Uzb: bola, qiz, etc.

In the languages compared the noun in the nominative (common) case fulfills a number of syntactic functions. Of these mostly spread are the functions of subject, object, predicative, attribute in English, the functions of subject, predicate, attribute and object in Uzbek.

The noun in the nominative case functioning as:

a subject:

Eng: The bird is in the cage.

Uzb: Qush qafasda.

an object:

Eng: I have caught a bird.

Uzb: Men Qush tutib oldim.

a predicative:

Eng: It was a bird.

Uzb: Bu Qush edi.

a predicate:

Uzb: Bu Qush.

an attribute:

a)Eng : This is a gold watch.

b)Uzb: Bu oltin soat.

c)Engl: This is Aunt Polly.

d)Uzb: Bu Polli xola.

an adverbial modifier:

Engl: He walked a kilometer

Uzb: U bir kilometr yurdi

The semantic structure of the English nominative case is larger than the one of the Uzbek nominative case. As a result, certain inter-language interferences take place when Uzbeks speak English.

The Genitive Case (Qaratqich kelishigi)

In English the categorical form of the genitive case is the morpheme | -s which has three phonetically conditioned variants [s], [z] and [iz]

dog's [z]; Helen's [z]

Nick's [s]; student's [s]

As seen from (3), when a proper name ends in -s only an apostrophe is usually added in spelling, but the full inflexion [iz] is pronounced.

If the plural of the noun is formed by the inflexion -(e)s the possessive case inflexion blends into one with the plural inflexion. Students' books, girls' coats, actresses' roles etc. In Uzbek the categorical form of the genitive case of the noun is the morpheme-ning which is pronounced as (-ni) in colloquial speech. In Uzbek number and case are always expressed by separate morphemes (bolalarning, talabalarning). In English we observe both cases (oxen's, men's, bacteria's, toys', girls', dogs', birds' etc.). Most grammarians use the term possessive case instead of the term live case. The latter is more suitable for contrastive linguistics.

The Accusative Case (Tushum kelishigi)

In contrast to English nouns, Uzbek nouns possess the accusative case which is represented by the morphemes -ni and -n which simultaneously express two meanings - object and definiteness:

Menga kitobni ber (Give me the book)

The morpheme -n is used in poetry:

Tonggi kurtak, oqshomgi g`uncha

Sahar turib ochar chechagin (H. Olimjon).

One should distinguish between the object expressed by a noun in the nominative case and the object expressed by a noun in the accusative case:

Menga kitob ber (Give me a book).

Menga kitobni ber (Give me the book).

In the first example the noun in the nominative case (kitob) denotes an indefinite object, whereas in the second example the noun in the accusative case (kitobni) denotes a definite object.

The Dative Case (Jo`nalish kelishigi)

In contrast to English nouns, Uzbek nouns have the dative case the form of which is represented by the affix -ra and its variants -k -ka.

uyga	elakka	toqqa
suvga	etikka	kishloqqa
shaxarga	bashikka	quduqqa
ukamga	teshikka	buloqqa

The Uzbek dative case may cause some interlanguage interferences the consequences of which are: 1) confusing certain prepositions; 2) adding certain prepositions; silence; passivization of some forms.

The Locative Case (o`rin kelishigi)

The locative case exists in Uzbek and it has one orthographic (-da) and two orthoepic variants (-da, -ta).

The results of interlanguage interferences are: 1) confusing prepositions; 2) silence; 3) passivization of forms.

The Ablative Case (Chiqish kelishigi).

The ablative case exists in Uzbek. It has one orthographic (-dan) and two orthoepic variants -dan, -tan: U Moskvadan keldi. Nik xatni chuntagidan oldi.

The Category of Possession (Egalik kategoriyasi)

This category exists in Uzbek. It shows whether the thing (or things) denoted by the noun belongs to the speaker, to the person (or persons) addressed, or to the person or thing (persons or things) not participating in speech.

The category of possession is a system of three member opposition such as: kitobim, kitobimiz - kitobing, kitobingiz - kitobi. The categorical forms of this category are as follows:

Singular	Plural
1st person -im/-m	-miz/-imiz 2nd person -ing / -ng
-ngiz / -ingiz	
3rd person -i / -si	-i / -si

The morphemes -im, -ing, -i, -imiz, -ingiz are used after the nouns ending in a consonant while -m, -ng, -si, -miz, -ngiz are used after the nouns ending in a vowel.

	sing.	plur.	sing.	plur.
1st person	pulim	pulimiz	bolam	bolamiz
2nd person	puling	pulingiz	bolang	bolangiz
3rd person	puli	puli	bolasi	bolasi

CHAPTER III. ASPECTS OF TEACHING ADVANCED LEVEL STUDENTS

3.1 Different approaches to the teaching English grammar

Language is the chief means by which the human personality exercises itself and fulfills its basic need for social interaction with other persons. Robert Lado wrote that language functions owing to the language skills. A person who knows a language perfectly uses a thousand and one grammar lexical, phonetic rules when he is speaking. Language skills help us to choose different words and models in our speech⁵.

It is clear that the term “grammar” has meant various things at various times and sometimes several things at one time. This plurality of meaning is characteristic of the divscent time and is the source of confusions in the discussion of grammar as part of the education of children. There have been taking place violent disputes on the subject of teaching grammar at school.

The ability to talk about the grammar of a language, to recite its rules, is also very different from ability to speak and understand a language or to read and write it. Those who can use a language are often unable to recite its rules, and those who can recite its rules can be unable to use it.

Grammar organizes the vocabulary and as a result we have sense units. There is a system of stereotypes, which organizes words into sentences. But what skill does grammar develop?

First of all it gives the ability to make up sentences correctly, to reproduce the text adequately. (The development of practical skills and habits) The knowledge of the specific grammar structure helps pupils point out the differences between the mother tongue and the target language.

The knowledge of grammar develops abilities to abstract systematize plural facts. The name of our work is “Teaching Grammar”. And the main aim is to

⁵ <http://www.adroadlanguages.com.at.english>.

clearly recognize how to teach grammar right. To judge by the way some people speak, there is no place for grammar in the language course nowadays; yet it is, in reality, as important as it ever was exercise of correct grammar, if he is to attain any skill of effective use of the language, but he need not know consciously formulated rules to account to him for that he does unconsciously correctly.

In order to understand a language and to endives oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of the language studied. Indeed, one may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relation between the words in the given sentence. And vice versa, a sentence may contain one, two, and more unknown words but if one has a good knowledge of the structure of the language one can easily guess the meaning of these words or at least find them in a dictionary.

No speaking is possible without the knowledge of grammar, without the forming of a grammar mechanism. If learner has acquired such a mechanism, he can produce correct sentences in a foreign language. Paul Roberts writes: Grammar is something that produces the sentences of a language. By something we mean a speaker of English. If you speak English natively, you have built into you rules of English grammar. In a sense, you are an English grammar. You possess, as an essential part of your being, a very complicated apparatus which enables you to produce infinitely many sentences, all English ones, including many that you have never specifically learned. Furthermore by applying you rule you can easily tell whether a sentence that you hear a grammatical English sentence or not.” A command of English as is envisaged by the school syllabus cannot be ensured without the study of grammar. Pupils need grammar to be able to aud, speak, read, and write in the target language.

3.2 The psychological characteristics of grammar skills

To develop one’s speech means to acquire essential patterns of speech and grammar patterns in particular. Children must use these items automatically during speech-practice. The automatic use of grammar items in our speech (oral and

written) supposes mastering some particular skills – the skills of using grammar items to express one's own thoughts, in other words to make up your sentences. We must get so-called reproductive or active grammar skills⁶.

A skill is treated as an automatic part of awareness. Automatization of the action is the main feature of a skill. The nature of Automatization is characterized by that psychological structure of the action which adapts to the conditions of performing the action owing frequent experience. The action becomes more frequent, correct and accurate and the number of the operations is shortened while forming the skill the character of awareness of the action is changing, i.e. fullness of understanding is paid to the conditions and quality of performing to the control over it and regulation.

To form some skills is necessary to know that the process of the forming skills has some steps:

- Only some definite elements of the action are automatic.
- The Automatization occurs under more difficult conditions, when the child can't concentrate his attention on one element of the action.
- The whole structure of the action is improved and the automatization of its separate components is completed.

What features do the productive grammar skills have?

During our speech the reproductive grammar skills are formed together with lexis and intonation, they must express the speaker's intentions. The actions in the structural setting of the lexis must be learnt. The characteristic feature of the reproductive grammar skills is their flexibility. It doesn't depend on the level of Automatization, i.e. on perfection of skill here mean the original action: both the structure of sentence, and forms of the words are reproduced by the speaker using different lexical material. If the child reproduces sentences and different words, which have been learnt by him as "a ready-made thing" he can say that there is no grammar skill. Learning the ready-made forms, word combinations and sentences

⁶ [http:// www/answers/ com/ topic/ english.](http://www.answers.com/topic/english)

occurs in the same way as learning lexis. The grammar skill is based on the general conclusion. The grammar action can and must occur only in the definite lexical limits, on the definite lexical material. If the pupil can make up his sentence frequently, accurately and correctly from the grammatical point of view, he has got the grammar skill.

Teaching grammar at school using the theoretical knowledge brought some critical and led to confusion. All the grammatical rules were considered to be evil and there were some steps to avoid using them at school. But when we learn grammatical items in models we use substitution and such a type of training gets rid of grammar or “neutralizes” it. By the way, teaching the skills to make up sentences by analogy is a step on the way of forming grammar skills. It isn't the lexical approach to grammar and it isn't neutralization of grammar, but using basic sentences in order to use exercises by analogy and to reduce number of grammar rules when forming the reproductive grammar skills. To form the reproductive grammar skills we must follow such steps:

- Selection the model of sentence.
- Selection the form of the word and formation of wordforms.
- Selection the auxiliary words-divposition, articles, and etc. and their combination with principle words.

The main difficulty of the reproductive (active) grammar skills is to correspond the purposes of the statement, communicative approach (a questionèan answer and so on), words, meanings, exdivssed by the grammatical patterns. In that case we use basic sentences, in order to answer the definite situation. The main factor of the forming of the reproductive grammar skill is that pupils need to learn the lexis of the language. They need to learn the meanings of the words and how they are used. We must be sure that our pupils are aware of the vocabulary they need at their level and they can use the words in order to form their own sentence. Each sentence contains a grammar structure. The mastering the grammar skill lets pupils save time and strength, energy, which can give opportunity to create. Learning a number of sentences containing the same grammatical structure and a

lot of words containing the same grammatical form isn't rational. But the generalization of the grammar item can relieve the work of the mental activity and let the teacher speed up the work and the children realize creative activities.

The process of creation is connected with the mastering of some speech stereotypes the grammatical substrat is hidden in basic sentences. Grammar is divsented as itself. Such a divsentation of grammar has its advantage: the grammar patterns of the basic sentences are connected with each other. But this approach gives pupils the opportunity to realize the grammar item better. The teaching must be based on grammar explanations and grammar rules. Grammar rules are to be understood as a special way of exdivssing communicative activity. The reproductive grammar skills suppose to master the grammar actions which are necessary for exdivssing thoughts in oral and written forms. The automatic perception of the text supposes the reader to identify the grammar form according to the formal features of words, word combinations, sentences which must be combined with the definite meaning. One must learn the rules in order to identify different grammatical forms. Pupils should get to know their features, the ways of exdevising them in the language. We teach children to read and aud by means of grammar. It reveals the relation between words in the sentence. Grammar is of great important when one teaches reading and auding. The forming of the perceptive grammar and reproductive skills is quite different. The steps of the work is mastering the reproductive skills differ from the steps in mastering the perceptive skills. To master the reproductive grammar skills one should study the basic sentences or models. To master the perceptive grammar skills one should identify and analyze the grammar item. Though training is of great importance to realize the grammar item.

3.3 The content of Teaching Grammar

Before speaking about the selection of grammar material it is necessary to consider the concept "grammar", what it meant by "grammar". By grammar one can mean adequate comdivhension and correct usage of words in the act of

communication, that is, intuitive knowledge of the grammar of the language. It is a set of reflexes enabling a person to communicate with his associates⁷. Such knowledge is acquired by a child in the mother tongue before he goes to schools. This “grammar” functions without the individual’s awareness of technical nomenclature; in other words, he has no idea of the system of the language, and to use all the word-endings for singular and plural, for tense, and all the other grammar rules without special grammar lessons only due to the abundance of hearing and speaking. His young mind grasps the facts and “makes simple grammar rules” for arranging the words to express various thoughts and feelings. This is true because sometimes little children make mistakes by using a common rule for words to which that rule cannot be applied. For example, a little English child might be heard to say *Two mans comed* instead of *Two men come*, because the child is using the plural “s” rule for man to which the rule does not apply, and the past tense *ed* rule for come which does not obey the ordinary rule for the past tense formation. A little Russian child can say *ножов* instead of *ножей* using the case-ending “ов” for *ножи* to which it does not apply. Such mistakes are corrected as the child grows older and learns more of his language. By “grammar” we also mean the system of the language, the discovery and description of the nature of language itself. It is not a natural grammar, but a constructed one. There are several *constructed grammars: traditional, structural, and transformational grammars*. Traditional grammar studies the forms of words (morphology) and how they are put together in sentences (syntax); structural grammar studies structures of various levels of the language (morpheme level) and syntactic level; transformational grammar studies basic structures and transformation rules. What we need is simplest and shortest grammar that meets the requirements of the school syllabus in foreign languages. This grammar must be simple enough to be grasped and held by any pupil. We cannot say that this problem has been solved. Since graduates are expected to acquire language proficiency in aural

⁷ <http://www.homeenglish.ru>.

comprehension, speaking and reading grammar material should be selected for the purpose. There exist principles of selecting grammar material both for teaching speaking knowledge (active minimum) and for teaching reading knowledge (passive minimum), the main one is the principle of frequency, i.e., how frequently this or that grammar item occurs. For example, the Present Simple (Indefinite) is frequently used both in conversation and in various texts. Therefore it should be included in the grammar minimum. For selecting grammar material for reading the principle of polysemia, for instance, is of great importance.

Pupils should be taught to distinguish such grammar items which serve to express

different meanings.

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description, i.e., the grammar which constitutes the best base for developing speech habits. Thus the school syllabus reflects a traditional approach to determining grammar material for foreign language teaching, pupils are given sentences patterns or structures, and through these structures they assimilate the English language, acquire grammar mechanisms of speech. The content of grammar teaching is disputable among teachers and methodologists, and there are various approaches to the problem, pupils should, whatever the content of the course, assimilate the ways of fitting words together to form sentences and be able to easily recognize grammar forms and structures while hearing and reading, to reproduce phrases and sentences stored up in their memory.

CONCLUSION

Conclusion presents the result of the investigation produced in the Qualification paper. As our president I. A. Karimov said: “Continuous education is the main basis system in personal training the priority providing the social economic development of the republic of Uzbekistan. Continuous education satisfies the economic, social, scientific – technical and cultural requirements of the personality society and state”. We must follow his suggestion and bring in our contribution to the development in educational process. Our country is young and we need more and more skill full experienced specialists in all branches of the economy and education. At present great attention is paid to the studying and teaching of foreign languages. No doubts it happens not without purpose. Today the importance of our peoples perfect knowledge of foreign language and universities. To overcome all those we should create new methods of teaching provide the students with necessary information`s about the languages. In my Graduation paper I have tried to depict and analysis of the linguistic characteristics of the noun and classification of nouns.

According to the structure I devided into following groups, simple, derivative, compound, compound – derived, composite nouns. In modern English the noun characterized by two grammatical categories. These categories are based on the oppositions of number and case category of number is devided in two groups.

Countable – singular, plural

Boy – boys, pen – pens, book – books, table – tables

Abstract and mass nouns belong to the countable group.

Countable nouns require the question “How many”

How many students are there in your group?

Uncountable ones question “How much”

How much money have you?

The rule for forming the plural form of countable nouns is by adding the ending s [es] to the singular. The ending –s is pronounced in different nouns [iz]

dresses boys, girls, trees. s,[es] desks, cats, foots. Some nouns have only plural form: trousers, scissors, tongs, spectacles. Common case – Genitive is formed by adding – s: a girl`s toy – girls` toy

The functions of the noun are used in the sentences:

1. As a subject

Lanny went to the ticket collector

2. As an object

Arthur knocked and pushed her head in to the room

3. As an attribute

She opened the kitchen door stepped in

4. As a predictive

South Africa, Lanny thought this is south Africa

5. As an adverbial modifier

She was looking at me in the dark

6. As a direct address

“Eliver” he shouted “what have you got in your month?”

7. As an opposition

“Why, sister Carry” she began to cry

All these information about the grammatical aspects of the semantic study of the nouns in English and Uzbek are expressed in the second chapter. As I can explain the third chapter is methoding of grammar teaching.

Anyone can write their own ideas, thoughts. This is particularly helpful if you a teacher wanting get your student to think outside the box or as a parent wanting your child to learn new facts in a fun and interesting way. There are such rules that apply when making your own ideas.

The aim of this paper is to outline and discuss what English and Uzbek verbs are the attractions and problems may occur with such approach in analyzing words or concepts. Understanding these problems and questions may

help difference for translations of these words in develop approaches in analyzing this subject and avoid them.

We should realize the importance of training exercises and the role of the individual approach to teaching the children. Besides, the teacher must have a clear idea of the grammar of the language, its structure and usage; everything he teaches must be based on it; he should always be consciouos of introducing or practicing some point of grammar.

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