

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ
ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ
БУХОРО ДАВЛАТ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ
ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛШУНОСЛИГИ КАФЕДРАСИ**

ТИЛ ВА ТИЛ ЎҚИТИШНИНГ ЗАМОНАВИЙ МУАММОЛАРИ

**(Инглиз тилшунослиги кафедраси олимаси
М.Қ.Абдуллаева таваллудининг 80 йиллигига
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**мавзусидаги Университет миқёсидаги ОНЛАЙН
илмий-амалий анжумани материаллари
ТЎПЛАМИ**

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2020-yil**

OUR KNOWLEDGE IS A BIG SUCCESS IN LIFE

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БУХОРО – 2020

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БУХОРО – 2020

REDUCTION AS THE WAY OF THE LANGUAGE ECONOMY MANIFESTATION

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Abstract.

Background. The history of language economy has a long tradition. It has been addressed by various thinkers, starting with Aristotle. Systematic study of the principle of economy in language should be associated with research in the field of phonetics and, above all, with the names of such linguists as H.Sweet, P.Passy, V.Whitney, who indicated the presence of two opposite trends in the language: the tendency to facilitate pronunciation and its opposite — the tendency to redundancy.

Methods. Language economy is a universal category inherent in all languages of the world, characterized by the desire to save energy, avoid excessive expenditure of physiological and psychological effort when using speech and manifests itself at all levels of the language system. The principle of economy is expressed in the creation and perception of language elements with minimal effort and can be considered one of the reasons for language changes.

Results. The tendency to save language resources is one of the internal factors contributing to the development and improvement of the language, which, according to many linguists, is universal and affects all levels of the language system. It is proved that economy proceeds differently at different levels of language (phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactic, etc.), being an internal driving force in language evolution.

Conclusion. The principle of language economy is reflected in the ability to express the diversity of the objective world in an economical way. Language is the main form that reflects our knowledge of the world, as well as the main means of storing, processing and transmitting knowledge. The most well-known cognitive categories borrowed from knowledge representation theory include the concepts of frame and scenario. Frames and prototypes are among the most well-known categories borrowed from knowledge representation theory.

Key words. The principle of economy, qualitative reduction, tendency to redundancy, cognitive categories, linguistic compression, loss of aspiration.

Introduction.

Human language is extraordinarily economical. We can say an extraordinary amount in very few well chosen words. This economy is essential to its function. Language is what in computer science is called a soft real-time system. That is, you have a limited amount of time in which to convey your meaning. After that, your audience will get bored or go to sleep, or the event you wished to discuss or avoid will have taken place. The night will have come without the fire being built.

The deer will have fled without the arrow being loosed from the string.

Language is built for speed, not for precision. This is why legal documents such as contracts or statutes are so bizarrely complex and pedantic. Much rides on any dispute about the meaning of a statute or contract, and ordinary language — the way ordinary people speak — sacrifices that kind of precision for speed. Even so, statutes and contracts seldom succeed in achieving perfect clarity, which is why there is such frequent recourse to the courts and why the corpus of laws, decisions, and precedents is so mind bogglingly large.

Language is also built for economy of vocabulary. We don't have one word for one thing. Most of the time, we use a handful of words in different combinations to point roughly at the thing we want to say, hoping or assuming that the person we are talking to has enough common points of reference with us that they will select the correct meaning of those words out of all the possible meanings that are available. (The charge of the light brigade was caused by two different commanders being able to see two different gun emplacements from their different vantage points. Neither could see the ambiguity. And in battle, communication has to work in real time.) There are, of course, lots of words for expressing many very precise ideas. The English language, in particular, has a massive vocabulary. By some estimates, English has something in the region of a million words. Yet it is estimated that an average English speaker has an active vocabulary of only 20,000 words and a passive vocabulary of only 40,000. So, a typical English speaker knows only 2% to 4% of the language. But that is not even the best bit. So, one thousandth of the language will cover you for approximately 90% of what you need. That is an extraordinary economy. And it is a good thing, too, because if we needed to learn a million words, I don't think we would ever get much said. And of course, if you did need to learn those million words, how would you learn them? You could attempt to learn them all by direct observation, the way a child learns to speak by observing its parents speech, but our ability to do that declines as we age, and for the most part, we would have to learn our million words from a dictionary (though good luck finding one that listed even a quarter of them). And how would the dictionary explain those words? By using sentences made up of other words. Most of the words in the language, therefore, are shortcuts for ideas that can equally be expressed in stories made up of more familiar words. (You may have to look things up iteratively until you get to definitions made up entirely of words you already know.)

There is a contest between two forms of economy here. More shortcut words can allow you to say something more quickly and with more precision. That is particularly important in a high-stakes real-time field like medicine. But having to learn all those shortcut words is tedious, and it only works if the person you are talking to knows the same shortcut words. No one learns medical jargon overnight. For the most part, then, the economy of language consists of getting a lot of mileage out of about 1000 words. And since we have way more than 1000 things to talk about, we communicate by combining that basic vocabulary to tell stories.

The way we tell stories is also part of the economy of language. We tell stories by making references, sometimes tacit, sometimes explicit, to other stories that we assume our interlocutor knows. Again, this is necessary to the real time performance of language, since explaining all the sub-stories would take too long, and would often involve field trips.

Communicating in this way is so fundamental to how language works that we are often not conscious that there is a complex story behind the words we choose and the way we put them together. (The economy of language demands that we produce these words without the effort that would be required to analyse their full implications.)

This reliance on known stories effectively divides our communication up into different domains of discourse. We use our same 1000 words to tell stories that evoke other stories. But people in different parts of our lives have very different sets of stories. We use the same 1000 words, plus a few specific to each domain, as we go from home to office to club to playing field to bar to convention to forum, more or less unconsciously switching between domains as we go. The economy of language depends on this division of discourse into separate domains, and even into sub and sub-sub domains. Thus the domain of computer programming has sub-domains for different architectures and sub-sub domains for different programming languages used in those architectures. Across all there is a common vocabulary, but that vocabulary evokes a different set of shared stories in each domain. All of this is necessary to make language reasonably real time. Without the shorthands that we can rely on when we speak to others in a particular domain, it would take far too long to say anything meaningful. But it makes communication between domains difficult.

At the heart of the difficulty, of course, is that you don't know all the stories in a domain that is not familiar to you, so you don't recognize when those stories are being invoked.

Language in its written form speaks to us from numerous signs in the public space. In residential areas we may just find street signs, texts on mailboxes or nameplates, but in commercial streets there is an abundance of signs. Many of those signs are put there with economic considerations in mind. The signs may inform us about the location of a store or the kinds of products that can be bought at that location. Many are advertisements which contain a message that try to convince us to buy a certain product. According to the American Signmakers Association a good sign for a business is plainly worth a lot of money quote? In this contribution we are going to look at the economic side of the environmental print that makes up the linguistic landscape. Signs have an economic cost because they have to be made of some material by somebody. Of course, there is a huge difference in cost between a handwritten note stuck on the wall asking for a room to let and a huge commercial billboard with rotating texts or a large video screen. Signs can produce an economic benefit, which may be difficult to establish in precise terms, but when a restaurant attracts more costumers because of a new sign,

the added income could be attributed to the new sign. Claus makes clear that the direct economic value of a sign, which can also be understood as the market value of a sign, can be measured by the number of exposures (how many people are reached by the message), by the market value of the location of the business and by the revenues generated by the sign because many customers stop by when they see the sign. Thus, signs have an important economic dimension in selling products, but also in other ways as we will be shown below. In the first section of this chapter we will focus on the most prominent topics in the study of linguistic landscape that is related to an economic perspective. The following section will summarize the relationship between language and the economy as an emerging field of research. Then we will explain the contingent valuation method from environmental economics as a way to assess economic value. Our central section is a proposal that can apply this method to linguistic landscape research in order to determine its economic value by focusing on non-market values. This method implies a further expansion of linguistic landscape research.

Language is a dynamic and constantly evolving system that is characterized by variability and dynamism. At the same time, we should not ignore the unevenness in the historical development of individual language levels, the non-uniformity and heterogeneity of changes occurring in them, which are caused by the action of both external and internal factors (3, 42). One of these internal factors that contribute to the development and improvement of the language is the tendency to save language resources, which, according to many linguists, is universal and affects all levels of the language system (9; 7; 4). The history of language economy has a long tradition.

It has been addressed by various thinkers, starting with Aristotle. Systematic study of the principle of economy in language should be associated with research in the field of phonetics and, above all, with the names of such linguists as H.Sweet, P.Passy, V.Whitney, who indicated the presence of two opposite trends in the language: the tendency to facilitate pronunciation and its opposite — the tendency to redundancy (10; 11; 12).

A. Martine initiated the study of economy in the field of phonology, expanding the scope of this principle and giving economy a universal character, considering it the cause of phonetic changes (5, 58-62). In modern linguistics, there are two approaches to understanding the principle of economy: broad (any phenomenon in synchrony and diachrony that leads to the disappearance of new forms and contributes to the improvement of language as a means of communication) and narrow (quantitative, based on the variability of language means, that is, replacing them with more economical units). A broad understanding is characteristic of language as a system, and a narrow understanding is characteristic of speech.

Conversational speech is the main area of implementation of language economy. Colloquial speech is also reflected in fiction for a more realistic description of the life of a certain environment, to create a verbal portrait of a

particular character (1, 258-265). The language of journalism and science is also not alien to elements of colloquial speech.

Methods. The principle of economy in language and speech is universal, due to its penetration into all levels of economy: on the phonetic level (the contraction and omission of phonemes), the lexical (substitution of single word phrases, shortening of words, merge the words into one lexical unit), on morphological (the use of synthetic forms is analytical; the conversion of nouns, adjectives, and participles; the omission or reduction affixes) and syntactic levels (using elliptical sentences).

Despite the variety of names, the essence of language economy is as follows: language economy is a universal category inherent in all languages of the world, characterized by the desire to save energy, avoid excessive expenditure of physiological and psychological effort when using speech and manifests itself at all levels of the language system.

The principle of economy is expressed in the creation and perception of language elements with minimal effort and can be considered one of the reasons for language changes (2, 77).

Under linguistic economy, as a rule, we understand the desire to minimize the mental, speech (mentally physical) activity of the speaker. (6, 103)

Results. The phenomenon in which a certain amount of information is transmitted using a minimum number of language tools is characterized as a problem of contraction, compression, compactness, and reduction. In this article, this concept is denoted by the principle of linguistic compression, which is a special case in the manifestation of language economy in an incomplete type of spoken speech.

Linguistic compression is one of the cases of manifestation of the principle of language economy, which acts on the diachronic and synchronic level of language in an incomplete type of spoken speech. Compression covers all levels of the language system (grammatical, lexical, phonetic) and is manifested in the use of more compressed (condensed) speech units, which are compared with units of the full type of speech, which contain the full amount of information. Linguistic compression is necessary to improve the language as a means of communication (8, 77).

The phenomenon of language compression is the development of super-segmental relations, both in terms of content and in terms of language sign expression. Language compression as a universal, its ontology and functions are almost not studied. [2, 113]

Discussion. It is believed that the human mind has a unique technique of mental perception of information. This psychotechnics regulates the understanding of information at all levels of the language, which comes from the environment in a "compressed" form. Understanding information also occurs at the phonemic level of the language, since the phoneme has a social aspect and performs the functions of distinguishing significant units of speech. However, it does not have its own

meaning, and is implemented in one of the sounds of the morpheme. The fact that the number of phonemes is limited (if there is a natural personal differentiation associated with the physiological characteristics of the speaker), allows for the unification of sounds to the extent of their full understanding. Thus, any phoneme of the language can be described as phonocentrism.

At the second level of the language, word-forming and form-forming morphemes are combined. These morphemes in the language are also limited, that is why during the formation of entirely new word forms or words the language user can understand and even "feel" the semantics of these entities and, ultimately, to reduce language to a limited number of morphemes.

In various spheres, compression has a specific character that is peculiar only to this circle, which reflects the stylistic difference in the language (with certain features and rules of use). Since the natural need of a person is his need for communication, it is natural for him to strive to save language resources.

Another example of sound modification in speech is reduction, which results in weakening and changing the sound of unstressed syllables. Reduction is the historical process of weakening and disappearing vowel sounds.

It is believed that the inertia of the speech tract is the main factor in the presence of vowel reduction. The vowel reduction occurs in the weak positions of prosodic or morphological, in particular, unstressed syllables and affixes.

Reduction of English vowel sounds is a change in sounds, the cause of which is their unstressed position in relation to other sounds, i.e., any unstressed vowel sound can be reduced in one way or another. In English, there is a reduction of only vowel sounds, in Uzbek both vowels and consonants.

In unstressed syllables, vowels are reduced, meaning that long vowel sounds are shortened, and short vowels can be replaced with the sound [ə]. There is a quantitative and qualitative reduction [a: — a — ə].

In addition to non-elementary syllables, this phonetic phenomenon is usually used in auxiliary words such as pronouns, auxiliary verbs, modal verbs, and in non-elementary positions. For example:

beautiful ['bju:təf(ə)l];

we must do it at once ['wi: məst 'du: it ət 'wʌns].

Now let's look at the cases with aspiration. In the percussive position, the consonants [p, t, k] are pronounced with aspiration. For example: *pie* ['phaɪ].

As for the loss of aspiration, it should be noted that in the percussive position, the consonants [p, t, k] in the combinations [s + p, s + t, s + k] are pronounced without aspiration. For example: *start* ['sta:t]

In English, as in Uzbek, only to an even greater extent, the pronunciation of a vowel sound in a stressed syllable differs strongly and distinctly, and in an unstressed syllable - weakly, with the loss of sound characteristics (qualitative reduction), sometimes with a reduction in its longitude (quantitative reduction). The final stage of sound reduction is its complete loss from the spoken word (zero reduction). Cf. OE. *stāne* [sta:ne] - ME *stone* [stone] - ModE *stone* [stoun].

The process of qualitative reduction of vowels in an unstressed syllable led to the emergence of a neutral sound, which replaced all other vowel sounds, except the phoneme [i].

As a result of reduction, most English auxiliary words have two forms of pronunciation: full (stressed) and reduced (both forms are represented in transcriptions of English dictionaries).

Full forms are used in the percussive position, and reduced forms are used in the unstressed position. This applies primarily to all auxiliary words - articles, link and modal verbs, conjunctions and prepositions, as well as often to personal and possessive pronouns, and adverbs. In the unstressed position (and this is almost always the case), they are pronounced in a weak form, individual sounds become shorter and less distinct. A speech in which all the words are pronounced accurately and clearly will sound completely unnatural.

For example, (in transcription, the first form is full, the second is reduced):

Articles: **a** [e, ə], **an** [æ, ə], **the** [ðj, ði, ðə];

Prepositions: **of** [ɒv, əv], **for** [fɒ, fə], **too** [th, tu, tə], etc;

Conjunctions: **and** [ænd, ənd], **but** [bʌt, bət], **that** [ðæt, ðət], etc.

Quantitative reduction is typical for long vowel sounds. For example, the pronoun **me** is pronounced under the stress of [mj], and in the unstressed position in fluent speech [mi].

Zero reduction is also reflected in the letter: instead of the letter that falls out and expresses a sound in full form, an apostrophe is put: I'm late. [aim leɪt].

Thus, all unstressed words: articles, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, etc. - are pronounced together (merged) with the stressed word with which they are related in meaning, and vowel sounds are reduced in them. For example, a merged pronunciation of a notional verb followed by a personal pronoun:

I 'see him [ai'sjhim].

You 'help her [ju'helphə:].

The noun and the preposition related to it (prepositional group) are pronounced together, without a break of breath: **to** facts [tə'fæktz], **for** tents [fə'tents], **of** tests [əv'tests]. But if the preposition is at the end of a sentence or before an unstressed personal pronoun at the end of a sentence, it retains the full, though unstressed, form: Look **at** them ['lʌk æt ðəm].

The definite article is pronounced as [ðə] or [ði] - before words beginning with a vowel: **the** step [ðə'step], to **the** end [tə ði'end], the indefinite article **a(an)** is pronounced as a neutral sound [ə (ən)]: a plan [ə'plæn], an oak [ən'ouk].

If the first of two adjacent words has the final letter **r**, and the next one begins with a vowel, then when reading they are connected by the sound [r], which helps to pronounce the two vowels together: *for a plan* [fərə'plæn], *for a mile* [fərə'maɪl].

The conjunction **and** [ənd] is pronounced very briefly, without stress and merged, in the same breath, with the words that it connects: *a reader and a writer* [ə'ri:dərənd ə'raɪtə]. Examples prove that it is the cognitive structures in human

verbal thinking that cause phonetic economy in each act of speech of communicants.

Conclusion. Thus, the tendency to save language resources is due to the needs of human thinking and communication. The principle of language economy is reflected in the ability to express the diversity of the objective world in an economical way. Language is the main form that reflects our knowledge of the world, as well as the main means of storing, processing and transmitting knowledge. The most well-known cognitive categories borrowed from knowledge representation theory include the concepts of frame and scenario. Frames and prototypes are among the most well-known categories borrowed from knowledge representation theory.

In conclusion, we emphasize that the recognition by linguists of the fact of processing phonetic and phonological information using non-linguistic mental operations of cognitive computing, even more strongly dictates the need for further cognitive research in the field of phonetics and phonology of speech activity.

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3-ШЎБА: ГЛОБАЛЛАШУВ ДАВРИДА ҚИЁСИЙ ТИЛШУНОСЛИК ВА ТАРЖИМА МУАММОЛАРИ

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