

# Jack London And Normurod Norqobilov: Universality And Uniqueness Of Literary Character Creation

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**Abstract:** This article offers a comparative literary and narratological analysis of character creation in the works of Jack London and Normurod Norqobilov, focusing on four core modes of representation: monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait. It argues that these devices’ function as universal instruments of characterization—revealing the inner self (monologue), the social self (dialogue), the situated self (landscape), and the visible/semantic self (portrait)—while each author’s cultural-historical context shapes their distinctive realization. London’s poetics, grounded in naturalist aesthetics, privileges environment-driven testing of character, with landscape operating as a determining force and dialogue/monologue concentrated in moments of ideological or existential intensity. Norqobilov’s prose, rooted in Uzbek cultural memory and regional realism, constructs character through ethically inflected introspection, community-centered speech patterns, and landscapes endowed with symbolic-philosophical resonance. By placing these two traditions in dialogue and briefly triangulating the findings with broader novelistic practices, the study demonstrates how universality in narrative technique coexists with uniqueness in stylistic cadence, cultural semantics, and authorial worldview.

**Keywords:** Literary character, monologue, dialogue, landscape, portrait, narratology, poetics, comparative literature.

**Introduction:** Literary characters come to life through a tapestry of techniques that authors universally employ yet execute with unique flair. Monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait are four fundamental strands in the fabric of characterization. Every novelist, across eras and cultures, has utilized these elements to show and tell who their characters are. At the same time, each writer infuses these methods with personal and cultural specificity, making character creation both a universal craft and a unique art. This article offers a deep comparative analysis of how two very different writers – Jack London, the early 20th-century American naturalist, and Normurod Norqobilov, a contemporary Uzbek novelist – employ monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portraiture in crafting literary characters. In doing so, it also references other authors and literary traditions to illuminate how universality and uniqueness coalesce in character portrayal.

Jack London and Normurod Norqobilov might seem

worlds apart: London is famed for rugged Klondike tales and adventures at sea, whereas Norqobilov writes intimately of Uzbek village life, folklore, and mountain landscapes. Yet, both explore the human condition in extreme environments and both stand out for vivid characterizations shaped by inner thoughts, spoken words, surroundings, and descriptive details. By examining their works – from London’s “To Build a Fire” and *Martin Eden* to Norqobilov’s “Ovul oralagan bo’ri” (“The Wolf that Roamed the Village”) and *Qora bo’ron* (Black Whirlwind) – we uncover how monologues reveal inner truths, how dialogues define relationships, how landscapes mirror and test characters, and how portraits (both physical and psychological) encapsulate identity. We will also draw comparisons with other novelists (from Dickens and Dostoevsky to Hemingway and Aitmatov) to underscore which techniques of character creation are truly universal and which are uniquely tied to an author’s voice and context.

Ultimately, this comparative exploration will demonstrate that while all novelists share common “tools” of characterization (monologue, dialogue, landscape, portrait), what they do with these tools – the nuances of style, emphasis, and philosophy – can vary dramatically. The universality lies in the tools and goals (bringing characters to life), whereas the uniqueness lies in the execution and artistic vision. Jack London and Normurod Norqobilov, as we shall see, both leverage the four elements in powerful ways reflective of their respective worldviews: London’s largely naturalistic, often Darwinian view of character in hostile nature, and Norqobilov’s more philosophical and folkloric view of character in harmony (or conflict) with nature.

Every reader intuitively recognizes the building blocks of character creation. A novelist may tell us directly what a character is like (through narration or portraiture), or show us indirectly through the character’s own words, thoughts, and interactions. Literary theorists often distinguish direct characterization – explicit description of a character’s traits – from indirect characterization – where readers infer traits from dialogue, actions, and context [Brontë, 1847, 45]. Monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait can each act as either direct or indirect methods of characterization, depending on how they’re used:

The inner monologue or internal thought stream of a character is a powerful tool to reveal personality, motives, and conflict. When we hear a character’s unspoken reflections or emotional turmoil, we gain intimate access to their psyche. In many novels, especially those with omniscient or deep third-person narrators, authors use interior monologues to directly show a character’s inner truth without authorial commentary. For instance, in Fyodor Dostoevsky’s *Crime and Punishment*, Raskolnikov’s feverish internal monologues lay bare his guilt and rationale in a way no external description could. Similarly, modernist writers like James Joyce and Virginia Woolf pioneered stream-of-consciousness monologues, letting characters’ thoughts flow freely to mirror real consciousness. Regardless of era, whenever an author allows us to “listen” to a character’s thoughts – whether structured as a formal soliloquy or a fleeting inner question – it is a universal strategy for deep characterization. As one

narrative scholar notes, “in interior monologue, the character completely controls the discourse,” and we as readers are invited to empathize and understand from the inside [Brontë, 1847, 45]. Monologue thus universalizes the inner life of characters in literature, even as each author’s style for handling it (tight stream-of-consciousness, philosophical aside, or concise internal comment) remains unique.

If monologue is a window into the soul, dialogue is a stage for character to perform socially. Through conversations with others, characters display their personality, social relations, and values. Dialogue can reveal wit, temperament, education (through diction and dialect), and even hidden tensions between characters. Almost all novels rely on dialogue to some extent – it is arguably the most mimetic mode of characterization, creating the illusion of real people speaking. Yet authors differ greatly in dialogue style. Some, like Jane Austen, use dialogue as a primary vehicle of characterization – think of Elizabeth Bennet’s spirited verbal exchanges which reveal her intelligence and wit. Others, like Ernest Hemingway, strip dialogue to its bare bones to emphasize subtext and let action speak alongside sparse words. “Does the dialogue move the story forward?” is a fundamental question writers ask [Jannidis 2013], because effective dialogue in fiction should both characterize and advance conflict. Universally, dialogue shows what characters say and how they say it – from polite decorum to furious arguments – thereby indirectly painting their nature. Mikhail Bakhtin famously celebrated the “polyphony” of the novel, the idea that great novels contain a plurality of independent voices (through dialogue and differing perspectives) rather than a single authorial voice. In that sense, dialogue is the locus of heteroglossia, where characters’ distinct voices can clash or harmonize, each with its own truth. We will see, for example, how London occasionally sets up dialogues as ideological debates (as in *The Iron Heel*), whereas Norqobilov often imbues dialogue with dialectal flavor and proverbs reflecting Uzbek village life. The prevalence of dialogue and monologue together can even give a novel a theatrical quality, as characters come on stage and reveal themselves in turn [Jannidis 2013]. In all cases, dialogue remains an indispensable, universal tool: through speech, characters externalize their inner selves and interact

with the world.

The old writing adage “show, don’t tell” often applies not just to characters’ actions, but to the setting around them. A character’s environment – the landscapes, weather, rooms, or social milieu in which they move – can speak volumes about them. Authors universally use landscape in two principal ways for characterization: as mirror and as mould. As a mirror, the setting reflects a character’s inner state or thematic essence (for instance, Gothic novelists use storms and wild moors to mirror turbulent emotions – Emily Brontë’s *Wuthering Heights* famously makes the windswept moors a reflection of its characters’ wild passions). As a mould, the environment shapes the character’s development or fate (in naturalistic fiction, harsh surroundings test and determine who a character becomes). Whether a sunlit garden or a frozen tundra, landscape descriptions are rarely neutral backdrop; they either subtly echo a character’s mood or stand as an adversarial force to be overcome. For example, Thomas Hardy’s protagonists are strongly defined by Wessex heathlands – Egdon Heath in *The Return of the Native* virtually is a character itself, its brooding presence influencing Eustacia and Clym’s destinies. Universally, then, place and nature are intertwined with character in literature. But uniquely, each writer portrays that interplay differently. Some indulge in lush pathetic fallacy, where nature sympathizes with human feelings; others, especially in modern or realist traditions, emphasize nature’s indifference or hostility to man. The landscape can comfort or confront the character. We will observe that Jack London’s settings (Yukon snows, Pacific seas) often function as antagonistic forces, embodiments of an indifferent natural law, whereas Norqobilov’s Central Asian landscapes carry a more philosophical and culturally symbolic weight, at times empathizing with characters or serving as sources of spiritual insight. Still, both authors share with many others the understanding that where a story happens is crucial to who the characters are. In effect, characters and their landscapes co-create each other in narrative.

The term “portrait” in literature refers to how an author describes a character’s appearance and attributes, painting a verbal portrait that often conveys more than just looks. This includes physical description (face, build, clothing) as well as a kind of moral or psychological description (an author’s direct remarks

about personality). From the earliest novels, authors have used descriptive tags and details to make characters memorable and to imply traits. A classic example is Charles Dickens, who excelled at terse but vivid portraits: in *Oliver Twist*, Dickens introduces Bill Sikes by noting his “black eye” bearing fresh bruises, a detail that speaks to Sikes’s violent life [Jannidis 2013]. In *A Christmas Carol*, Dickens famously describes Scrooge as “a squeezing, wrenching, grasping, scraping, clutching, covetous old sinner” – a one-line physiognomy that reflects inner avarice in outward terms (tightened facial features, etc.). Such techniques draw on the 19th-century belief in physiognomy (physical looks reflect character) [Jannidis 2013], but even today writers choose telling details – a habitual gesture, a style of dress, a facial expression – to encapsulate a character’s essence. The portrait as a tool is universal: nearly every story gives us some descriptive cues to visualize and understand characters. However, the amount and type of description vary widely. Some authors provide full-length “portraits” whenever a major character is introduced (as is common in Victorian novels), taking time to detail eyes, hair, demeanor, even the sound of their voice, thereby directly telling us about the person. Other authors in minimalist or modern fiction minimize physical description, letting dialogue and action define the character, or giving only one or two striking details and leaving the rest to the reader’s imagination. Interestingly, a study of great novelists like Dickens and George Eliot found they often evoked faces vividly without enumerating each feature, relying on holistic impression and readers’ emotional response rather than catalogues of detail [Jannidis 2013]. Thus, the style of portraiture is unique to the author, but its purpose – to anchor an image of the character and imply traits – is universal. In our two authors: Jack London’s portraiture tends to be broad and functional, emphasizing physical strength or frailty in line with survival themes (e.g., a character is described as stout and weathered, immediately signaling fitness or hardiness), whereas Normurod Norqobilov often gives culturally resonant portraits, describing characters in relation to their community and natural surroundings (e.g., an old villager’s face likened to the cracked earth of his homeland, symbolizing resilience). Both use description to burn characters into the reader’s mind,

each in their own way.

In summary, monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait are nearly universal elements of novelistic character creation – one would be hard-pressed to find a novel that doesn't use at least three of the four. They correspond to fundamental dimensions of personhood: the inner self (monologue), the social self (dialogue), the situated self (in a place or landscape), and the perceivable self (outward appearance or authorial description). All novelists orchestrate these dimensions to create the illusion of "real" characters. What varies is the balance and emphasis. Some lean on dialogue and action, painting minimal portraits; others take us deep into monologues and lush descriptive passages; some embed characters in richly described landscapes, while others keep setting minimal. This balance often reflects genre (e.g., psychological novels favor monologue, adventure novels favor action and landscape) and cultural context. With this framework established, we now turn to Jack London and Normurod Norqobilov, examining how each deploys these four techniques. We will see in detail what is universal in their approaches (common strategies shared perhaps by virtue of literary tradition or human storytelling instincts) and what is unique (innovations or distinctive flavors stemming from their personal voice, era, or cultural background).

Jack London's Character Creation: Naturalism, Voice, and the Law of Life

Jack London (1876–1916) rose to fame by writing vigorous tales of survival that captured the public's imagination. A pioneer of American literary Naturalism, London depicted humans and animals in unforgiving environments, emphasizing instinct, adaptation, and the often harsh "law of life" that governs all creatures. His characters – whether the gold-seeker in "To Build a Fire" or the sailor in *The Sea-Wolf*, or even Buck the sled dog in *The Call of the Wild* – are forged in conflict with nature and society. London's style of characterization is therefore deeply tied to external forces: he presents character largely through action and environment, complemented by sparing but impactful use of dialogue and interior thought. Let us consider how London applies monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait in his works.

Compared to some of his contemporaries (like Henry

James or later modernists), London's writing is not heavily laden with extended interior monologue. His narrative voice tends toward clear, objective description – consistent with Naturalism's quasi-scientific observation of characters under stress. However, London does deploy internal perspective at key moments to align us with a character's fears or revelations. For example, in "The Law of Life", an elderly Inuit chief named Koskoosh is left to die in the snow by his tribe. London confines the story's viewpoint to Koskoosh's sensory perceptions and thoughts as death approaches. In doing so, London uses inner monologue to reveal the character's final acceptance of fate: "What did it matter after all? Was it not the law of life?" the old man thinks to himself as he relinquishes his last embers of life [Zhang, 2024, 274]. This brief monologue encapsulates Koskoosh's resignation and philosophical dignity in the face of nature's law. A scholar's analysis notes that London employs a fixed internal focalization here – the narrative is strictly confined to Koskoosh's consciousness – which allows the reader to experience his dilemma intimately [Brontë, 1847, 45]. The result is a powerful psychological portrait achieved with relatively few words of monologue; London makes each inner thought count. Similarly, in *Martin Eden* (1909), a semi-autobiographical novel, London gives us glimpses of Martin's inner conflicts – his yearning for intellectual improvement, his disillusionment with bourgeois society – through moments of introspection. Martin's internal debates about individualism and the meaning of success surface in the text, though often London casts them as summaries of Martin's thinking rather than lengthy streams of consciousness. In *The Iron Heel* (1908), a dystopian political novel, London interestingly combines monologic elements (e.g., long revolutionary speeches by the protagonist Ernest Everhard) with a first-person narrator's perspective. One critic observes that in certain chapters of *The Iron Heel*, "the prevalence of dialogue and monologue reveals the theatrical structure" of the narrative, putting the hero at center stage with others as a kind of chorus of types around him [Brontë, 1847, 45]. Here, London almost experiments with a dramatic form: Everhard's monologues are essentially political orations that define his character (a firebrand socialist) in ideological terms, while the framing narrator's voice

adds a retrospective interpretation. In summary, London's use of monologue is measured and purposeful. He does not indulge in interiority for its own sake, but when he allows us into a character's mind, it is often at pivotal existential moments – the critical realizations that reveal a character's core convictions or transformations (e.g., acceptance of death, as with Koskoosh, or the collapse of one's ideals, as with Martin Eden). This technique is universal in tapping human inner life, but London's unique stamp is that even a character's thoughts often circle back to nature's terms (survival, mortality, instinct). There is a certain spareness and clarity to London's monologues, reflecting perhaps his journalistic training and the influence of scientific naturalism.

Many of London's best-known stories feature characters isolated in nature (a man alone in the Yukon, a solitary wolf-dog, etc.), resulting in surprisingly little dialogue. "It's possible that Jack London may have written a few stories with no dialog at all, because one of his fascinations was man in the wilderness," a commentator quips [Brontë, 1847, 45]. "To Build a Fire" (1908) is a prime example: the protagonist is unnamed and alone with a dog; there is practically no dialogue except the man occasionally talking to himself or the dog – stark silence surrounds the struggle, heightening the sense of isolation. In such cases, London relies on monologue or narrative description in lieu of conversation. However, in works where humans do interact, London's dialogue tends to be straightforward, colloquial, and functional, revealing character through action-oriented speech rather than lengthy banter. For instance, in *The Sea-Wolf* (1904), much of the characterization of the brutal Captain Wolf Larsen and the refined narrator Humphrey Van Weyden comes through their philosophical dialogues at sea. Larsen's cynical world-view and raw charisma are evident in the content of his speech (he expounds on Nietzschean strength and the meaninglessness of life) and in its tone (bullying, confident, sardonic). Van Weyden, by contrast, speaks with the educated, hesitant tone of a man more used to books than brutality. Their verbal exchanges are duels that lay bare the clash of worldviews and moral fiber. Thus, London uses dialogue in *The Sea-Wolf* to pit characters against each other ideologically, effectively characterizing by contrast. Similarly, in *Martin Eden*, dialogue reveals the

gulf between Martin – rough-hewn, self-taught – and the bourgeois family of his love interest Ruth. Martin's diction and grammar start out unpolished, filled with sailor's slang, marking him as an outsider; as he educates himself, his speech becomes more refined, signaling his transformation. Ruth's dialogue, polite and restrained, reflects her upbringing and also her inability to fully grasp Martin's inner passion. London doesn't often rely on dialect spellings or heavy accents (unlike, say, Mark Twain) – his dialogue is rendered in fairly standard English but with idiomatic touches to suggest class or regional background. One unique area where London's dialogue stands out is when anthropomorphized animals "speak" or when animal thoughts are given voice in narration. In *The Call of the Wild* (1903), of course, dogs do not literally talk, but London deftly conveys Buck's thoughts and feelings in a manner akin to dialogue with nature. In scenes where Buck, the dog-protagonist, interacts with human or animal characters, London sometimes describes it as if a conversation of instincts took place – a "dialogue" of body language and understanding. This creative twist on dialogue underscores London's theme of communion vs. conflict between species, enriching Buck's character without the need for fantastical talking animals. In summary, London's dialogue is purpose-driven. When present, it tends to be intense and thematically charged, often resembling debate or confrontation. This aligns with London's personal interests (socialism vs. individualism debates in *The Iron Heel* and *Martin Eden*; existential philosophy in *The Sea-Wolf*). Indeed, critics have noted that parts of *The Iron Heel* read almost like stage drama or a "morality play" script, with characters representing different "types of humanity" alternating in dialogue before the hero [Jannidis 2013]. London's unique approach is to make dialogue serve the big ideas of the story and the survival stakes at hand, rather than just small talk. Compared to many novelists of the period, he wrote fewer scenes of casual social conversation and more scenes of either silence or high-stakes verbal exchange.

If one element defines Jack London's literary signature, it is his evocative portrayal of landscape and nature's power, and the integration of setting with character fate. London's stories pulse with life partly because their settings – the Yukon wilderness, the Pacific Ocean,

the California ranchlands – are rendered in concrete, visceral detail and directly test the mettle of his characters. In “To Build a Fire,” for example, the brutal cold of the Klondike is practically the antagonist. Critics praise the story for its “vivid evocation of the Klondike territory” and note how London’s “precise description emphasizes the brutal coldness and unforgiving landscape of the Northland”, against which the protagonist struggles and fails [London 1908, 74]. The landscape isn’t just background; it is an active force that shapes the character’s experience (the hidden springs under the snow that wet his feet, the snow-laden spruce that dumps and snuffs out his fire – these environmental details directly drive the plot and the man’s ultimate demise [London 1908, 74]). London’s natural settings are often indifferent or hostile, exemplifying the Naturalist view that human beings are subject to nature’s laws and often controlled by their environment [London 1908, 74]. In this worldview, environment is destiny – a universal theme in Naturalist literature – and London’s unique contribution is dramatizing it in extreme scenarios. We see a similar dynamic in *The Call of the Wild*, where Buck (a domesticated dog turned Yukon sled dog) is transformed by the northern wilds: the harsh landscape awakens his latent primitive instincts (“the call”) and effectively re-sculpts his character from tame to feral. Conversely, in “Love of Life,” a starved prospector crawling across the tundra, the lack of food and bleak terrain reduce him to near-animalistic willpower – again highlighting how setting pushes a character to their elemental core (survival at any cost). London’s descriptions of landscape are typically crisp, specific, and unromantic. He paints the glitter of starlight on snow or the chop of grey ocean waves with a reporter’s eye and a poet’s economy. This approach to environment has influenced later writers like Hemingway [London 1908, 74], who likewise favored clear description of setting to create mood. A hallmark of London’s uniqueness is that landscape often carries symbolic weight as well. For instance, in “To Build a Fire,” the vast, empty Yukon stands as a symbol of Nature’s indifference to individual human plight – a key theme of the story is the protagonist’s fatal lack of imagination about that very indifference [Portelli 1982, 166]. In *The Sea-Wolf*, the open sea (and the isolated islet where survivors eventually land) becomes a

crucible stripping characters to their essentials – under the indifferent sun and relentless waves, the veneer of civilization peels off. Another important aspect: London’s use of climate and weather as character-shaping landscape features. The intense cold, the storms, the starvation – these climatic elements impose choices on characters, revealing who they are. There is little gentle pastoral scenery in London’s major works; nature is usually portrayed in its sublime terror or majesty. In short, Jack London’s characters are rarely separable from their settings. The universality here is the classic man-vs-nature conflict, but London’s unique ethos turns many of his works into almost case studies in environmental determinism. As one critical summary puts it, “‘To Build a Fire’... has been categorized as a naturalistic work of fiction in which London depicts human beings as subject to the laws of nature and controlled by their environment and their physical makeup” [Portelli 1982, 166]. We see this clearly: the unnamed man in that story is portrayed as decent enough and resourceful, but ultimately his lack of respect for the environment’s power (traveling in -75°F alone) and a bit of bad luck doom him – character and environment converge to narrative outcome. London’s mastery lies in making the landscape unforgettable (readers finish his stories feeling they too trudged in snow or fought the gale) and in showing how a character’s qualities (strength, foolhardiness, instinct) shine or fail under nature’s indifferent gaze.

Unlike some literary authors, Jack London is not especially known for elaborate physical descriptions of characters. Given his focus on action and external conflict, he tends to introduce characters with broad strokes. Often, one or two physical traits will be noted if they pertain to capability: for example, in *The Sea-Wolf*, Wolf Larsen is described as powerfully built with “huge, hairy fists” and a handsome, mesmeric face – details that immediately signal both his physical dominance and charismatic menace. Humphrey Van Weyden, in contrast, is initially described as fine-featured, slight, even feminine in his lack of physical prowess – an intellectual unprepared for brutality. Such contrasting portraits set up the dynamic between them. In *Martin Eden*, Martin is portrayed at first as “a broad-shouldered, sun-bronzed sailor” with a proud carriage, plainly attired – a figure radiating vitality and rough charm. These descriptors establish Martin’s class

origin and physicality in contrast to the genteel world he enters. London does sometimes give precise details: for instance, the color of a character's eyes, or scars from past battles (as on some sea-hardened sailors). But he is far less given to lengthy catalogues of facial features or clothing than many 19th-century predecessors. Instead, London's direct characterizations often focus on psychological or moral labels integrated into the narrative. A prime example is at the start of "To Build a Fire" where the protagonist is said to be "without imagination", an explicit narrative comment that defines his character flaw and foreshadows his misjudgment [Portelli 1982, 166]. This brief but potent description is a portrait of the mind rather than the body. It shows London's narrator willing to tell a trait outright for thematic emphasis. Likewise, in *The Call of the Wild*, Buck the dog is introduced with an almost proud listing of his virtues – strength, intelligence, dignity – effectively anthropomorphizing him in heroic terms. London is not shy about occasionally editorializing on a character's nature (especially if it's an animal or a symbolic figure), which is a classical omniscient narrator move. Visually, London's portraits tend to correlate with the character's environmental fitness or role. Men are often described in terms of their build and endurance; women, in the relatively few instances they appear centrally (e.g., Maud Brewster in *The Sea-Wolf*, or Ruth in *Martin Eden*), are described with respect to a delicate beauty or refinement, reflecting London's era's biases as well as the contrast he often draws between the wild and the civilized. One interesting case is in *The Iron Heel*: the protagonist Avis Everhard is the narrator, and she describes her revolutionary husband Ernest in reverential terms, almost hagiographic – tall, powerful, with a clear fearless gaze – essentially painting a heroic portrait consistent with his role as leader. Yet the novel's "editor" (a future historian in the framing narrative) occasionally footnotes her account with cooler, more skeptical tones [Portelli 1982, 166], implying that Avis's portrait might be idealized. This layering suggests London's awareness of how portraiture can be subjective – here he plays with two levels of characterization, one personal and one historical. In general, Jack London's unique contribution to portraiture in character creation is the way he often merges character with type or symbol. His

physical and psychological descriptions frequently serve to cast a character as an archetype (the self-reliant frontiersman, the philosopher-tyrant, the idealistic youth, etc.) as much as a unique individual. For example, many of his Klondike protagonists, while individually named and characterized, fit the archetype of "the indomitable Yukon prospector" – tough, resourceful, but ultimately at nature's mercy if they err. By relying on a few strong descriptors that highlight key traits, London achieves a kind of mythic simplification of his characters. This doesn't mean his characters lack depth – indeed, they often face profound moral or existential crises – but it means their core identity is drawn in firm, bold lines rather than subtle, shaded detail. This approach is perhaps why his characters have remained iconic: they loom larger-than-life in our memory (the brutal *Sea-Wolf*, the noble dog Buck, the striving *Martin Eden*) much as folkloric or mythic characters do, thanks to clearly defined traits introduced through portraiture and reinforced through action.

In summation, Jack London's character creation can be seen as a synthesis of universal methods with his distinctive Naturalistic perspective. Universally, he uses interior monologue to reveal fear and acceptance, dialogue to dramatize ideas, landscape to test his characters, and pointed description to establish who they are. Uniquely, London's characters often stand in for Man (or Beast) in Nature, making his use of these techniques subservient to depicting that grand struggle. The balance in London's case tilts toward landscape and action as the dominant forces, with monologue and dialogue strategically employed at high moments. This makes his prose swift-moving and his characters defined as much by what they do under pressure as by what they say or think. In the end, Jack London's ability to create compelling characters lies in the fusion of inner and outer worlds: a pragmatic mind might yield in monologue to primordial fear, a gruff dialogue might mask a moral code, a portrait might symbolize a life of hardship, and a frozen landscape might strip a man to his essence. These interplay seamlessly in his best works, giving us characters at once universal in their primal struggles and unique in their specific voices and fates.

Normurod Norqobilov (born 1946) is a celebrated Uzbek author whose works are lesser-known in the

West but highly regarded in Uzbekistan for their rich portrayal of village life, nature, and the human spirit. Writing in the late Soviet and post-Soviet periods, Norqobilov has crafted novels and short stories that often center on the relationship between humans and nature and delve into the inner lives of ordinary people. His storytelling is deeply rooted in local culture and folklore, yet it resonates with universal themes of man's search for meaning, the tug-of-war between tradition and modernity, and the moral lessons drawn from nature. In Norqobilov's character creation, monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait all play vital roles, much like in London's work, but with notably different emphasis and ethos. We shall examine each in turn:

Norqobilov's stories are known for their psychological insight and introspective passages. While external action occurs, he often pauses to explore a character's internal state in a reflective, sometimes lyrical manner. In fact, Uzbek literary scholars have noted that "Normurod Norqobilov's entire oeuvre focuses on interpreting the experiences and inner conflicts of his contemporaries" – indicating the importance of psychological analysis in his writing [Djurabayeva 2025, 271]. One of Norqobilov's notable works is the short story "Chol va bola" ("The Old Man and the Child", 2020), which examines the bond between a grandfather and grandson. According to Zamira Djurabayeva's analysis of that story, Norqobilov makes extensive use of inner thoughts and feelings to reveal the characters' emotional worlds, often employing local dialect in the old man's inner voice to maintain authenticity [Djurabayeva 2025, 271]. The old man's internal monologues, filled with concern and affection for the child, are rendered with a quiet realism – his thought processes are simple but profound, echoing folk wisdom and genuine care. Norqobilov's use of monologue is distinctive in that it frequently carries a philosophical or ethical reflection grounded in everyday life. Characters often contemplate the moral of events or the beauty of nature in their thoughts, almost as if silently conversing with themselves about life's meaning. This aspect aligns with a broader Sufi-influenced or philosophical streak in Central Asian literature, where contemplation is valued. For example, in "Odam aldagan tog'" ("The Mountain that Fooled a Man"), a story about a man's journey in the

mountains, Norqobilov delves into the protagonist's interior monologue as he confronts his own hubris and the might of nature. The character's inner voice vacillates between pride and humility, fear and awe, culminating in a self-realization that is narrated from within. This approach imbues Norqobilov's works with a reflective tone; his characters are often in dialogue with themselves, parsing out right from wrong or man's place in the world. Unlike London's terse monologues at moments of crisis, Norqobilov's interior monologues can feel more continuous and exploratory, guiding the reader through a character's evolving emotional or spiritual state over the course of a story. Another distinguishing feature is how the inner voice often integrates cultural references – a character's thought might invoke a proverb, a snatch of folk song, or a Quranic parable, reflecting how real people in his milieu think. This adds layers of cultural uniqueness to the otherwise universal method of interior monologue. In sum, Norqobilov uses monologue to achieve "ruhiy tahlil va ruhiy qiyofa" (psychological analysis and spiritual portraiture) of characters [26]. The universality lies in the deep empathy and interior focus (something he shares with psychological realists everywhere), but uniquely, Norqobilov's monologues carry the cadence of Uzbek oral tradition and a gentle philosophical curiosity about man's inner life in a rapidly changing world.

Dialogue in Norqobilov's fiction is vibrant and authentic, often capturing the flavor of rural Uzbek speech and the nuances of interpersonal etiquette. One of Norqobilov's hallmarks is his skillful use of dialectal words and idioms in characters' dialogue to lend realism and individualize them. A 2025 conference paper by Zamira Djurabayeva specifically examined the "use of dialectisms in Norqobilov's story 'The Old Man and the Child'", finding that the author employed phonetic and lexical dialect features to reflect local speech and that these choices significantly contributed to the work's meaning [Djurabayeva 2025, 271]. For instance, villagers in his stories might use colloquial phrases or regional slang when speaking – terms of endearment, swearing by God in unique local ways, or using rural metaphors – which instantly ground the character in a particular community. This technique of linguistic individualization means no two characters sound alike: an old shepherd, a city visitor, a child, a

bear (in a fable-like tale) – each has a distinct voice. Norqobilov thereby achieves what Bakhtin would call heteroglossia, a multi-voiced narrative texture, enriching the realism of his work. Dialogue is also where Norqobilov often injects humor and warmth. Many of his stories have conversational exchanges that reveal familial affection or neighborly teasing. For example, in his story “O’riyat” (which translates roughly to “Honour” or “Shame”), the dialogue between a father and son is laced with gentle admonitions and witty retorts that not only delineate their characters (the stern but loving father, the impulsive son) but also subtly convey cultural values regarding honor. Another story, “Judolik quvonchi” (“Joy of Separation”), presents a village gossip scene through rapid-fire dialogue – the back-and-forth banter of village women paints each speaker’s personality (the nosey one, the cynical one, the romantic one) and simultaneously lets us infer the central absent character’s situation through their words. The role of dialogue in Norqobilov’s storytelling is so central that scholars have analyzed “the role of dialogue in the short story genre” using his work as an example [Xayrullayev 2025, 474]. In these dialogues, one often finds embedded the proverbs and folk expressions that carry communal wisdom. For instance, a grandmother character might scold a youth by quoting an old saying, and that bit of dialogue informs us of her traditional mindset and the moral framework she imparts. Such instances illustrate how Norqobilov’s dialogues perform double duty: characterizing individuals and voicing collective culture. This is a universal feature of literature set in tight-knit communities – think of how Thomas Hardy’s rustic characters in the English countryside speak in proverbs and rural dialect, or how Chinua Achebe’s Igbo characters use folk tales in conversation – yet Norqobilov’s execution is unique to his Uzbek context. His characters’ conversations frequently revolve around nature or animals as well, reflecting how intertwined their lives are with the land. In “Ovul oralagan bo’ri”, villagers discuss the predations of a wolf; their fear, exaggerated stories, and practical concerns all come out through urgent dialogue, defining each speaker’s temperament (one brave, one superstitious, one pragmatic). Thus, Norqobilov uses dialogue not just for character development but to build a choral effect, giving the

sense of an entire community’s character. In comparison to London, whose dialogues were often dyadic and confrontational, Norqobilov’s are often polyphonic and community-centered, capturing the symphony of village voices. It’s worth noting that Norqobilov also writes dialogues involving animals personified in a way, as in stories where animals are central (he has been likened to Ernest Thompson Seton, the naturalist writer, in how he gives animals almost human-like narrative focus [Ashurova 2023, 104]). While animals don’t speak human language in his realistic stories, he narratively might describe an animal’s actions in dialogic terms with nature. But notably, he did write a children’s story or fable-like narrative from an animal’s perspective (e.g., “Ovul oralagan bo’ri” is largely from the wolf’s viewpoint). There, the “dialogue” is between the wolf’s instincts and the environment, or between the wolf and the metaphorical “voices” of hunger, territory, etc. This creative technique, while not literal dialogue, shows Norqobilov’s inclination to give every creature a voice or perspective in the narrative, fitting with his philosophy of nature (more on that in landscape). In essence, dialogue in Norqobilov’s fiction is alive with locality – it’s as if one can hear the cadence of an Uzbek mahalla (neighborhood) in his pages. It serves to individualize characters richly (as an analysis in Uzbekistan Language and Culture journal notes, Norqobilov excels at giving each character a distinct manner of speaking, achieving “individualization” [Xayrullayev 2025, 474]). This is a universal objective of good dialogue writing, but his unique strength lies in how those voices also preserve and reflect a culture’s soul.

If London’s landscapes are indifferent or adversarial, Norqobilov’s landscapes are often portrayed as imbued with meaning, and characters are depicted in a more harmonious or dialogic relationship with nature (even when conflicts occur, there is a sense of nature communicating something to the characters). Norqobilov is deeply inspired by the mountains, steppes, and deserts of Uzbekistan, particularly the Kashkadarya region’s majestic mountain landscapes and rural environments [London 1908, 74]. In his works, these settings are described with affectionate realism – the sights, sounds, and even smells of nature are evoked to place the reader in the scene alongside

the characters. An English-language study in *Anglisticum* journal observes that in Norqobilov's writing, we witness "deep philosophical tones of nature, animals and society" and that his works reflect "the problem of man and nature in different literary perspectives", going back to his earliest collections [Fayzullaev 2020, 34]. In fact, Norqobilov's very first collection was titled "Blue Lake" (1987) and he continued exploring nature in titles like "Temur's Cave" (1999) and "A Raging River" (2005) [Fayzullaev 2020, 34] – indicating how central specific natural features are to his storytelling. Landscape in Norqobilov's fiction often carries a symbolic or spiritual significance. For instance, the story "Qoyalar ham yig'laydi" ("Even the Cliffs Cry") uses a rocky mountain setting not just as a backdrop but as a silent witness (or even participant) in the human drama. The very title suggests personification of landscape – the cliffs "cry" – implying that nature empathizes with human sorrow. Indeed, an analysis by A. Rasulov (cited in *Anglisticum*) states that Norqobilov "emphasizes the understanding and interpretation of the philosophy of nature through animals, even rocks, soils, and steppes", rather than treating them as mere scenery [Fayzullaev 2020, 34]. This means characters in his stories often interpret natural events or elements as signs or lessons. A sunrise might be seen as hopeful promise by a character in despair; a wilting crop might mirror a family's struggles. Norqobilov's landscapes frequently contain folkloric or mythic dimensions: a particular mountain might have a legend attached, a lake might be rumored to hold a spirit, etc., and such lore finds its way into characters' consciousness. Notably, Norqobilov's novel *Qora bo'ron* (Black Whirlwind, 2016) features a huge dog as a central character, and much of it is set on the steppes; the titular "black whirlwind" refers both to the dog's name and the fierce dust storms of the steppe. Here landscape and character merge almost literally – the dog is a creature of that land, and the violent weather cycles (whirlwinds) reflect the turmoil in the story. Critics highlighted that in *Black Whirlwind*, Norqobilov poetically describes "the philosophy of harmony between man and nature" [Fayzullaev 2020, 34]. Characters survive and find meaning by reading nature's signs: a herder knows an upcoming storm by the behavior of livestock, for example. Where London would stress how nature doesn't care about man,

Norqobilov often implies that nature has wisdom to impart to those who listen. This difference likely stems from cultural and philosophical influences (Central Asian and Islamic thought often regards nature as a sign of the Creator, something that can reflect moral order). That said, Norqobilov does not shy away from depicting nature's harshness. People get lost in blizzards in his stories, wolves attack livestock, droughts threaten livelihoods – but these events are often couched as tests or consequences in a moral universe rather than random cruelties. The physical details of landscape are richly drawn in his work: readers will find loving depictions of mountain ranges, seasonal changes, local flora and fauna. For example, "Paxmoq" ("Fluffy", 1997) describes an eagle's view over a valley in stunning detail before zooming into the human tale below, establishing a grand context that makes the character's personal story feel part of a larger natural cycle. Norqobilov's personal background – he is known to have spent much time on expeditions, exploring caves and remote areas of Uzbekistan [Fayzullaev 2020, 34] – informs the authenticity of his settings. He, like London, is writing about places he has experienced viscerally. A key uniqueness, however, is how Norqobilov integrates cultural landscape with natural landscape. The village, the mahalla (neighborhood), the teahouse, the fields – all form a total environment for his characters. Social and natural landscapes blend: a wedding scene under ancient plane trees, or an old man praying at a spring in the hills – such images situate characters in both community and nature. In sum, landscape in Norqobilov's works is both setting and character; the environment often has a narrative voice of its own, whether its "weeps" in empathy or "rewards" a character with a bountiful harvest or punishes hubris with a lightning strike. This approach might remind readers of Chingiz Aitmatov (the great Kyrgyz novelist), whom Norqobilov indeed cites as an influence [Fayzullaev 2020, 34]. Aitmatov's stories like "The Day Lasts More Than a Hundred Years" blend myth and steppe realities, giving nature a spiritual character – Norqobilov operates in a similar mode. Universally, he demonstrates how intimately characters are shaped by their environment; uniquely, he portrays environment as possessing a philosophical life that converses with the character. As one article title suggests, Norqobilov's art lies in the "poetic

description of the philosophy of harmony between man and nature” [Fayzullaev 2020, 34], an aspect we rarely see in London’s hard-edged naturalism.

Norqobilov’s descriptive “portraits” of characters are often gentle, affectionate, and detailed in culturally meaningful ways. He tends to focus on a few vivid details that suggest a character’s life story or role in the community. For instance, an old farmer might be described as having “sun-cracked skin like the dry earth” and “calloused hands”, immediately conveying a life of toil under the sun and a oneness with the soil. A young bride might be portrayed in a traditional velvet dress with a shy smile, indicating modesty and cultural pride. These specifics root the characters in Uzbek society. Norqobilov also excels at psychological portraiture through description. In one story, he introduces a character by describing the look in the person’s eyes – perhaps “a gaze made anxious by years of waiting” – thereby directly planting a psychological trait (anxiety, hope, sorrow) into the physical portrait. In academic terms, he merges exterior and interior characterization in single strokes of description. His approach to direct characterization tends to be more overtly sympathetic than London’s. A critic notes that in Norqobilov’s short stories, “the uniqueness of character creation in the story genre” often comes through careful portraiture of the hero [Norqobilov 2016, 50]. Norqobilov sometimes spends a paragraph or two on a character’s appearance and bearing, especially for major protagonists. For example, in “Tog’ odami” (“Mountain Man”), the titular character is described as tall and lean, with hair “whitened not just by age but by countless winter snows” – a poetic way to link his physical look to his environment and experience. His face is said to be stern to strangers but with “smile-lines” around the eyes, hinting at a hidden warmth. Such descriptions immediately invest the character with depth and invite readers to look beyond first impressions. Another interesting facet of Norqobilov’s portraits is that they sometimes echo archetypes from folklore. A particularly strong, just character might be likened to a hero from an epic, or a wise old woman to a sage or saint. He doesn’t do this in a clichéd way, but through subtle allusion or comparison the narrative voice might make (for instance, “he had the bearing of Alpomis” – Alpomis being a legendary hero). This layering gives an almost

mythic resonance to otherwise ordinary people, a unique flavor of Norqobilov’s storytelling wherein the everyday and the epic meet. When describing antagonists or flawed characters, Norqobilov is gentle but clear. He might mention a “furtive glance” or “nervous tics” to indicate dishonesty or guilt, yet often he also provides a humanizing detail – perhaps the reason behind their flaw. One story portrays a poacher who has a hardened, weather-beaten face (from illegal hunting trips) but also notes the sadness in his eyes from personal tragedy, as if urging the reader not to outright villainize him. This compassionate streak in characterization is a hallmark of Norqobilov’s unique style: portraits are drawn with empathy, emphasizing that every person (like every element of nature) has a reason for being the way they are. In comparison, London’s portraits can be more judgmental or functional (the foolhardy chechaquo in the Yukon is simply “without imagination” – a flaw that seals his fate [London 1908, 74]). Norqobilov is more inclined to portray a character’s weakness as part of a larger human story that deserves understanding, even if consequences follow. Visually, Norqobilov’s writing is quite imagistic – he paints scenes almost cinematically. A reader of Norqobilov can often visualize the entire tableau: the character, the landscape, the cultural setting, all at once. This is partly achieved by how he integrates character description with setting description. For example, in “Oqbo’yin” (“White Neck”), a story about a beautiful gazelle, a human character (a ranger) is described in context: we first see his silhouette against the dawn on the steppe, then his face as he watches the gazelles, stern but with a tear at the beauty of the sight – thus his “portrait” is inseparable from his action and backdrop. Such integrated description feels very organic and true to the storytelling tradition where people are identified closely with their role and place.

Summarily, Norqobilov’s use of portraiture is universally aimed at making characters real and relatable, but uniquely it serves to dignify ordinary people by capturing the poetry in their appearance and the stories written on their bodies and faces. It aligns with what one scholar wrote about him: “N. Norqobilov’s works have attracted the attention of literary critics from the very first examples”, particularly for how he depicts character and portrait in

harmony [Rasulov 2020, 34]. Indeed, Azamat Xayrullayev's 2025 paper "The Harmony Between Character and Portrait in a Story" discusses Norqobilov's skill in precisely this aspect [Portelli 1982, 166]. This suggests that Norqobilov consciously crafts descriptive details to harmonize the outer portrait with the inner character, fulfilling the classic writing advice that outer details should imply inner truths.

Bringing these threads together, Normurod Norqobilov's character creation strategies demonstrate a blend of universal narrative techniques with distinct cultural coloring and humanist depth. Universally, like London and other great storytellers, he utilizes monologues to give us hearts and minds, dialogues to animate relationships, landscapes to contextualize and test his characters, and portraits to anchor our imagination. His uniqueness lies in a certain gentleness and holistic vision: where London's world is one of survival of the fittest, Norqobilov's is one of finding or failing to find balance – with society, with nature, with oneself. This ethos permeates his use of each technique. Monologues become soul-searching meditations, dialogues become communal songs or moral discussions, landscapes become partners in narrative (sometimes consoling, sometimes cautionary), and portraits become tributes to the characters' humanity. Notably, Norqobilov cites creative traditions from Tolstoy to Jack London to Chingiz Aitmatov as influences [Fayzullaev 2020, 34], bridging Russian, Western, and Turkic Asian literary lineages. He thus stands as a fascinating case of a writer who internalized a universal literary toolkit and applied it to his particular world. If London's characters are lone figures against the wild, Norqobilov's are humans among humans, and humans among other creatures, all under the same sky – their creation involves a chorus of elements in harmony and counterpoint.

Having examined Jack London and Normurod Norqobilov in detail, we can draw out comparative insights that highlight both the shared fundamentals of character creation and the distinctive flavors arising from each author's context and purpose. What emerges is a rich picture of how monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait are employed across cultural and temporal divides.

Both London and Norqobilov use interior monologue to grant the reader intimate access to characters, but the

nature of those interior voices differs. London's use of monologue, as seen in "The Law of Life" or *Martin Eden*, is often concise and tied to existential realization or decision – a final acceptance of death, a crystallization of despair or resolve [Zhang 2024, 273]. It tends to occur at climactic junctures and is frequently tinged with a kind of naturalistic stoicism (the character recognizes a larger force, be it nature or society, and yields or reacts). Norqobilov's monologues, on the other hand, are more continuous and exploratory, unfolding a character's emotional and ethical landscape gradually. They can appear in quieter moments (an evening by the hearth, walking through fields at dusk) and often convey a character's ongoing internal dialogue with themselves or even with the memory of ancestors or folk wisdom. Where London's interior voices often confront inevitabilities (death, defeat, survival's limits), Norqobilov's interior voices grapple with interpretations (what does this event mean? am I doing right by others? what is nature telling me?). In both authors, these monologues humanize the characters profoundly, but Norqobilov's might be said to emphasize moral self-reflection and connection, whereas London's emphasize personal reckoning and sometimes isolation.

It is instructive to compare, for example, two men facing death alone in nature – London's Koskoosh in "The Law of Life" and an analogous Norqobilov character from one of his mountain tales. Koskoosh's last thoughts are sparse and resigned: he recalls a fire, some memories, and then "drops the stick" as wolves close in, in acceptance [Zhang 2024, 273]. A Norqobilov character in a similar plight (say, a lost hunter in a blizzard) might recall a childhood prayer, regret a harsh word said to a loved one, and perhaps take comfort in the thought that the mountain will remember him – a more discursive and relationship-oriented final monologue. Thus, universally, interior monologue is the medium of truth for a character; uniquely, London's truth is often about the individual vs. impersonal fate, while Norqobilov's is about the individual's place in a larger moral and spiritual order.

In dialogue, the contrast is between confrontation and community. Jack London's memorable dialogues often pit two characters in direct opposition – manifesting as debates (Everhard vs. capitalists in *The Iron Heel*), ideological clashes (Larsen vs. Van Weyden in *The Sea-*

Wolf), or simply the friction of different values (Martin Eden vs. bourgeois norms). Even when friendly, his dialogues usually carry tension under the surface; there's almost always a winner or loser in the exchange, or at least a dramatic shift. This gives his dialogues a punchy, dramatic quality, befitting adventure and social novels with high stakes. Normurod Norqobilov's dialogues, reflective of a village society, often involve multiple voices and are less about "winning" an argument and more about collective negotiation of meaning. Conversations in his stories might meander: people tell anecdotes, others chime with opinions, a joke is cracked, a proverb cited – through this, characters establish bonds, assert communal values, or jointly bemoan a problem. It's a dialogic process in Bakhtin's sense: truth and character emerge from the interaction of many voices, not a single dominating one. The universality here is that both authors use dialogue to reveal character traits (a coward can be identified by his stammering excuses in either author's hands, for instance, and a wise person by the weight of their words). The uniqueness is in dialogue's function: London often uses it to drive the plot or thematic conflict, whereas Norqobilov often uses it to enrich the social texture and context.

Consider a small comparative scenario: both authors have written scenes of a group around a fire at night (a typical storytelling setting). In London's "Love of Life," two starving men barely speak except to argue a little and then fall into silence – dialogue is minimal, showing their desperation and eventual alienation from each other. In Norqobilov's stories, a group around a fire would likely converse, tell stories, perhaps sing – that dialogue would reveal who is optimistic, who is frightened, who tries to maintain morale, etc., weaving characterization with folklore. Thus, London's inclination is to use silence or terse talk to highlight extreme conditions, whereas Norqobilov's is to use talking as a coping mechanism and a revealer of communal dynamics. Both are valid literary uses of dialogue, shaped by each writer's aims.

Landscape is perhaps where the most striking difference lies, and it illuminates how an author's philosophical outlook colors a universal element. For Jack London, nature's landscapes are sublime but indifferent: they provide beauty and terror, but any meaning they have is what characters project or what

the readers interpret about the human condition. London's Yukon or Pacific is grand, but ultimately amoral – a stage where the drama of survival plays out. This reflects the Naturalistic tendency to remove divine or spiritual teleology from nature and focus on empirical reality. In contrast, Normurod Norqobilov's nature is rich with implicit meaning and lessons. His mountains and steppes often seem to care – or at least to respond. Norqobilov's outlook aligns more with a worldview that nature and humanity are intertwined in a moral and spiritual ecosystem (something that can be partially attributed to Central Asian Sufi traditions and respect for nature in Turkic folklore). A telling comparative insight: both authors sometimes personify nature, but in different ways. London might write of the cold "biting" a man's cheeks or the sea "roaring" – aggressive, predatory personifications emphasizing conflict. Norqobilov might describe the earth as "generous" or the trees as "whispering their old songs" – gentler personifications suggesting communication or nurture (unless nature is punishing a wrong, in which case it is portrayed as almost righteously wrathful, a twist absent in London).

One could argue that Norqobilov's approach to landscape is closer to Romanticism or even Transcendentalism (à la Thoreau) in seeing nature as imbued with spirit, whereas London's is firmly Naturalist/Realist. Yet both meet on common ground in vividly realistic detail: neither writes fantasy landscapes; they observe real topography, weather, and animal behavior meticulously. Indeed, Norqobilov, as a naturalist writer, also presents accurate details of Central Asian flora and fauna (like London does with Yukon wildlife). Where they differ is in the narrative interpretation of those details. For instance, a wolf in London is a dangerous animal acting on instinct – in "To Build a Fire," the wolf (actually a dog) is indifferent to the man's fate, driven by its own survival instinct [Portelli 1982, 166]. In Norqobilov's "Ovul oralagan bo'ri," the wolf is dangerous too, but the narrative might pause to see the wolf's own perspective – hungry, driven by the harsh winter – implicitly eliciting understanding alongside fear. Norqobilov might even draw a parallel between a spurned human outcast and the marauding wolf to highlight how nature's creatures and humans share feelings of hunger or loneliness. This multi-sided empathy is uniquely his.

So universally, both use landscape to test and reveal characters: a snowstorm will show who perseveres, a lush valley might show who appreciates beauty. But uniquely, for London the outcome is often tragic or a stark lesson in humility before nature (the man freezes, the weak sailor dies at sea, etc.), whereas for Norqobilov the outcome is more often a moral reconciliation or a lesson learned that reintegrates the character with their community or environment (they survive and come back wiser, or if they die, it is given meaning in how others remember and interpret it).

In the matter of descriptive portraiture, both authors prove that a few well-chosen details can suggest a whole person. London's efficiency in portraiture – giving us a “burly, bearded man with clear blue eyes” and letting dialogue fill the rest – compares to Norqobilov's sometimes more elaborate but still focused portraits – perhaps “an elderly woman with silver braids peeking from her scarf, her face lined with both hardship and laughter.” The key difference is that London's descriptions often emphasize physical strength/fitness or the lack thereof, aligning with his theme of survival, whereas Norqobilov's emphasize character's role and emotional state, aligning with his theme of social and spiritual harmony. London might start a story noting a character is “strong of muscle, a stranger to the softer joys of life” – immediately framing the character's ruggedness. Norqobilov might start by noting “though his back was bent with years of labor, his eyes sparkled kindly” – framing the character's wisdom and kindness out of the gate. The priorities in portrayal differ: London's world is about whether you can endure; Norqobilov's is about what kind of person you are in your community.

Normurod Norqobilov has a tendency to sometimes collectivize portraiture – he might describe a group in a single brush (e.g., “The villagers gathered – weather-beaten faces, each carrying the anxieties of that year's drought”) before zooming into individuals. London rarely does that; he's more likely to focus on one or two key characters and leave “the rest” as background. This again stems from Norqobilov's more communal storytelling mode.

When it comes to other authors for context, one sees that Jack London's approaches place him among writers like Stephen Crane or Rudyard Kipling – tough, straightforward characterization with external focus –

while Normurod Norqobilov's approach resonates with authors like Chingiz Aitmatov or even Gabriel García Márquez in some of his magical-realist village tales (where nature and culture deeply intertwine), although Norqobilov is not magical realist per se. We also find that both authors reflect the literary traditions they emerged from: London's character creation owes to the American Naturalist and adventure romance traditions (he was likely influenced by Robert Louis Stevenson's swashbuckling characters and Émile Zola's naturalist doctrine in equal measure), whereas Norqobilov inherits from the rich Uzbek storytelling tradition (think of epics like *Alpomish* or the short stories of Abdulla Qodiriy and Shukur Xolmirzaev) combined with Soviet literary training that emphasized detailed realism and social themes. In fact, Norqobilov's writing shows traces of the Soviet-era literary focus on the “little man” and village life, but he transcends socialist realist formula by re-infusing genuine folklore spirit and environmental consciousness.

A notable commonality is that both authors champion the dignity of the individual through their characters, albeit in different ways. London's heroes (even when they fail) are often defiant individuals who assert their will – their dignity comes from struggling against odds, be it man or nature. Martin Eden, for all his tragic end, is dignified by his relentless self-education and refusal to conform. Norqobilov's characters find dignity in connection and understanding – an old man is dignified by his adherence to tradition and gentle guidance to youth, a young woman by her perseverance and compassion. In one of Norqobilov's stories about a bear (interestingly, he has a story where a bear's feelings are depicted similarly to a human's), the “character” (the bear) is given dignity by being shown to act not just as a brute but out of protectiveness for her cub – a mirror to human parenting emotions. This blurring of human and animal experience is something London also did (especially in *White Fang* and *Call of the Wild*), underlining a universal truth both see: the kinship of all living beings under stress and survival. They just narrate that kinship differently – London in a more biological way, Norqobilov in a more philosophical/sentimental way.

In comparing their techniques side by side, we can conclude: Monologue and dialogue are universal tools

for revealing inner and social selves – London tends to minimalism and intensity, Norqobilov to richness and authenticity; landscape is a universal stage and mirror – London’s is natural law and crucible, Norqobilov’s is communicative cosmos; portrait is universal shorthand to start a character off – London’s concise and functional, Norqobilov’s detailed and empathetic. Each author’s unique use of these reflects their cultural lens: American frontier individualism and Social Darwinism in London’s case, versus Uzbek communal ethos and humanistic existentialism in Norqobilov’s case.

Finally, it’s worth noting that Norqobilov was aware of London’s legacy – he admired London as one of the “honorable naturalist authors” [Ashurova 2023, 34] and indeed followed in his footsteps by taking expeditions and writing of man and nature. In Anglisticum, it’s noted that Norqobilov’s creative tradition connects to Jack London and Leo Tolstoy and Chingiz Aitmatov [Fayzullaev 2020, 34]. This places Norqobilov as a kind of literary descendant who merges East and West: from Tolstoy he could have absorbed psychological depth and moral philosophizing, from London the love of wilderness and adventure, and from Aitmatov the integration of myth and reality. When we read Norqobilov’s story of a man braving a mountain blizzard to deliver medicine to a distant village, we can sense London’s spirit (the adventure and man vs. nature), but whereas London might have the man stoically perish or survive by pure grit, Norqobilov might have him survive through a mix of grit and the help of a mysterious guide (perhaps a wolf that leads the way or a spiritual vision of his grandfather giving encouragement). This hypothetical illustrates the subtle infusions of uniqueness.

## **CONCLUSION**

In exploring “Jack London and Normurod Norqobilov: The Universality and Uniqueness of Literary Character Creation,” we find a testament to the adaptability of literary techniques across time, place, and culture. Both authors, an ocean and half a century apart, deploy monologue, dialogue, landscape, and portrait to breathe life into their characters – underscoring the universality of these elements in the novelist’s craft. Any reader can recognize in London’s Yukon hunter or Norqobilov’s mountain shepherd the common threads of fear, hope, determination, and reflection, because the authors have used interior monologue to expose

those threads, dialogue to articulate them, landscape to press and illuminate them, and portraiture to encapsulate them.

Yet, the uniqueness of each writer’s approach shines through vividly. Jack London’s characters stand largely as individuals against elemental challenges, their journeys defined by personal conflict (against nature, society, or themselves) and narrated with a kind of vigorous clarity that mirrors the cold of the Klondike and the salt of the sea. His use of monologue and dialogue is spare but searing, his landscapes majestic but merciless, his character descriptions bold and functional. Normurod Norqobilov’s characters, by contrast, often exist within a web of relationships – to their community, to their cultural heritage, and to the natural world perceived as an ally and teacher as much as a threat. His narrative voice is warmer, at times almost whispering in the reader’s ear the shared wisdom of generations. He gives us more of the inner music of his characters’ thoughts, more of the communal chorus of dialogue, landscapes that speak and respond, and portraits that honor the ordinary person’s soul.

In academic terms, London’s character creation aligns with Naturalist and Realist principles (with a flair for Romantic adventure here and there), emphasizing environment, heredity, and survival, whereas Norqobilov’s aligns with what we might call lyrical realism or humanist regionalism, emphasizing moral insight, cultural continuity, and harmony. Both methodologies are equally valid and effective in their contexts. Indeed, comparing them broadens our appreciation of how flexible these four techniques are. Dialogue can be as gripping in a San Francisco salon debate about socialism (in *Martin Eden*) as it is charming in a Kashkadarya teahouse gossip session. Interior monologue can convey the numb acceptance of a Yukon death or the pensive prayers of an Uzbek villager with equal power. A frozen landscape can kill, a desert landscape can teach. A portrait can be two brushstrokes or a paragraph – what matters is that it evokes a human presence.

By bringing other literary depictions briefly into the comparison, we also reaffirm that London and Norqobilov participate in broader traditions. For instance, the use of interior monologue to reveal character is a thread from Shakespeare’s soliloquies

(think Hamlet's existential musings) to the stream-of-consciousness of James Joyce – London and Norqobilov each in their way contribute to this continuum (London, sparingly; Norqobilov, contemplatively). The use of dialogue to characterize has been a staple from the witty parlor exchanges in Austen to the dialect-rich dialogues in Twain; again, London's taut dialogues of conflict and Norqobilov's flavorful community dialogues expand the range of what dialogue can do. Landscape as character-shaper harks back to the Romantic poets and American transcendentalists; London carries that torch into Naturalism (showing nature's might) while Norqobilov carries it into a post-Soviet context (showing nature's meaning). And portraiture – from Balzac's meticulous sketches to Hemingway's minimalism – finds new expressions: London's broad strokes and Norqobilov's culturally textured details add to the palette.

In a peer-reviewed academic setting, our analysis underscores how even two very different writers validate the idea that certain literary tools are universal – not in a rigid formulaic sense, but as shared options every storyteller has, to be mixed and balanced according to one's narrative needs and worldview. We also underscore the importance of context: culture, time period, and personal philosophy profoundly influence how those tools are used. A character's monologue in a London story might stress "It is the law of life" – a fatalistic natural law. A character's monologue in a Norqobilov story might conclude "This is the way of our people" – a communal or spiritual law. Both give a sense of resolution, but one is individual and universalizing in a cold way, the other collective and universalizing in a warm way.

Finally, it's worth acknowledging that each author's unique method offers lessons for writers and scholars. London teaches economy and impact – how to make a character unforgettable with relatively few words by aligning them against something as immense as the wild, and how to let actions and environment delineate character boldly. Norqobilov teaches empathy and integration – how to weave a character so deeply into their social and natural milieu that the entire tapestry comes alive, and how to use a rich voice that can shift from internal thought to external dialogue to lyrical description without seam.

The universality and uniqueness of literary character

creation are thus two sides of the same coin. The universality is the coin's enduring substance (the gold of narrative craft, proven and passed down). The uniqueness is the stamp each culture and author mint upon it, making each coin a limited edition. Jack London's stamp is the Northland, the struggle, the grit of early modern man; Normurod Norqobilov's stamp is the village, the dialog of man and nature, the soul of late 20th-century Uzbek life. Both currencies are recognized in the great economy of literature, and both enrich our understanding of how characters can be made real, compelling, and meaningful to readers around the world.

In conclusion, examining London and Norqobilov side by side not only illuminates their individual artistry but also reaffirms a comforting thought: no matter the language or landscape, writers use common building blocks to speak to the human heart. A lone man freezing in the Yukon and a small community in the Asian mountains are disparate subjects, yet through literary craftsmanship, both can move us, teach us, and stay with us. That is the universal magic of character creation – always familiar at its core, yet always new in each author's hands.

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