THE REPRESENTATION OF COGNIZING THE CATEGORY OF POSSESSIVENESS IN LINGUISTICS

Soatmurodov Ro'zimurod Baxtiyor o'g'li
O'zbekiston davlat jahon tillari universiteti
Magistratura bo'limi
70230101 - Lingvistika: ingliz tili

Abstract. Learning one language as a whole system, at the same time, comparing its structure with another language to the level of modern requirements have become the most important component of our life. There are no school and university grammars who are currently teaching Indo-European and Turkic languages, as well as no studies on the theory of parts of speech, in which the problem of pronouns is regarded from various perspectives.

Key words: modern linguistic, proto-language, scientific, verbs, grammatically, morphology.

Introduction The system of grammatical forms depicting the semantic as well as syntactic relations of nouns (or pronouns) is usually treated as the category of case, in other words, case is a grammatical form, which takes part in the formation of the paradigm of nouns or pronouns at the initial development of languages. As stated in the "Uzbek language grammar" (1973) that each word in the language is its (that is, the linguistic unit of that language) belongings. The theory of morphological and synthetic characteristics of the word is the basis of grammar. Linguistic and grammatical characteristics of the word, similarities are based on the separation of groups such as nouns, verbs, adjectives etc. The lexemes become grammatically formed by engaging with another lexeme in the speech, which is already composed in a certain shape (e.g. *he went to the park* or *I came from the park*) which means vocabularies, word patterns and collocations can be undoubtedly accepted as *words*. These occurrences refer to the relationship between grammatical construction and lexicology in a language. The objects of these two aspects are very close and dense.[70] Therefore, despite the fact that words are examined in lexicology or semantics, they are also related to grammar in

---

[70] Uzbek language grammar. (1973) Volume 1, Morphology, Uzbekistan SSR "FAN" Press, Tashkent: p-57

certain aspects considering the fact that word is generally a unit of the language.

And it triggers the idea that one can deduce that morphology can be importantly responsible for the creation of grammatical categories in each language such as category of case, category of gender, category of number and others when considering a perspective of a word from cognitive linguistics. The object of morphology is the grammatical side of the word: it examines the word from the point of view of the grammatical system of the language. Lexicology, on the other hand, examines the word from the point of view of the linguistic system of the language that is differentiating from which the morphological structure of the word accounts for morphemes, morphological categories, the system of word forms, ways and means to form them, linguistic and grammatical categories of morphological units. Therefore, the speculation on language universals or nonuniversals about the category of case has not always and everywhere been viewed as a fully respectable pastime for the scientific linguist.

Scholars who have striven to uncover language features of cases that are common to all of the world's languages might have generally addressed themselves to three intimately related but distinguishable orders of questions when comparing two or more languages: (a) What are the isomorphic and allomorphic features of case structure? (b) Is there a universal base, and, if so, what are its properties? (c) Are there any universally valid constraints on the ways in which deep structure representations of expressions or sentences are given in the surface structure as well denoted the same conveyance of language utterances?

So, this section of my dissertation will plead that the cognitive notion 'case' would favorably worth a site in the base component of the grammar of every language to express 'belonging' in particular. In the past, research on 'case' has amounted to an examination of the variety of semantic at the same time, syntactic relationships which can hold between nouns, pronouns and other parts of speech; it has been regarded as equivalent to the study of semantic functions of inflectional affixes on pronouns or the formal dependency relations which hold between lexical-grammatical properties and

specific nominal affixes of neighboring elements; or it has been reduced to a statement of the morphophonemic reflexes of a set of underlying 'cognitive relations' in human mind which themselves are conceived independently of the notion of 'case'.

Fillmore (1967) argues that valid insights on case relationships are missed in all these studies, and that what is needed is a conception of possessiveness in which case relationships are primitive terms of the theory.[71] Indeed, we should gaze into the matter of categories in both languages from the various perspectives from which the initial development of possessiveness could be observed thoroughly. Reimer (2010) asserts that one still has to understand the meanings of the many morphosyntactic categories to which grammatical principles apply, principally case and number for nouns, and tense, mood and aspect for verbs. In this section, the author will concentrate on the semantics of the verbal categories of tense and aspect. These are categories with interesting and complex semantics, which mostly show close relations with other grammatical properties of the clause.[72]

While explaining the general meaning of the category of number, its essence, in nouns, the linguists such as Aliyev A. & Nazarov K. (1992) highlight that it is the same in all languages. However, the expressive tools and applications of the word with the category of number have their own forms in each language. In the earliest times, this category meant very simple. And over time, it was gradually begun to be used in complex and abstract terms in the grammar of a certain language. This category could not only show the expressions of clear and abstract meanings, but also imply the meanings of singularity and unity.[73]

Pulatov, A., Q et al. (2003) states one of part of speech with the description of noun simply by embodying the fact that nouns express the notion of 'itemness' with the help of grammatically bound categories like meaning-form, possessiveness and number altogether and divided nouns into two respectively different types such as

[71] Fillmore, C J. (1967) The Case for Case. Universals in Linguistic Theory. E. Bach and R. Harms. New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston: p-23
[72] Riemer, N. (2010) Introducing semantics. Cambridge University Press, New York: p-326
[73] Aliyev, A & Nazarov, K. (1992) Reference manual of Uzbek language. Science Academy of the Republic of Uzbekistan. "NUR" Press: p-44

common and proper ones.[74] A grammatical category is a system opposed to each other grammatical forms with similar values. All the members of the identical grammar category contain the general grammatical meaning and they can highly differ in connotation. Grammatical categories are subdivided into syntactic and morphological ones. Among the morphological categories are distinguished, for example, the kind of grammatical categories, tense, mood, person, gender, number, case; consistent expression of these categories is characterized by the whole grammatical word classes (in our case, the parts of speech). The answer came in the late 1960s and early 1970s, with the emergence of cognitive science, a new discipline concentrating on the workings of the mind which at last offered a coherent framework into which the scattered evidence from philosophy, linguistics, anthropology and psychology could be brought together to build a unified picture of the way in which people perceive and categorize the world around them (Lakoff, 1987)[75].

From a general linguistic point of view, a variety of grammatical meanings are found in languages. But these grammatical meanings and their expressions are not common, universal for all languages. Each language has its own grammatical meanings and tools that represent them. They are not vaguely available from time to time, but they are combined into groups or subgroups, depending on the proximity of some types of meaning. In such groups, they're at least two or more than that. Such combinations are called as grammatical categories in literature on linguistics. So, the grammatical category — as regarded an integrated grammatical meaning that indicates which morphological type of language it belongs and finds its expression in the variation of words, in the connection of words in speech. The specific meanings that consist of general grammatical meaning make up being opposite, as well as it contradicts each other, however, at the same time it requires its presence. For instance, in Uzbek we have *uy – uylar*, *kitob – kitoblar*, *chiroq – chiroqlar* etc.

---

[74] Pulatov, A. Q., Muminova, T. P., Pulatova, I. O. (2003) Worldly Uzbek language. Volume 1, The Verb Forms in Uzbek and Their Correspondences in Russian and English, National University of Uzbekistan named after Mirzo Ulugbek Press: p-385

[75] Lakoff, G. (1987) Women, fire and dangerous things: what categories reveal about the mind. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, p-228

The words on the left are in the singular form in terms of number. By the help of this form, it differs from the words on the right: the words on the right have the plural element *-lar*. The grammatical meanings of the words on the left and right are opposite: singular and plural. But these contradictory meanings together form the category of number. At the same time, singular and plural meanings belonging to this category always require each other: we can distinguish the plural because languages have a singular meaning, and on the contrary, we distinguish the singular because languages have a plural meaning. If nouns were used only in the singular, there would never be any talk of the plural, and there would be no need for the concept of the singular. To make this point clear, antonyms can be given as an example: we distinguish evil because there is a concept of good; we distinguish width because of the concept of narrowness, black color because of the presence of white color, and so on.

Grammatical categories consist of a combination of grammatical meaning and grammatical forms. For example, the number category discussed above can be interpreted from this point of view as follows:

That means that the grammatical category of number has two meanings: a) singular and b) plural which can be explained by the fact: the singular is expressed by the morpheme ø, and the plural is expressed by the morpheme *-lar*. Here, the /ø/ is a zero morpheme. In the words of *uy*, *kitob*, *chiroq* above, they contain no affixes while utterance, but a certain meaning (unity) could still be loaded to the stems themselves.[76]

According to Buranov (1973) each word of a certain part of speech has its own morphological forms, these forms contain morphological paradigm and can be connected with certain grammatical categories. For example, a category of the number in English can be represented by the inflection *"-s"* and *"-ed"* of the verb can represent a category of tense and etc. Grammatical categories in different languages with a strong word formation, i.e. such members can be represented by the forms of the same word within its paradigm (for example, in the Uzbek language - tense, case, number of the verb, number, adjectives degrees of comparison, gender, inclination).

---

[76] Sodiqov, A., Abduazizov, A., Irisqulov, M. (1981) Introduction to linguistics. "O'qituvchi" Press, Tashkent: p-155

Word changing, i.e. such that the members cannot be represented forms of the same word. Besides, the distinguishment of grammatical categories can be followed as:

▪ connections and relationships extralinguistic reality (for example, the kind of time);

▪ revealed a syntactically (relational), i.e. pointing especially to the combinability of the forms as part of the phrase or sentence (for example, gender and case);

▪ non-syntactical detected (referential, nominative), i.e. expressed primarily different semantic abstraction, abstracted from properties.

Such grammatical category as for example, the number or the person can combine features of both these types. Therefore, one can deduce that the division of grammatical categories can fall into two - a) primary ones or macrocategories and b) secondary ones or microcategories (these two terms were suggested by Aristotle).

As primary grammatical categories we can outline that all parts of speech or lexico-grammatic groups of words. As it is known, the classification of parts of speech in compared languages can be identified according to the following features of lexemes:

▪ Lexical and grammatical meaning

▪ For certain word groups the process of generalization in morphologic forms

▪ According to the function of words in the sentences.[77]

Moreover, according to the structure grammatical forms can be subdivided into synthetic form and analytical form. The main difference between synthetic form and analytical form is that synthetic forms can be formed with the help of affixal grammatic morphemes (like morphemes of aspect, tense, mood, person, voice, perfect categories and number) while with the help of link verbs we can form analytic forms. In the following examples of comparison of secondary grammatical categories, grammatical meaning and grammatical forms can be identified. In English and Uzbek languages,

---

[77] Buranov, J., B. (1973) Comparative Grammar of English and Uzbek languages. "O'qituvchi" Press, Tashkent: p-100

plurality is the category of the noun, pronoun, and verb, which means a great number of something or someone. For example, *these books are interesting* (*Bu kitoblar qiziqarli*). All compared languages have some nouns, which can never be used in a plural form such as *love, friendship, hatred*. The verbs of compared languages aren't able to indicate the plurality because of having abstractness. Although, in English, there are nouns which form the plural by changing the root vowel. But in Uzbek there is no such a phenomenon. This feature can be considered as a distinctive feature of English plural form of the category of a plurality (*man-men*, *woman-women*, *foot-feet*, *ox-oxen* and etc.). Moreover, in English, there are also some nouns, which have only the plural form (spectacles, trousers, scissors), and they are not characterized in Uzbek. Thus, they can be considered as similarity in English and as distinctive feature in comparison with Uzbek.

Therefore, typology of grammatical categories of the languages can serve in identifying language universals and at the same time to clarify their distinctive peculiarities. These phenomena can be helpful in the deep understanding of any language and teach them as a foreign language as well as in translation processes too.

Erdal (2004) tries to outline the category of number, possessive suffixes as well as twelve case morphemes in Old Turkic case system by examining the language development in detail and providing the relevantly supporting examples of those languages in comparison. For example, about the category of number 'this is a binary category, with 'plural' as marked member: Plural entities are commonly marked with *-lar* but the absence of this element does not signify that the reference is to a singular entity. In the runiform inscriptions, nominal plurality was expressed only with humans, and that only occasionally. In the Orkhon and Imperial Uygur inscriptions, the Common Turkic *-lar* competes with the suffixes *-(u)t*, *-an* and sometimes with *-s*. The form *-(u)t* (which may have been borrowed together with the bases it is used with) appears e.g. in the *tarkat*, *säŋüt* and *tegit*, the plurals of the titles *tarkan*, *säŋün* and *tegin*.

Furthermore, the appearance of *-lar* was in general not a matter of economy but

of individuality, the height on the agentivity scale of the entity involved and, no less important, but of relevance. The distinguishment just does not make sense in this certain contextual situation. Uygur and Qarakhanid sources have the common Turkic marker *-lar* appearing with any entities and not just with humans, e.g. *üdlär* '*periods of time*', *täŋri mäŋiläri* '*divine pleasures*' or *yultuzlar* '*stars*'. Even there, however, the presence of *-lar* is indicative of a plurality of individual entities rather than a mass. Forms without *-lar* could sometimes be understood as plural when no number words were around even in the wider context. The verbal and pronominal domain are not ordinarily limited to the honorific use of plural forms. From time to time, this purpose can also be facilitated or served by a nominal plural form.

When it comes to possession, the scholars exemplify the 'possessive' suffixes, which come second in the morpheme chain:
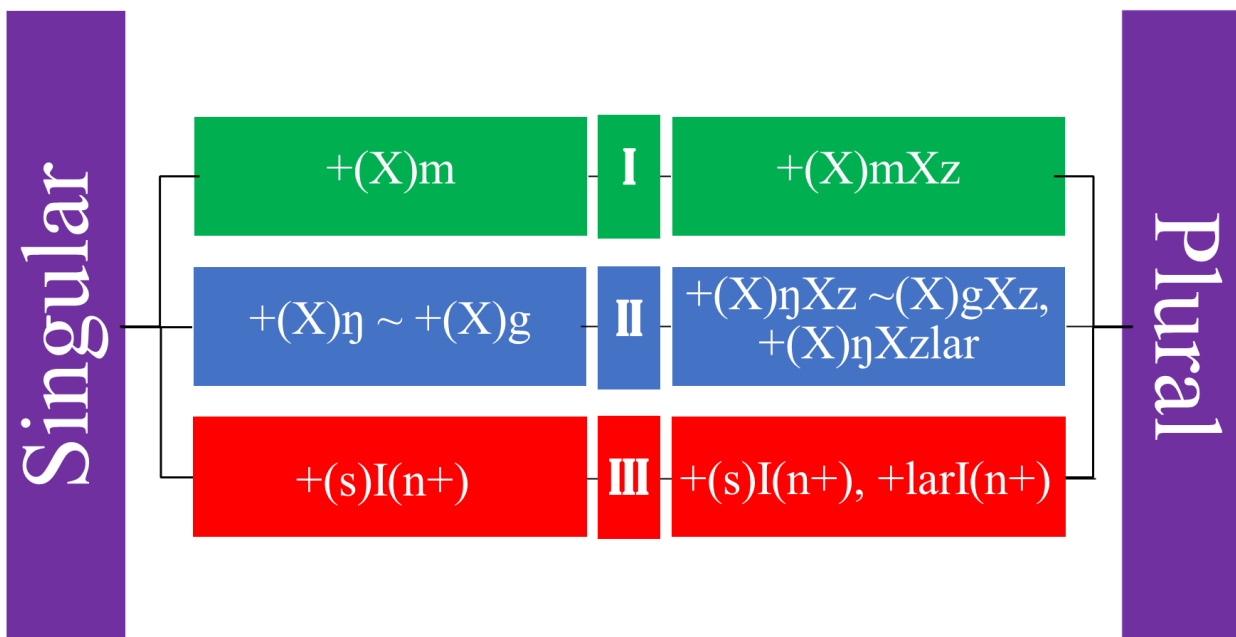

Figure 1. The morpheme chain of possession in Proto-Turkic languages (Erdal, M. 2004)

Most of the Turkic languages have a rare repetition of the possessive suffix in the common *bir+i+si* '*one of them*'; this may possibly have come about through analogy from *iki+si* '*both of them*', in case the stem *iki/äki* was felt to come (or really was) from **äk+i* meaning '*its supplement*'.

'Possessive' suffixes normally express either possession or general appurtenance

and assignment. For these functions, the proper meaning in the personal or demonstrative pronouns in the genitive is practically similar to that of possessive suffixes create. Added to adjectives, the 3rd person possessive suffix can refer to the bearer of the quality in question. The subject of the verb can be referred to the possessive morpheme with verbal nominals.

When case morphemes followed directly upon possessive morphemes, there was some fusion. There are three case paradigms, then: One for bare nominal stems and nominal stems ending with the plural suffix or +*lI*, a second, fused one for stems with a possessive suffix and a third one for pronouns and pronoun-like nominals. As a historical development within Old Turkic, more and more nominal domains were extending to pronoun declension, apparently because most nouns can not have the same speed of higher textual frequency as compared to a pronoun.

The case system of Old Turkic is therefore, a very rich one, even in those texts which lack one or two of its members. Nouns and adjectives do not differ all too much as to morphology but one might distinguish between them by use. 'Nouns' would presumably be used more as heads of noun phrases, 'adjectives' more as satellites; but instances such as *agïčï ulug+ï* '*the treasurer in chief*', where the rather general predicate *ulug* '*great*' is used as head are not rare at all. Attributive adjectives are not inflected for number, possession or case and show no agreement with their head. Other categories of nominal phrases are possession, number and case. The functioning of the first two of these is described together with their morphology, the expression modalities for possession has also been included.[78]

All case suffixes have a number of functions and it is often difficult to see a coherent whole in them; sometimes, as with the dative, these functions and meanings are practically each other's opposites. We will here deal with the functions case by case, not by their semantics. Old Turkic complex nominal phrases are practically always syntactical constructions with one nominal phrase as head and another one as

---

[78] Erdal, M. (2004) A grammar of Old Turkic. Volume 3 (Section 8, Handbook of Oriental studies. Central Asia ed. by Sinor, D. & Cosmo di., N) Leiden, Boston, Köln: Brill. p-368

satellite. There is a variety of complex nominal phrases; we here group them according to whether their satellite is possessive, descriptive, deictic or quantifying. Descriptive satellites specify the meaning of the head. The difference between deictic and possessive ones should become sufficiently clear when considering pronominal satellites: *ol* is deictic, its genitive *aniŋ* possessive. What is commonly termed as 'possession' is often expressed with both the possessive suffix on the head and the genitive of the satellite and here are some examples of pronominal examples *mäniŋ* ('*my army*'), *mäniŋ yutuzum* ('*my wife*') or *bizniŋ üzütümüz* ('*our souls*') etc.

The number of grammatical categories varies from language to language. For example, Russian nouns have three grammatical categories, Uzbek and English have three, and German has four. Although these are the same in terms of quantity in the three languages, they are different in terms of type:

Languages \ Categories	Number	Case	Gender	Possessive	Definiteness or Indefiniteness
English	+	+	-	-	+
Uzbek	+	+	-	+	-
Russian	+	+	-	-	+

Figure 2. Type of occurrence of grammar categories in three languages. (Sodiqov A. et. al, 1981)

Conclusion. In these three languages, the grammatical category of number and case is common, but the gender is unique to Russian, possessive is unique to Uzbek, and singularity and indefiniteness are unique to English. It should also be noted that if Uzbek language does not have the category of definiteness and indefiniteness, then it is wrong to come to the opinion that this meaning is not expressed in Uzbek language. Because in any language, any grammatical meaning can be expressed, but it may not have means of expression. A certain meaning can be defined or expressed by grammatical means in one language, lexical means in another language, and syntactic means in a third language.[79]

[79]Sodiqov, A., Abduazizov, A., Irisqulov, M. (1981) Introduction to linguistics. "O'qituvchi" Press, Tashkent: p-156

REFERENCES:

1. Uzbek language grammar. (1973) Volume 1, Morphology, Uzbekistan SSR "FAN" Press, Tashkent: p-57

2. Fillmore, C J. (1967) The Case for Case. Universals in Linguistic Theory. E. Bach and R. Harms. New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston: p-23

3. Riemer, N. (2010) Introducing semantics. Cambridge University Press, New York: p-326

4. Aliyev, A & Nazarov, K. (1992) Reference manual of Uzbek language. Science Academy of the Republic of Uzbekistan. "NUR" Press: p-44

5. Pulatov, A. Q., Muminova, T. P., Pulatova, I. O. (2003) Worldly Uzbek language. Volume 1, The Verb Forms in Uzbek and Their Correspondences in Russian and English, National University of Uzbekistan named after Mirzo Ulugbek Press: p-385

6. Lakoff, G. (1987) Women, fire and dangerous things: what categories reveal about the mind. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, p-228

7. Sodiqov, A., Abduazizov, A., Irisqulov, M. (1981) Introduction to linguistics. "O'qituvchi" Press, Tashkent: p-155

8. Buranov, J., B. (1973) Comparative Grammar of English and Uzbek languages. "O'qituvchi" Press, Tashkent: p-100

9. Erdal, M. (2004) A grammar of Old Turkic. Volume 3 (Section 8, Handbook of Oriental studies. Central Asia ed. by Sinor, D. & Cosmo di., N) Leiden, Boston, Köln: Brill. p-368

10. Sodiqov, A., Abduazizov, A., Irisqulov, M. (1981) Introduction to linguistics. "O'qituvchi" Press, Tashkent: p-156