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CONCEPT OF LINGUISTIC CLASSIFICATION AND ITS TYPES

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Abstract: In this article, there are scientific opinions on linguistic classification and its types. Opinions about the linguistic features of the linguistic classification are also presented.

Key words: linguistic classification, linguistics, linguistics, term, section.

Classification (Arabic: "sorting", "arrangement") is the division of things and objects into groups (classes) that have a clear and permanent place. If the classification has a scientific basis, it will be valid for a long time. For example, the classification of chemical elements remains unchanged today, although their number exceeds 200.

Classification differs from being simple by its stable nature. True, all the principles that apply to simplicity serve as a basis for classification. That is, as in classification:

1) the size of the classified pieces should be equal to the size of the whole being classified;

2) classification is carried out on a single basis;

3) classification (classified) groups negate each other;

4) the classification should be continuous, that is, there should be no "jumps" in it.

Let's briefly explain these rules.

Classified groups fit into a classifiable whole.

For example, phonemes are divided into vowels and consonants, lexemes into independent and non-independent lexemes, adverbs into word-forming and grammatical adverbs. If the number of classified groups is very large, it is possible to end the counting in the form of "and others", and "etc". For example, thematic groups of verbs are action verbs, speech verbs, thinking verbs, walking verbs, etc.

Violation of this rule will result in the following errors:

incorrect classification does not include all the species of the species. For example, "Word builders are divided into noun builders and verb builders." Because wordsmiths do not consist only of what is said.

classifications with redundant members are larger than the totality of the classified groups. For example, "vowels have lipped, unliped and throaty types."

Classification should be done on the same basis.

Dividing the classifiable whole into groups should be done only on the basis of one sign, basis, criterion. For example, word groups can be classified on the basis of three signs - morphological, semantic and syntactic signs. But each classification relies on only one of them. Failure to do so in the classification causes two types of errors: it causes failure to perform the classification. For example: words are morphologically divided into variable and fixed words, semantically into autosemantic (independent meaning) and synsemantic (independent meaning) words.



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But they cannot be classified morphologically and semantically at the same time. Because invariable words can be both autosemantic and synsemantic. For example, auxiliaries are invariant, synsemantic, adjectives are invariant, autosemantic words.

Applying one or the other basis or switching from one to another at one stage of the classification damages the consistency of the classification. For example: in the traditional classification of adverbial clauses, they initially began on the basis of a syntactic sign (possessive clause, participle clause, complement clause, determining clause), continued and ended with a semantic basis: when clause, conditional adverb, place adverb, non-obstructive adverb, result adverb, etc. In the traditional method, it would be better if the classification was first carried out on the basis of syntactic signs, and at the second stage, semantic classification was carried out. For example:

Classification members (groups) must be mutually exclusive.

For example: in the classification of consonants as front-tongue, middle-tongue, back-tongue, guttural, voiced, voiceless, some members cannot negate others. That is, voiced consonants cannot conflict with pre-lingual consonants, pre-lingual and mid-lingual consonants have the property of negating each other.

There should be no jumps in the classification.

If we make the mistake that "participles are divided into simple participle, complex verb participle, complex noun participle." Because first dividing the participles into simple and complex, and then dividing them into verb and noun participles gives a correct and consistent classification.

Classification differs from partitioning in that partitioning does not require grouping of members. For example, to say that non-labialized vowels are i, e, a is not a classification, but a division. In order to have a classification character, i or a was a group (class), and in turn, it had to be divided again. Dividing vowels into labial and non-labial vowels is a classification, and dividing non-labial or labial vowels, although simple, is not a classification. Classification can be dichotomous, polytomous or dichopolytomous. In dichotomous classification, units are divided into two groups: as in "phonemes are divided into vowels and consonants". In the political classification, the number of groups is more than two: "Grammatic adverbs are divided into lexical form-formers, syntactic form-formers and lexical-syntactic form-formers", or verbs are speech verbs, mental- state verbs and h. In the dichopolytomous classification, the whole being classified is divided into two at the initial stage, and at the next stage into more than two classes. For example:

It is important to choose the basis of classification in classification. Because classifying a system of things on different bases gives different results. For example, consonant phonemes can be classified into voiced and voiceless according to the presence of voice and noise, lip, tongue, throat consonants according to the place of formation.

Linguistic classification can be based on the internal, inherent characteristics of the units being classified, or on unimportant external properties. Therefore, natural or auxiliary classifications are distinguished. Natural classification relies on internal, stable features of linguistic units. We have given examples of natural classification above.

The auxiliary classification relies on the symbols indicating the non-ontological properties of the units. For example, "classification of words according to the number of syllables into monosyllabic, two-syllable and polysyllabic words", "vowels are placed in the horizontal position of the tongue ra classification" and h.



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Language is a complex social phenomenon and serves as a tool for thinking and thinking. Initially, two states of the language are distinguished. Language and speech.

Language is a wealth of language units and rules for their use in the center of language memory in the human brain. And speech is the process of using this wealth and the result of such a process. Language is an abstract phenomenon that exists in the human brain, and we perceive it with the mind; and speech is a material phenomenon that occurs in the process of using this abstract phenomenon, and we hear it as pronunciation units.

Events belonging to language, that is, existing in language memory, are called linguistic units; the state of a linguistic unit that has materialized in speech is called a speech unit. So, everyone has a wealth of symbols of linguistic units and the rules of their use in their brain, and everyone uses this wealth to create a speech according to their needs. Sound is the basis of human language: phenomena in language are realized in sounds. Sound as a language unit serves as a building block for other language units. Accordingly, the sound of the language is called the primary expressive aspect of language units.

The sound of the language as a linguistic unit is reflected as a certain symbol in the center of language memory in the brain. This symbol contains information about the characteristics of the language sound. For example, there is information about its sound such as "it consists of a voice", "the oral cavity is in a narrow position", "the range of sound generation is at the back of the tongue", "the lips are actively participating". When an "instruction" (impulse) is given from the brain center that controls human activity, including language activity, to say the sound u, the organs of sound production move according to the information embodied in the symbol of this sound, and take a certain state according to the instruction, and the air coming out of the lungs appears as a certain speech sound, as a speech unit.

In the memory of the language, there are symbols of all the sounds of this language, these symbols form the articulatory base of the sounds of this language (a set of skills to involve the speech organs in making sounds). The incorrect pronunciation of a foreign sound that occurs as a linguistic unit belonging to another language is explained by the absence of a special symbol for such a sound in the center of the language memory: if a symbol for such a sound appears in the language memory, only then can this sound be correctly pronounced pronunciation is achieved. For example, the sliding j sound is not unique to the Uzbek language as a Turkic language. As a result of living together with Iranian speakers for a long time and being in constant communication, this sound was accepted into the Uzbek language as part of language units such as ajdar, mujda, gijda. was made, as a result of which a separate symbol appeared in the center of language memory for this sound.

Sound symbols exist in language memory not by themselves, but attached to language units. Language unity consists of the unity of two aspects: expression aspect (plan vyrajenia) and content aspect (plan soderjania). The sound of the language serves as an expressive aspect of such a language unit. For example, the system of q, o', l language sounds arranged in this order serves as the expressive aspect of the hand-language unit in the Uzbek language.

The aspect of expression itself is not a linguistic unit, it is only one aspect of a linguistic unit. As mentioned above, in order to become a language unit, a certain aspect of content must be attached to a certain aspect of expression, and this attachment must be reflected in the memory of the language. The string of hand sounds becomes a language unit only after the content of "part of the body that separates from the shoulder and continues to the fingertips" is added to the string of q, o', l (hand) sounds mentioned above. Therefore, the sound of the



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language serves only as an expression aspect of language units, it does not have a content aspect; because of this, the sound of the language is called a one-dimensional unit of the language, the building material of the language unit. Language sound is assessed in three ways: articulation, acoustics and function. The acoustic properties of the sound depend on the articulatory properties, therefore, combining them, we talk about the articulatory-acoustic properties. Such properties are also called physical-physiological properties. Information about the articulatory-acoustic properties of the language sound is available in the symbols reflected in the language memory center of the brain.

In conclusion, it can be said that only the possibilities of the language are realized in the speech, the possibilities of the language are rich and only a certain part is manifested in the speech.

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