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QUALIFICATION PAPER

on

GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF NOUNS
IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

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INTRODUCTION

One of the biggest groups of words in language is nouns; nearly half of vocabulary of the language consists of nouns. Nouns are considered as a part of speech by following characteristic features defined by the help 5 criteria.

1. Meaning
2. Form
3. Function
4. Distribution (combinability)
5. Stem building elements

Nouns are everywhere. We use thousands of nouns everyday. But can we analyze them independently in order to be able to construct correct phrases and sentences and in order to be able to speak and to be understood correctly.

The subject matter of the qualification paper deals with the actual problems of parts of speech in the English and Uzbek languages, which presents a certain interest both for the theoretical investigation and for the practical language use.

The object of the qualification paper is to define the concrete results of the research, get examples by the study of the means of nouns in the English language.

The actuality of the investigation is explained on one hand by the profound interest to the features of nouns and on the other hand their grammatical categories in non-related languages.

The aim of this qualification paper is to define the grammatical features of nouns in the English and Uzbek languages.

In accordance with this general aim the following particular tasks are put forward:

- to determine Morphology as a part of grammar;
- to analyse Noun as a notional part of speech;
- to analyse functional properties of the nouns in the English and Uzbek languages;
- to analyse the category of gender in English and Uzbek nouns;

- to analyse the category of number in English and Uzbek nouns;
- to analyse the category of case in English and Uzbek nouns.

The methods of investigation used in this qualification paper are as follows: structural, distributional and descriptive componential analysis.

The novelty of the qualification paper is defined by concrete results of the investigation. Special emphasis is laid on grammatical features of nouns in the English and Uzbek languages.

The materials of the qualification paper are: literature of different authors, Internet materials, dictionaries and of course the real speech of native and foreign speakers.

The theoretical importance of the qualification paper is determined by the necessity of detailed and comprehensive analysis of grammatical features of nouns in the English and Uzbek languages.

The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given qualification paper can serve as the material for the theoretical courses of lexicology, grammar, comparative typology, as well can be used for practical lessons in grammar.

The structure of the work - the present qualification paper consists of an introduction, 2 chapters, conclusion and bibliography.

Chapter I deals with basic notions of English grammar, grammar in the systemic conception of language, morphology as a part of grammar and noun as a notional part of speech.

Chapter II deals with comparative study of noun in the English and Uzbek languages, as well as functional properties of the nouns in the English and Uzbek languages and the grammatical categories of noun in the English and Uzbek languages.

Conclusion deals with the achieved results of a given qualification paper.

Bibliography deals with the alphabetical list of literatures used while carrying out the given qualification paper.

CHAPTER I. BASIC NOTIONS OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

1.1. GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

Language incorporates the three constituent parts ("sides"), each being inherent in it by virtue of its social nature. These parts are the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. Only the unity of these three elements forms a language; without any one of them there is no human language in the above sense.

The phonological system is the subfoundation of language; it determines the material (phonetical) appearance of its significative units. The lexical system is the whole set of naming means of language, that is, words and stable word-groups. The grammatical system is the whole set of regularities determining the combination of naming means in the formation of utterances as the embodiment of thinking process.

Each of the three constituent parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. These disciplines, presenting a series of approaches to their particular objects of analysis, give the corresponding "descriptions" of language consisting in ordered expositions of the constituent parts in question. Thus, the phonological description of language is effected by the science of phonology; the lexical description of language is effected by the science of lexicology; the grammatical description of language is effected by the science of grammar¹.

Any linguistic description may have a practical or theoretical purpose. A practical description is aimed at providing the student with a manual of practical mastery of the corresponding part of language (within the limits determined by various factors of educational destination and scientific possibilities). Since the

¹ Gleason H.A. Linguistics and English Grammar. N.Y.- Chicago, 1965.

practice of lingual intercourse, however, can only be realized by employing language as a unity of all its constituent parts, practical linguistic manuals more often than not comprise the three types of description presented in a complex. As for theoretical linguistic descriptions, they pursue analytical aims and therefore present the studied parts of language in relative isolation, so as to gain insights into their inner structure and expose the intrinsic mechanisms of their functioning. Hence, the aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyse and define its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances out of words in the process of speech making.

In earlier periods of the development of linguistic knowledge, grammatical scholars believed that the only purpose of grammar was to give strict rules of writing and speaking correctly. The rigid regulations for the correct ways of expression, for want of the profound understanding of the social nature of language, were often based on purely subjective and arbitrary judgments of individual grammar compilers. The result of this "prescriptive" approach was, that alongside of quite essential and useful information, non-existent "rules" were formulated that stood in sheer contradiction with the existing language usage, i.e. lingual reality. Traces of this arbitrary prescriptive approach to the grammatical teaching may easily be found even in to-date's school practice.

To refer to some of the numerous examples of this kind, let us consider the well-known rule of the English article stating that the noun which denotes an object "already known" by the listener should be used with the definite article.

The nature of grammar as a constituent part of language is better understood in the light of explicitly discriminating the two planes of language, namely, the plane of content and the plane of expression.

The plane of content comprises the purely semantic elements contained in language, while the plane of expression comprises the material (formal) units of language taken by themselves, apart from the meanings rendered by them. The two

planes are inseparably connected, so that no meaning can be realised without some material means of expression. Grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (or, in somewhat more familiar terms, a unity of form and meaning). In this the grammatical elements are similar to the lingual lexical elements, though the quality of grammatical meanings, as we have stated above, is different in principle from the quality of lexical meanings.

On the other hand, the correspondence between the planes of content and expression is very complex, and it is peculiar to each language. This complexity is clearly illustrated by the phenomena of polysemy, homonymy, and synonymy.

In cases of polysemy and homonymy, two or more units of the plane of content correspond to one unit of the plane of expression. For instance, the verbal form of the present indefinite (one unit in the plane of expression) polysemantically renders the grammatical meanings of habitual action, action at the present moment, action taken as a general truth (several units in the plane of content). The morphemic material element *-s/-es* (in pronunciation [-s, -z, -iz]), i.e. one unit in the plane of expression (in so far as the functional semantics of the elements is common to all of them indiscriminately), homonymically renders the grammatical meanings of the third person singular of the verbal present tense, the plural of the noun, the possessive form of the noun, i.e. several units of the plane of content¹.

In cases of synonymy, conversely, two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content. For instance, the forms of the verbal future indefinite, future continuous, and present continuous (several units in the plane of expression) can in certain contexts synonymically render the meaning of a future action (one unit in the plane of content).

Taking into consideration the discrimination between the two planes, we may say that the purpose of grammar as a linguistic discipline is, in the long run, to disclose and formulate the regularities of the correspondence between the plane of

¹ Ganshina M.A. English Grammar. M.: 1964

content and the plane of expression in the formation of utterances out of the stocks of words as part of the process of speech production.

Modern linguistics lays a special stress on the systemic character of language and all its constituent parts. It accentuates the idea that language is a system of signs (meaningful units) which are closely interconnected and interdependent. Units of immediate interdependences (such as classes and subclasses of words, various subtypes of syntactic constructions, etc.) form different microsystems (subsystems) within the framework of the global macro system (supersystem) of the whole of language¹.

Each system is a structured set of elements related to one another by a common function. The common function of all the lingual signs is to give expression to human thoughts.

The systemic nature of grammar is probably more evident than that of any other sphere of language, since grammar is responsible for the very organization of the informative content of utterances. Due to this fact, even the earliest grammatical treatises, within the cognitive limits of their times, disclosed some systemic features of the described material. But the scientifically sustained and consistent principles of systemic approach to language and its grammar were essentially developed in the linguistics of the twentieth century, namely, after the publication of the works by the Russian scholar Beaudoin de Courtenay and the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure. These two great men demonstrated the difference between lingual synchrony (coexistence of lingual elements) and diachrony (different time-periods in the development of lingual elements, as well as language as a whole) and defined language as a synchronic system of meaningful elements at any stage of its historical evolution. On the basis of discriminating synchrony and diachrony, the difference between language proper and speech proper can be strictly defined, which is of crucial importance for the identification of the object of linguistic science.

¹ Бархударов Л.С., Штелинг Д.А. Грамматика английского языка. М., 1965, 189с.

Language in the narrow sense of the word is a system of means of expression, while speech in the same narrow sense should be understood as the manifestation of the system of language in the process of intercourse.

The system of language includes, on the one hand, the body of material units - sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups; on the other hand, the regularities or "rules" of the use of these units. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterances, and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text. Language and speech are inseparable, they form together an organic unity. As for grammar (the grammatical system), being an integral part of the lingual macrosystem it dynamically connects language with speech, because it categorially determines the lingual process of utterance production.

Thus, we have the broad philosophical concept of language which is analysed by linguistics into two different aspects — the system of signs (language proper) and the use of signs (speech proper). The generalizing term "language" is also preserved in linguistics, showing the unity of these two aspects [Блох, 16].

The sign (meaningful unit) in the system of language has only a potential meaning. In speech, the potential meaning of the lingual sign is "actualized", i.e. made situationally significant as part of the grammatically organized text.

Lingual units stand to one another in two fundamental types of relations: *syntagmatic* and *paradigmatic*.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a segmental sequence (string). *E.g.*: The spaceship was launched without the help of a booster rocket. In this sentence syntagmatically connected are the words and word-groups "the spaceship", "was launched", "the spaceship was launched", "was launched without the help", "the help of a rocket", "a booster rocket". Morphemes within the words are also connected syntagmatically. *E.g.*: space/ship; launch/ed; with/out; boost/er. Phonemes are connected syntagmatically within morphemes and words, as well as at various juncture points (*cf.* the processes of assimilation and dissimilation).

The combination of two words or word-groups one of which is modified by the other forms a unit which is referred to as a syntactic "syntagma". There are four main types of notional syntagmas: *predicative* (the combination of a subject and a predicate), *objective* (the combination of a verb and its object), *attributive* (the combination of a noun and its attribute), *adverbial* (the combination of a modified notional word, such as a verb, adjective, or adverb, with its adverbial modifier).

Since syntagmatic relations are actually observed in utterances, they are described by the Latin formula as relations "in praesentia" ("in the presence").

The other type of relations, opposed to syntagmatic and called "*paradigmatic*", are such as exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. These intra-systemic relations and dependencies find their expression in the fact that each lingual unit is included in a set or series of connections based on different formal and functional properties.

In the sphere of phonology such series are built up by the correlations of phonemes on the basis of vocality or conso-nantism, voicedness or devoicedness, the factor of nazaliza-tion, the factor of length, etc. In the sphere of the vocabulary these series are founded on the correlations of synonymy and antonymy, on various topical connections, on different word-building dependencies. In the domain of grammar series of related forms realize grammatical numbers and cases, persons and tenses, gradations of modalities, sets of sentence-patterns of various functional destination, etc¹.

Unlike syntagmatic relations, paradigmatic relations cannot be directly observed in utterances, that is why they are referred to as relations "in absentia" ("in the absence").

Paradigmatic relations coexist with syntagmatic relations in such a way that some sort of syntagmatic connection is necessary for the realization of any paradigmatic series. This is especially evident in a classical grammatical

¹ Ganshina M.A. English Grammar. M.: 1964

paradigm which presents a productive series of forms each consisting of a syntagmatic connection of two elements: one common for the whole of the series (stem), the other specific for every individual form in the series (grammatical feature — inflexion, suffix, auxiliary word). Grammatical paradigms express various grammatical categories¹.

The minimal paradigm consists of two form-stages. This kind of paradigm we see, for instance, in the expression of the category of number: *boy* — *boys*. A more complex paradigm can be divided into component paradigmatic series, i.e. into the corresponding sub-paradigms (*cf.* numerous paradigmatic series constituting the system of the finite verb). In other words, with paradigms, the same as with any other systemically organized material, macro- and micro-series are to be discriminated.

Units of language are divided into *segmental* and *supra-segmental*. Segmental units consist of phonemes, they form phonemic strings of various status (syllables, morphemes, words, etc.). Supra-segmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized together with segmental units and express different modificational meanings (functions) which are reflected on the strings of segmental units. To the supra-segmental units belong intonations (intonation contours), accents, pauses, patterns of word-order.

The segmental units of language form a hierarchy of levels. This hierarchy is of a kind that units of any higher level are analysable into (i.e. are formed of) units of the immediately lower level. Thus, morphemes are decomposed into phonemes, words are decomposed into morphemes, phrases are decomposed into words, etc.

But this hierarchical relation is by no means reduced to the mechanical composition of larger units from smaller ones; units of each level are characterized by their own, specific functional features which provide for the very recognition of the corresponding levels of language.

¹ Swan, M. (1980). *Practical English Usage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

The lowest level of lingual segments is *phonemic*: it is formed by phonemes as the material elements of the higher-level segments. The phoneme has no meaning, its function is purely differential: it differentiates morphemes and words as material bodies. Since the phoneme has no meaning, it is not a sign.

Phonemes are combined into syllables. The syllable, a rhythmic segmental group of phonemes, is not a sign, either; it has a purely formal significance. Due to this fact, it could hardly stand to reason to recognize in language a separate syllabic level; rather, the syllables should be considered in the light of the intra-level combinability properties of phonemes.

Phonemes are represented by letters in writing. Since the letter has a representative status, it is a sign, though different in principle from the level-forming signs of language.

Units of all the higher levels of language are meaningful; they may be called "signemes" as opposed to phonemes (and letters as phoneme-representatives). The level located above the phonemic one is the *morphemic* level. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word. It is built up by phonemes, so that the shortest morphemes include only one phoneme. *E.g.*: ros-y [-1]; a-fire [ə-]; come-s [-z].

The morpheme expresses abstract, "significative" meanings which are used as constituents for the formation of more concrete, "nominative" meanings of words.

The third level in the segmental lingual hierarchy is the level of words, or *lexemic* level.

The word, as different from the morpheme, is a directly naming (nominative) unit of language: it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of one explicit morpheme only. *Ex.*: *man*; *will*; *but*; *I*; etc.

The next higher level is the level of phrases (word-groups), or *phrasemic* level. To level-forming phrase types belong combinations of two or more notional

words. These combinations, like separate words, have a nominative function, but they represent the referent of nomination as a complicated phenomenon, be it a concrete thing, an action, a quality, or a whole situation. *Ex.*, respectively: a picturesque village; to start with a jerk; extremely difficult; the unexpected arrival of the chief.

This kind of nomination can be called "polynomination", as different from "mononomination" effected by separate words.

Notional phrases may be of a stable type and of a free type. The stable phrases (phraseological units) form the phraseological part of the lexicon, and are studied by the phraseological division of lexicology. Free phrases are built up in the process of speech on the existing productive models, and are studied in the lower division of syntax. The grammatical description of phrases is sometimes called "smaller syntax", in distinction to "larger syntax" studying the sentence and its textual connections¹.

Above the phrasemic level lies the level of sentences, or "*proposemic*" level. The peculiar character of the sentence ("proposeme") as a signemic unit of language consists in the fact that, naming a certain situation, or situational event, it expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. Namely, it shows whether this event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as a truth or asked about, etc. In "'is sense, as different from the word and the phrase, the sentence is a predicative unit. *Ex.*: to receive — to receive a letter - Early in June I received a letter from Peter Me], rose.

The sentence is produced by the speaker in the process of speech as a concrete, situationally bound utterance. At the same time it enters the system of language by its syntactic pattern which, as all the other lingual unit-types, has both syntagmatic and paradigmatic characteristics.

But the sentence is not the highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels. Above the proposemic level there is still another one, namely, the level of sentence-

¹ Huddleston, R. (1984). *Introduction to the Grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 412 pp.

groups, "supra-sentential constructions". For the sake of unified terminology, this level can be called "*supra-proposemic*".

The supra-sentential construction is a combination of separate sentences forming a textual unity. Such combinations are subject to regular lingual patterning making them into syntactic elements. The syntactic process by which sentences are connected into textual unities is analysed under the heading of "cumulation". Cumulation, the same as formation of composite sentences, can be both syndetic and asyndetic. *Ex.:*

He went on with his interrupted breakfast. Lisette die not speak and there was silence between them. *But* his appetite satisfied, his mood changed; he began to feel sorry for himself rather than angry with her, and with a strange ignorance of woman's heart he thought to arouse Lisette's remorse j by exhibiting himself as an object of pity (S. Maugham).

In the typed text, the supra-sentential construction commonly coincides with the paragraph (as in the example above). However, unlike the paragraph, this type of lingual signeme is realized not only in a written text, but also in all the varieties of oral speech, since separate sentences, as! a rule, are included in a discourse not singly, but in combinations, revealing the corresponding connections of thoughts! in communicative progress.

We have surveyed six levels of language, each identified] by its own functional type of segmental units. If now we! carefully observe the functional status of the level-forming] segments, we can distinguish between them more self-sufficient and less self-sufficient types, the latter being defined) only in relation to the functions of other level units. Indeed,; the phonemic, lexemic and proposemic levels are most strictly and exhaustively identified from the functional point of view the function of the phoneme is differential, the function of the word is nominative, the function of the sentence is predicative. As different from these, morphemes are identified only as significative components of words, phrases present polynominative combinations of words, and supra-sentential constructions mark

the transition from the sentence to the text¹.

Furthermore, bearing in mind that the phonemic level forms the subfoundation of language, i.e. the non-meaningful matter of meaningful expressive means, the two notions of grammatical description shall be pointed out as central even within the framework of the structural hierarchy of language: these are, first, the notion of the word and, second, the notion of the sentence. The first is analysed by morphology, which is the grammatical teaching of the word; the second is analysed by syntax, which is the grammatical teaching of the sentence.

1.2. MORPHOLOGY AS A PART OF GRAMMAR

Morphology is one of the parts of the Grammar. Morphology is the study of word structure; it deals with word forms; distinguishes the words as the parts of speech; defines their individual features, explains the grammatical forms of words and grammatical categories.

The main unit of morphology is considered “the morpheme”. The term “morpheme” was firstly introduced by a prominent polish linguist Boduan de Courtenay. By morpheme he understood the smallest indivisible element of language. It means that morpheme is the smallest meaningful part of a word.

Grammarians mention that one should distinguish two plans:

1. The content plan.
2. The expression plan.

First of all we should learn the content of the morpheme, then the corresponding forms of this content.

Every linguistic unit should be discussed from these two points.

By “morphemic structure” one should understand the division of the word into grammatical parts. Morphemic analysis is also the operation in which one divides the speech into the smallest meaningful units. First result of such a cut is

¹ Quirk, R., *Grammar of Contemporary English*. London: Longman, 1972. 185 p.

called a morph. Two or more morphs united into one morpheme if they have identical similar meaning. So, annalist by the help of morphemic analysis divides the sentence of the words into smallest meaningful forms of grammatical parts: the word “worker” is divided into two parts:

Worker= work + er

The meaning of the first part is that which forms a new word.

The classification of morphemes. Words are made of morphemes. Morphemes can be classified from the point of view of their function and number correlation between form and meaning.

I. From functional point of view morphemes are classified into:

1. Lexical
2. Grammatical
3. Lexico-grammatical

By lexical morphemes grammarians understand morphemes that have full lexical meaning of their own which are associated with some objects, action, quantity, quality of reality.

Example: a book; yellow; water; an apple-tree.

The lexical morpheme is the root of the word.

By grammatical morphemes we understand morphemes which do not have lexical meaning of their own but have structural function in language.

Example: In the words “invites”, “will invite”, “invited” – “-s”, “will”, “-d” have structural meaning, i.e. they mean the present, the future, the past meanings. These meanings are called grammatical¹.

In the word forms “wanted, spoken, walked” we have one grammatical meaning: past tense, though they are different words. In the examples “boy’s – girl’s – cat’s”, there is also one grammatical meaning: possessive. Or in the word forms as “toys, trees, cars” we have different objects of reality but there is one common element in them, it is the grammatical meaning of plurality.

¹ Ganshina M.A. English Grammar. M.: 1964

The grammatical morphemes can be of two subtypes:

1. Unbound (free)
2. Bound

Shall, will, a, the . . . – these are unbound grammatical morphemes because they are not added to any word or words. They are used independently in sentences. While –(e)s, -(e)s, -‘s, -(e)d, -(e)d, -er, -est, -ing, -ing – are bound grammatical morphemes, because they are usually added to some words and never used independently. Grammatically bound morphemes are attached to lexical morphemes to express new grammatical form or morphological categories.

Example: I shall go there at 9.30.

Here, “shall” is unbound grammatical morpheme.

He reads newspapers every morning. In this sentence –s is grammatically bound morpheme. First –s is gr has structural meaning of the present tense and second –s – plurality (nouns).

Lexico-grammatical morphemes are bound morphemes that are used to change lexical meaning of words or used to build new words. In this case they resemble the grammatical inflexions:

Home+less=homelsss

King+dom=kingdom

In the example: «founders” we can see all three types of morphemes: found + er + s – “found” is a lexical morpheme, because by its help we build new word, and “-s” is a grammatically bound morpheme, it has not lexical meaning, but has structural function, plurality.

II. From the point of number corralation between form and meaning morphemes can be

1. Empty
2. Zero
3. Discontinuous

Empty morphemes. These morphemes have form but no meaning.

Example: sale-s – man.

-s is an empty morpheme. It has form but no meaning.

Zero morpheme have meaning but no form.

These morphemes can be revealed by the help of comparison of word.

Example: bed□ – beds

□ – it is zero morpheme, i.e. it has no form but it means singularity.

Ask□ – asked here, zero morpheme means present tense.

Discontinuous morphemes consist of two or more morphemes, but express one meaning. In other words discontinuous morphemes are those morphemes which have at least two forms but one meaning.

Example: She is reading newspaper.

He has helped us a lot.

In these examples the discontinuous morphemes in the first sentence express continuous action; in the second sentence it expresses a perfect action.

One of the main functions of morphology is also distinguish the words as the parts of speech.

The problem of parts of speech. Early in ancient times people paid attention to the features of words which were used in their talk. They functioned differently in speech:

- One group of words named objects and persons.
- Actions made by person, animal.etc
- Modified (article – modifier of noun)
- Quality and property of things
- Indicate persons and objects

These observations gave the ancient philosophers the base to define words in to definite groups.

A Dutch linguist OTTO Esperson in his “Philosophy of Grammar” writes that it is customary to begin teaching grammar by dividing words into several classes, generally called “parts of speech”.

The problem of defining words into definite parts of speech is still disputable. The first is in the number of criteria in dealing with, defining and classifying of parts of speech. The second is in the number of parts of speech in the grammatical system of Modern English.

There is no unity of opinions, all the principles of words in the parts of speech. Early grammarians classified the words from one point of view: semantic. Later the linguists increased the number of criteria from 2 and 3 points of view¹.

Early Greek philosopher Aristarchus Samothracian classified words on the basis of 2 criteria:

1. Morphological
2. Semantical

The classification consisted of 8 parts of speech which were: noun, verb, participle, article, preposition, pronoun, adverb and conjunctions.

The XVIII th century grammarians Lowth and Murray proposed 9 parts of speech. Classic grammarians Esperson, Kurme and Russian scholars Sherba, Ilyish, Smirnitkiy in their classification of words into parts of speech used 3 criteria:

1. Semantic
2. Morphological
3. Syntactical

Semantic classification is based on the meaning of words which denote things, objects, persons and animals. Words with meaning of “thing” form “nouns”, words with the meaning of “quality” of things form “adjectives”.

Morphological classification is based on the changing of words inflections. Nouns are inflected to express plurality, person and possessive form or to point grammatical categories.

Syntactical classification is based on the functions of words in the sentence.

- a) Verbs perform the function of a predicate.

¹ Blokh M. Y. Theoretical grammar of the English language. M. V. Sh. 1983

Example: She runs quickly

They write an essay

b) Nouns perform the function of a subject or an object.

Example: Mike saw the teacher at the bus stop.

If a word was characterized by 3 criteria it belonged to the notional, if it was characterized by 2 of them it belonged to the functional parts of speech.

Modern English made use of the fourth and fifth criteria. In order to classify words into parts of speech Russian linguists Khaymovich and Rogovskaya added 2 more criteria to the previous 3.

The fourth criterion is the distribution or in other words, combinability of one part of speech with the other one of speech:

Nouns are usually combined with the adjectives.

Example: He is a tall boy

Adverbs usually combine with verbs:

Example: he runs fast

Articles never combine with the verbs. They combine with nouns and adjectives.

Example: The black dog is lying at the gate.

The fifth criterion which is specific for each part of speech, is the word formations morphemes or affixes. The presence of a criterion lexico-grammatical morpheme in the root considers it belonging to definite parts of speech.

Affixes: -ous, -ful, -ish, -less – characterized adjectives.

Suffixes: -er; -or; -ment; -hood; -sion; -dom are characterized nouns.

If words have such stem building elements the rest of the criteria become unnecessary.

The parts of speech are divided into:

Notional	Statives (modal words)
Nouns	Functional
Verbs	Articles
Adverbs	Prepositions
Numerals	Conjunctions
Pronouns	Interjections
	Particle

The difference between these two groups of parts of speech is as follows:

Notional parts of speech

- have full lexical meaning;
- have grammatical categories
- have stress
- fulfill some syntactical functions in sentences
- have stem building elements

Functional parts of speech

- have only grammatical or structural meaning not lexical
- don't have grammatical categories
- do not have stress
- do not fulfill any syntactical function in sentences
- do not have word formed morphemes

1.3. NOUNS AS A NOTIONAL PART OF SPEECH

One of the biggest groups of words in language is nouns; nearly half of vocabulary of the language consists of nouns. Nouns are considered as a part of speech by following characteristic features defined by the help 5 criteria”

6. Meaning
7. Form
8. Function
9. Distribution (combinability)
10. Stem building elements

(1) By meaning we do not mean the individual meaning of each separate word (its lexical meaning) but the meaning common to all the words of the given class and constituting its essence. Thus, the meaning of the noun is “thingness”. This applies equally to all and every noun and constitutes structural meaning of the noun as a type of word. Nouns include not only “chair” and “iron”, etc, but also “beauty”, “peace”, “necessity”, “journey” and everything else presented as a thing or object.

(2) By form we mean the morphological characteristics of a type of words. Thus, the noun is characterized by the category of number (singular and plural), though some individual nouns may lack either a singular or a plural form. They also, in the accepted view, have the category of case (common and genitive)

(3) by function we mean the syntactical properties of type of word. These are subdivided in to two:

- A) Its method of combining with other words;
- B) Its function in the sentence

So (a) has to deal with phrases, (b) with sentence structure. Here, subgroup (a) includes the fourth criterion based on the combinability of a type of word¹.

a) A noun combines with a preceding adjective (large room) or occasionally with a following adjective (time immemorial), with a preceding noun in either the

¹ Blokh M. Y. Theoretical grammar of the English language. M. V. Sh. 1983

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

b) Function in the sentence. A noun may be the subject or the attribute, or object, or the predicative of the sentence and an adverbial modifier, but not a predicate. It can make also part of each of these when preceded by a preposition.

c) Stem building elements. All the linguistic means that are added to a word to build new one are called stem building elements. Thus, nouns have their own stem building elements like: -hood; -dom; -ship; -er; etc.

Example: childhood, freedom, friendship, teacher.

The categories in the English nouns

The category of number

Number is difference in form, which shows whether one speaking is one thing or of more than one thing. This category is a system opposition. The category of number is a system of opposition like: a boy – boys, where singular number is opposed to plural one. In this case the singularity is expressed by a zero morpheme which has no inflexion. And the plural form is expressed by the help of ending: -s.

The category of case English nouns have inflexions to denote number, case. The inflexion which denotes the relation of the nouns with other parts of the sentence is called the case.

Following cases are recognized in Modern English:

1. Common (or a subject) case;
2. Possessive case (or a genitive) case;

All other case relations are expressed by means of prepositions as “for a man”, “to a man”, “without a man”.

Common case is that form in which a noun is used as the subject of the word.

Example: The farmer loves the dog.

The common case is the naming form and names either the person or thing. Possessive case is that form of a noun by means of which we can show that something belongs to the person or thing¹. This case the lonely case that is marked by an inflexion.

Example: I love the farmer's dog.

As a rule only nouns with living beings may be used in the possessive case, but in some cases inanimate objects and abstract notions (planets, the names of countries, months and weeks, days) may use possessive case.

Example: We were tired after a many hour's walk.

The sun's rise warms the Earth

¹ Ganshina M.A. English Grammar. M.: 1964

unmediated by any special lexemic or morphemic means.

In a contact group a noun in preposition plays the role of a semantic qualifier to another noun in past position.

Examples: a log cabin;
a cannon fall;
sport's event;
film festivals.

The corresponding compound nouns [formed from substantive stems], as a rule, cannot undergo the isolability test with an equal case.

Transformations with the noun compounds are in fact reduced to sheer explanations of their etymological motivation. The comparatively closer connection between the stems in compound nouns is reflected by the spelling¹.

Examples: a fireplace → a place where a fire is made;
a starlight → a light coming from the stars.

Contact noun attributes forming a string of several words are very characteristic of professional language.

The noun *the sea* is regularly found with the definite article. This may be accounted for by different reasons.

In some cases it may be understood as a generic singular.

Examples: The sea covers nearly three fourths of the World's surface.
He always spends his holidays by the sea.

The nouns are names of objects, i.e. the humans beings, the things, the animals, the plants - the real and abstract notions.

Examples: Jack London, George Bush, Whitney Houston;
a table, a plate, a book;
a lion, a donkey, a hen;
an apple, a plum, a strawberry;
a beauty, a justice, a love.

¹ Асқарова М., Ўзбек тили грамматикаси практикуми – Т. 1982.

Semantically all the nouns can be divided into two main groups:

- a. *proper* names (*examples*: the Thames, the Aral Sea, Uzbekistan)
- b. *common* names (*examples*: a desk, an asteroid, a submarine)

Common nouns, in their turn, are subdivided into *countable* and *uncountable* ones.

Countable nouns denote objects that *can be counted*. They may be either concrete (*examples*: a window, a student, a monkey) or abstract (*examples*: an idea, an effort, a word).

Uncountable nouns are names of objects that *cannot be counted*. They may also be concrete (*examples*: water, grass, moonlight) or abstract (*examples*: amazement, information, time).

Nouns have the grammatical categories of *number* and *case*. Nouns may have different functions in a sentence. They may serve as *objects* as well as *subjects*.

Examples: The capital of Uzbekistan is Tashkent.

Life consists in accepting one's duty.

You did such a splendid work!

They may also serve as:

Predicative (prepositional and non-prepositional) -

Examples: The town has always been a quiet and dignified little place.

The place was in disorder.

Adjective predicative -

Example: They elected him as a president of the club.

Subjective predicative -

Example: He was appointed as a squadron commander.

Various adverbial modifiers (usually as part of prepositional phrases)-

Examples: I lived near the Victoria station in those years.

He spoke in a different tone.

Attribute (in genitive case, in common case and as part of prepositional

phrases)

Examples: His officer's uniform gave slimness to his already heavy figure.

For some time he read all the travel books he could lay his hands on.

He set off on a tour of inspection.

Apposition —

Example: He told us about his father, a teacher, who died during the war.

English nouns are not masculine, feminine, or neuter in the way that nouns in some other languages are. For example, most names of jobs, such as “teacher”, “doctor” and “writer” are used for both men and women.

But some nouns refer only to males and others only to females.

For example, some nouns indicating people's family relationships, such as “father”, “brother”, and “son” and some nouns indicating people's jobs such as “waiter” and “policeman” can only be used to refer to males.

In the same way “mother”, “sister”, “daughter”, “waitress”, “actress” and “sportswoman” can only be used to refer females.

Words that refer to woman often end in “-ess”, for example, “actress”, “waitress” and “hostess”. Another ending is “woman” as in “policeman” and “needlewoman”.

...his wife Susannah, a former air stewardess a policewoman dragged me out of the crowd .

... Margaret Downes, who is this year's chairwoman of the examination committee.

Words ending in “man” are either used to refer only to men or to both men and women. For example, “a postmen” is a man, but a “spokesman” can be a man or a woman.

Some people now use words ending in “person”, such as “chairperson” and “spokesperson”, instead of words ending in “men”, in order to avoid appearing to refer specifically to a man.

Most names of animals are used to refer to both male and female animals,

for example “cat”, “elephant”, “horse”, “monkey” and “sheep”.

In some cases there are different words that refer specifically to male animals or female animals, for example, a male horse is a “mare”.

In other cases the general name for the animal is also the specific word for males or females: “dog” also refers more specifically to male dogs, “duck” also refers more specifically to female ducks.

Many of these specific words are rarely used, or used mainly by people who have a special interest in animals, such as farmers or vets.

The categorial functional properties of the noun are determined by its semantic properties. The most characteristic substantive function of the noun is that of the subject in the sentence since the referents of the subject in the sentence since the referent of the subject is the person or thing immediately named. The function of the object in the sentence is also typical of the noun as the substance words. Other syntactic functions, i.e. attributive, adverbial, and even predicative, although performed by the noun with equal ease, are not immediately characteristic of its substantive quality as such it should be noted that, while performing these non – substantive functions, the noun essentially differs from the other parts of speech used in similar sentence positions.

A part from the cited sentence – part functions, the noun is characterized by some special types of combinability.

In particular, typical of the noun is the prepositional combinability with another noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb.

Example: an entrance to the house;

To turn round the corner;

Red in the face;

Far from its destination.

The possessive combinability characterizes the noun alongside of its prepositional combinability with another noun.

Example: The speech of the president –

The presidents speech: -

The cover of the book –

English nouns can also easily combine with one another by sheer contact, unmediated by any special lexemic or morphemic means. In the contact group the noun preposition plays the role of a semantic qualifier to the noun post – position.

Example: a cannon fall;

A log cabin;

A sports event;

Film festivals.

The corresponding compound nouns (formed from substantive stems) as a rule, can't undergo the insolubility test with an equal case. The transformations with the nominal compounds are in fact reduced to sheer explanations of their etymological motivation. The comparatively closer connection between the stems in compound nouns is reflected by the spelling.

Example: fireplace -> place where fire is made

Starlight -> light coming from stars.

Contact noun attributes forming a string of several words are very characteristic of professional language.

The noun “sea” is regularly found with the definite article this may be accounted for by different reasons.

In some cases it may be understood as a generic singular.

Example: The Sea covers nearly three fourths of the world's surface

He always spends his holiday by the sea.

Nouns are named of objects, i.e., things human beings, animals, materials and abstract notions (example table, house, man, dog, snow, sugar, beauty)

Semantically all nouns can be divided into two groups-proper names (example: London, Jack, the Thames) and common nouns.

Common nouns, in their turn, are sub divided into countable nouns and uncountable nouns. Countable nouns denote objects that can be counted. They may

be either concrete (example: teacher, book, bag, computer, mouse, cat, etc) or abstract (example: idea, word, effort)

Uncountable nouns are named of objects that cannot be counted. They may also be consed (example: water, wood, grass etc) and abstract (example: information, amazement, time, etc).

Nouns have the grammatical categories of number and case.

Nouns may have different functions in the sentences. They may serve as: the subject.

Example: Life consists in accepting one's duty. An object (direct, indirect and prepositional), example: You did such splended work.

General drake handed the man his medal.

He won't listen to any advice.

A predicative (non-prepositional and prepositional).

Example: The town has always been a quite and dignified little place. The place was in **disorder**.

-an objective predicative

Example: They elected **him president** of the club.

-as subjective predicative

Example: He was appointed squadron commander.

Various adverbial modifiers (usually as part of prepositional phrases).

Example: I lived **near Viktoriya station** in those years. He spoke **in a different tone**.

An attribute (in the genitive case, in the common case and part of prepositional phrases).

Example: His **officer's** uniform gave slimness to his already heavy figure.

For some time he read all the travel books he could lay his hands on.

He set off on a tour of inspection

an apposition,

Example: He told us about his father, a teacher, who died in the war.

The Modern English noun certainly has not got the category of grammatical gender

2.2. THE CATEGORY OF GENDER IN ENGLISH AND UZBEK NOUNS

There is a peculiarly regular contradiction between the presentation of gender in English by theoretical treatises and practical manuals. Whereas theoretical treatises define the gender sub-categorization of the English grammar do invariable include the description of an English gender in their subject matter of immediate instruction¹.

In particular, whole ten pages of A.I.Smirnitsky's theoretical "*Morphology of English*" are devoted to proving the non-existence of gender in English either in grammatical or even in strictly lexico-grammatical sense. On the other hand, a well-known practical "*English grammar*" by M.A.Ganshina and L.M.Vasilevskaya, after denying an existence of grammatical gender in English by way of an introduction to the topic, still presents a pretty comprehensive description of non-existent gender distinctions of the English nouns as part of speech.

A category of gender is expressed in English by the obligatory correlation of the nouns with personal pronouns of the third person.

These serve as specific gender classifiers of the nouns, being potentially reflected on each entry of the noun in speech. The category of gender is strictly oppositional. It is formed by two oppositions related to each other on a hierarchical basis.

One opposition functions in a whole set of nouns, dividing them into person (human)- nouns and non-person (non-human)-nouns.

The other opposition functions in a subset of person-nouns only, dividing them into *masculine* nouns and *feminine* nouns. Thus, the first general opposition can be referred to as the upper opposition in the category of gender, while the second, partial opposition, can be referred to as the lower opposition in this

¹ Асқарова М., Ўзбек тили грамматикаси практикуми – Т. 1982.

category.

As a result of the double oppositional correlation, a specific system of three genders arises, which is somewhat misleadingly represented by the traditional terminology:

The masculine (masculine person) gender;

The feminine (feminine person gender);

The neuter (non-person).

A *strong member* of the upper opposition is a human subclass of the nouns, its semantic mark being 'person' or 'personality'.

A *weak member* of the opposition comprises both inanimate and animate non- person-nouns. Here belong such as *a tree, a mountain, a love; a cat, a swallow, an ant.*

In cases of oppositional reduction the non-person-nouns and their substitutes are naturally used in the position of neutralisation.

Example: Suddenly something moved in the darkness ahead of us.

Could it be a man, in this desolate place, at this time of night?

A *strong member* of the lower opposition is the feminine subclass of person-nouns, its semantic mark being 'female gender'. Here belong such nouns as *a woman, a girl, a mother, a bride*. The masculine subclass of person-nouns comprising such words as *a man, a boy, a father, a bridegroom* - makes up a weak member of the opposition.

A great number of the person-nouns in English are capable of expressing both feminine and masculine person genders by way of the pronominal correlation in question. These are referred to as nouns of the '*common gender*'. Here belong such nouns as *a person, a parent, a friend, a cousin, a doctor, a president*.

Example: The president of our Medical Society is not going to be happy about the suggested way of cure.

Alongside the demonstrated grammatical [or lexico-grammatical, for that matter] gender distinctions, the English nouns can show the gender of their

referents lexically, either by means of being combined with certain national words used as gender indicators or else by suffix derivation.

Examples: boyfriend, girlfriend;
man-producer, woman-producer;
landlord, landlady;
bull-calf, cow-calf.

One might think that this kind of expression of gender runs contrary to the presented gender system of the nouns, since the gender distinctions inherent in the above-cited pairs of words refer not only to human beings but also to all the animate beings.

On closer observation, however, we see that this is not exactly so. In fact, referents of such nouns as jenny-ass or pea-hen or the like will, in common use, be quite naturally represented as so as referents of corresponding masculine nouns.

This kind of representation is different in principle from the corresponding representation of such noun pairs as *woman-man*, *sister-brother*.

As we see, the category of gender in English is semantic, meaningful in so far as it reflects actual features of named objects.

But the semantic nature of the category does not, at least, make it into ^cnon-grammaticalP.

In Russian, in German, in Spanish and in many other languages characterised by gender divisions of nouns, a gender has pure formal features that may even run contrary to semantics. *

Suffice it to compare such Russian words as *стакан* - *он*, *чашка* - *она* or German correspondences *das glas* - *es*, *die tasse* - *sie*.

But this phenomenon is rather an exception to the rule in terms of grammatical categories in general. On the other hand, when the pronominal relation of the non- person animate-nouns is turned respectively into he or she, we can speak of a grammatical personifying transposition, very topical of the English language. This kind of transposition affects not only the animate-nouns, but also a

wide range of the inanimate-nouns, being regulated in everyday language by cultural, historical traditions.

Compare the reference of she with names of countries, vehicles, weaker animals; the reference of he with names of stronger animals, names of phenomena suggesting crudeness, strength, the fierceness.

Moreover, alongside the 'formal' gender, there exists meaningful gender in Russian, in German, in Spanish and in other 'formal gender languages', featuring within the respective idiomatic systems, the natural gender distinctions of noun referents.

In particular, the Russian genders differ idiomatically from the English genders in so far so it divides the nouns by higher opposition not into 'person, non-person', but into 'animate, inanimate', discriminating within the former between masculine, feminine and a limited number of neuter nouns. Thus, the Russian category of genders essentially divides the nouns into the inanimate set having no meaningful gender and the animate set having a meaningful gender. In distinction to this, the English category of genders is only meaningful and, as such, it is represented in the noun system as a whole.

2.3. THE CATEGORY OF NUMBER IN ENGLISH AND UZBEK NOUNS

The category of number is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the nouns to the singular form.

A strong member of this binary opposition is *plural*, its productive formal mark being *the suffix - (e)s* [-z, -s, -iz] as presented in forms of *dog -dogs, clock-clocks, box-boxes*.

English:	Uzbek:	Russian:
house-houses	уй-уйлар	дом-дома
woman-women	аёл-аёллар	женщина-женщины
room-rooms	хона-хоналар	комната-комнаты

The singular form is represented by zero morphemes in English and in Uzbek. Exceptions in English are some of the nouns borrowed from Latin and Greek: *datum, crisis, bacterium, phenomenon*.

Singular forms serve in the main to express oneness in both English and Russian.

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

Russian: Книга на столе. У меня есть книга.

They may not express number in certain contexts and word combinations: *to hunt on bear* — *охотиться на медведя*.

In Uzbek both cases occur equally: Китоб қани? Where is the book? Где книга?

There are several ways of forming the plural in English and Russian. In English the plural of the nouns is formed -

1. By adding one of the following suffixes:

a) *-e(s)*, which has three phonetically conditioned allomorphs [s], [z], [iz]

books, pens, houses;

b) *-en*,

oxen;

c) *-a*,

memoranda;

d) *-ae*,

formulae;

e) *-i*,

stimuli.

2. By vowel alternation:

man-men, goose-geese, foot-feet, tooth-teeth, mouse-mice, # louse-lice.

3. By the suffix *-en* and vowel alternation:

child-children.

Adding the suffixes of the plural does not cause any change in word stress

but in certain nouns ending in *—f* and in *—th* morphological changes take place: *shelf- shelves, knife-knives, bath-baths, path-paths*.

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

In Russian the plural of nouns in the nominative case is formed by adding the suffixes *-и, -ы, -а, -я, -е* to the stem: *рука-руки, завод-заводы, дом-дома, край- края, гражданин-граждане*.

The most general quantitative characteristics of individual words constitute the lexico-grammatical base for dividing the noun vocabulary as a whole into the countable nouns and the uncountable ones. The constant categorical feature 'quantitative structure' is directly connected with the variable feature 'number', since the uncountable nouns are treated grammatically as either singular or plural. Namely, the singular uncountable nouns are modified by the non-discrete quantifiers *much* or *little* and they take a *finite verb in the singular*, while the plural uncountable nouns take a *finite verb in the plural*.

The two subclasses of uncountable nouns are usually referred to, respectively, as *singularia tantum* (only singular) and *pluralia tantum* (only plural).

In terms of oppositions we may say that in the formation of the two subclasses of uncountable nouns the number opposition is 'constantly' (lexically) reduced either to the weak member or to the strong one.

Since the grammatical form of 'the uncountable nouns of the *singularia tantum* subclasses is not excluded from the category of number, it stands to reason to speak of it as the 'absolute' singular, as different from the 'correlative' or 'common' singular of the countable nouns.

The absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral one, as well as the indefinite article.

The absolute singular is characteristic of the names of abstract notions: *peace, love, joy, courage, friendship*; the names of the branches of professional

activity: *chemistry, architecture, mathematics, linguistics*; the names of mass-materials: *water, snow, steel, hair*, the names of collective inanimate objects: foliage, fruit, furniture, machinery.

Some of these words can be used in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart, but in this case they come to mean either different sorts of materials or separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns or concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities.

Examples: Joy is absolutely necessary for normal human life.

It was a joy to see her among us.

The lexical effect of the correlative number forms (both singular and plural) in such cases is evident, since the categorical component of the referential meaning in each of them is changed from uncountable to countable. Thus, the oppositional reduction is here nullified in a peculiarly lexical way and the full oppositional force of the category of number is rehabilitated.

Common number with uncountable singular nouns can also be expressed by means of combining them with words showing discreteness such as *bit, piece, item, sort*.

Examples: The last two items of news were quite sensational.

Now I would like to add one more bit of information.

You might as well dispense with one or two pieces of furniture in the hall.

This kind of rendering the grammatical meaning of common number with uncountable nouns is, in due the situational conditions, so regular that it can be regarded as special supplementation in the categorical system of number.

Under this heading (*namely*, the first of the above two subparts) comes also the generic use of the singular.

Examples: Man's immortality lies on his deeds.

Wild elephant in the jungle can be very dangerous.

The choice of this or that suffix depends on a gender of a noun, on final phoneme and on other factors. It must be noted that a stress shift and a

morphological change may take place when the suffixes cited above are added to the noun.

Examples: страна-страны, поле-поля, ухо-уши, сук-сучья, друг-друзья, имя-именя.

Besides, all plural forms of nouns, with exception to the accusative case, have a special suffix of their own.

<i>Plural:</i> Nom.	товарищи
Gen.	товарищей
Dat.	товарищам
Accus.	товарищей
Inst,	товарищами
Prep,	о товарищах.

The plural suffixes in Russian are all productive. In Uzbek the plural of nouns is formed by adding the suffix *-лар* to the stem and the stress is shifted to this ending: *бола-болалар, китоб-китоблар, дафтар-дафтарлар*.

The Uzbek nouns in contrast to the Russian ones have separate forms for number and case. *Compare:*

	Uzbek	Russian
Nom.	олмалар	яблоки
Gen.	олмаларнинг	яблока
Dat.	олмаларни	яблокам
Accus.	олмаларга	яблоками
Inst.	олмалар билан	яблоками
Prep.	олмалар тўғрисида	о яблоках.

In English nouns forming the plural by taking the suffix *-(e)s* have one common form for number and case, other nouns have separate forms for them. *Examples:* girls' school, men's hat, children's home.

In certain English compound nouns only the first element takes the plural form.

<i>Examples:</i>	brother-in-law	brothers-in-law
	editor-in-chief	editors-in-chief
	looker-on	lookers-on.

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

<i>Compare:</i>	Uzbek:	Russian:	English:
	Балиқ қани?	Где рыба?	Where is the fish?
	Балиқлар қани?	Где рыбы?	Where are the fishes?

Some of the Russian countable nouns such as *кино*, *пальто*, *такси*, and *цензура* have no number opposition in contrast to their English and Uzbek counterparts.

English: Where is my coat? Where are our coats?

Uzbek: Пальтом қани? Пальтоларимиз қани?

Russian: Где моё пальто? Где наши пальто?

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

	Singular:	Plural:
English:	information	information
	advice	advice
	business	business
Uzbek:	ахборот	ахборотлар
	маслаҳат	маслаҳатлар
	иш	ишлар
Russian:	информация	информации
	совет	советы
	дело	дела

Differences and similarities between the English, Uzbek and Russian plural

forms in meaning are as follows:

	English:	Uzbek:	Russian:
1. Plurality of things, phenomena and notions;	+	+	+
2. Plurality of sorts, kinds and types;	+	+	+
3. Honour;	+	+	+
4. Plurality of similar individuals;	+	+	+
5. Members of a family.	+	+	+

The second type of the described oppositional reduction, consisting in the use of the absolute plural with uncountable nouns in the plural form, concerns cases of stylistical marking of nouns. Thus, the oppositional reduction results in expressive transposition.

Examples: the sands of the desert, the snows of the Arctic,

The waters of the ocean, the fruits of the toil.

This variety of the absolute plural may be called 'descriptive uncountable plural'.

The third type of the oppositional reduction concerns common countable nouns used in repetition groups. The acquired implication is indefinitely large quantity intensely presented. The nouns in repetition groups may themselves be used either in their plural ('*featured*' form) or in the singular ('*unfeatured*' form).

Examples: There were trees and trees all around us.

I lit a cigarette after cigarette.

The variety of absolute plural may be called '*repetition plural*'. It can be considered as a peculiar analytical form in the marginal sphere of the category of number. Some of the differences between the categories of number of the English, the Uzbek and the Russian nouns may cause inter-language interferences.

2.4. THE CATEGORY OF CASE IN ENGLISH AND UZBEK NOUNS

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of a noun referent to other objects and phenomena.

Thus, the case form of the noun or contractedly its *case*' (in the narrow sense of the word) is a morphological-declensional form.

This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in -s' [-z, -s, -iz], usually called the '*possessive case*' or more traditionally, the '*genitive case*' (to which term we will stick in the following presentation), to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the '*common case*'.

The apostrophised -s serves to distinguish in writing the singular noun in the genitive case from the plural nouns in the common case.

Examples: a man's duty, a President's decision, Ma's letter, the boy's ball, the clerk's promotion, the Empress's jewels.

A noun in the genitive case generally precedes another noun, which is its headword. This may be called the *dependent genitive*.

The relations between the noun in the genitive case and its headword may be of the following kinds.

The noun in the genitive case may denote a particular person or thing, as in *my mother's room, the men's voice*. This kind of the genitive case is called the *specifying genitive*.

The specifying genitive may indicate the owner of a thing, the doer of an action, a bearer of a state.

Sometimes a meaning of a specifying genitive is difficult to define, as in *the girl's tear, his brother's picture, life's little ironies*.

The specifying genitive may be replaced if necessary by a phrase: the father of the boys, the room of my brother who is in the hospital with proper names, however, the genitive case is the rule: John's parents, Mary's birthday, Byron's first poems.

Functionally, the forms of the English nouns designated as '*case forms*' relate to one another in an extremely peculiar way. The peculiarity is that the common form is absolutely indefinite from the semantic point of view, whereas the genitive form in its productive uses is restricted to the functions, which have a parallel expression by prepositional constructions.

Thus, the common form is also capable of rendering the genitive semantics, which makes the whole of the genitive case into a kind of subsidiary element in the grammatical system of the English nouns. This feature stamps the English nouns declension as something utterly different from every conceivable declension in principle¹.

In fact, the inflexional oblique case forms as normally and imperatively expressing the immediate functional parts of the ordinary sentence in 'noun-declensional' languages do not exist in English at all.

Four special views advanced at various times by different scholars should be considered as successive stages in the analysis of this problem.

The first view may be called '*the theory of positional cases*'. This theory is directly connected with the old grammatical tradition and its traces can be seen in many contemporary textbooks for school in the English-speaking countries.

Linguistic formulations of the theory, with various individual variations (the number of cases recognised, the terms used, the reasoning cited), may be found in the works of J.C.Nesfield, M.Bryant and other scholars.

In accord with the theory of positional cases, the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases by virtue of the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence. Thus, the English nouns, on the analogy of classical Latin grammar, would distinguish, besides the inflexional genitive case, also the non-inflexional, *i.e. purely positional cases*: nominative, vocative, dative and accusative.

The uninflexional cases of the nouns are taken to be supported by the

¹ Асқарова М., Ўзбек тили грамматикаси практикуми – Т. 1982.

parallel inflexional cases of the personal pronouns. The would-be cases in question can be exemplified as follows.

The nominative case (subject to a verb): Rain falls.

The vocative case (address): Are you coming, my friend?

The dative case (indirect object to a verb): I gave John a penny.

The accusative case (direct object and also object to a preposition): Pete killed a rat.

In the light of all that has been stated in this book in connection with the general notions of morphology, the fallacy of the positional case theory is quite obvious. The cardinal blunder of this view is that it substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological features of the word class, since the case form, by definition, is the variable morphological form of the noun. In reality, the case forms as such serve as mean of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence, and not vice-versa.

Thus, what the described view does do on the positive lines, is that within the confused conceptions of form and meaning, is still rightfully illustrates the fact that the functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in language by other grammatical means, in particular, by word-order.

The second view may be called the 'theory of prepositional cases'. Like the theory of positional cases, it is also connected with the old school grammar teaching and was advanced as a logical supplement to the positional view of the case.

In accordance with the prepositional theory, combinations of the nouns with prepositions in certain objects and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case forms. To these belong first of all the dative case (to +noun for +noun) and the genitive case (of +noun), these prepositions, according to G.Curme, are '*inflexional prepositions*', i.e. grammatical elements equivalent to case-forms. The would-be prepositional cases are generally taken (by the scholars who recognize them) as coexisting with positional cases, together with the classical

inflexional genitive completing the case system of the English nouns.

The prepositional theory, thought somewhat better grounded than the positional theory, nevertheless can hardly pass a serious linguistic trial. As is well-known from noun noun-declensional languages, all their prepositions and not only some of them, do require definite cases of nouns (prepositional case-government); this fact, together with a mere semantic observation of the role of preposition in the phrase, shows that any preposition by virtue of its functional nature stands in essentially the same general grammatical relations to the nouns. It should follow from this that not only *of to* and *for* phrases, but also the other prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as '*analytical cases*'. As a result of such an approach illogical redundancy in terminology would arise: each prepositional phrase would bear then another, additional name of 'prepositional case', the total number of the said 'cases' running into dozens upon dozens without any gain either to theory or practice [Ilyush, 42].

The third view of the English noun case recognizes a limited inflexional system of two cases in English, one of them featured and the other one unfeatured. This view may be called the '*limited case theory*'.

The limited case theory is at present most broadly accepted among linguists almost everywhere. It was formulated by such scholars as H.Sweet, O.Jespersen and has since been radically developed by the Russian scholars A.T.Smirnitsky, L.S.Barkhudarov and others.

The limited case theory in its modern presentation is based on the explicit oppositional approach to the recognition of grammatical categories. In the system of the English case the functional mark is defined, which differentiates the two case forms: the possessive or genitive form as the strong member of the categorical opposition and the common or 'non-genitive' form as the weak member of the categorical opposition. The opposition is shown as being effected in full with animate nouns, though a restricted use with inanimate nouns is also taken into account. The detailed functions of the genitive are specified with the help of

semantic transformational correlations.

We have considered the three theories, which if at basically different angles, proceed from the assumption that the English nouns does distinguish the grammatical case in its functional structure. However, another view of the problem of the English noun-cases has been put forward, which sharply counters the theories hitherto observed. This view approaches the English nouns as having completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development¹.

All the noun-cases, including the much spoken of genitive, are considered as extinct and the lingual unit that is named the 'genitive case' by force of tradition, would be in reality a combination of a noun with a postposition. This view, advanced in an explicit form by G.N.Vorontsova, may be called the '*theory of the possessive postposition*'

Of the various reasons substantiating the postpositional theory the following two should be considered as the main ones.

First, the postpositional element -s' is but loosely connected with the noun, which finds the clearest expression in its use not only with single nouns, but also with whole word-groups of various statuses. Compare some *examples* cited by Vorontsova in her work: *somebody else's daughter; another stage-struck girl's stage finish; the man who had hauled him out to dinner's head*.

Second, there is an indisputable parallelism of functions between the possessive postpositional constructions and the prepositional ones, resulting in the optional use of former. This can be shown by transformational reshuffles of the above *examples*: → *the daughter of somebody else*; → *the stage finish of another stage struck girl*; → *the head of the man who had hauled him out to dinner*.

One cannot but acknowledge the rational character of the cited reasoning. Its strong point consists in the fact that it is based on a careful observation of the lingual data.

For all that, however, the theory of the possessive postposition fails to take

¹ Асқарова М., Ўзбек тили грамматикаси практикуми – Т. 1982.

into due account the consistent insight into the nature of the noun form in - 's achieved by the limited case theory.

The latter has demonstrated beyond any doubt that the noun form in -'s is systematically, *i.e.* on strictly structural-functional basis, contrasted against the unfeatured form of the noun, which does make the whole correlation of the noun form into a grammatical category of case-like order, however, specific it might be.

As the basic arguments for the recognition of the noun form in -'s in the capacity of grammatical case, besides the oppositional nature of the general functional correlation of the featured and unfeatured forms of the noun, we will name the following two.

First, the broader phrasal uses of the postpositional -s' like those shown on the above examples, display a clearly expressed stylistic colouring; they are, as linguists put, stylistically marked, which fact proves their *transpositional nature*. In this connection we may formulate the following regularity: the more self-dependent the construction covered by the case-sign -s the stranger the stylistic mark (colouring) of the resulting genitive phrase. This functional analysis is corroborated by the statistical observation of the forms in question in the living English texts.

Second, the -s' sign from the point of view of its segmental status in the language differs from ordinary functional words.

It is morpheme-like by its phonetical properties; it is strictly postpositional unlike the prepositions; it is semantically by far a more bound element than a preposition, which among other things, has hitherto prevented it from being entered into dictionaries as a separate word.

As for the fact that the 'possessive postpositional construction' is correlated with a parallel prepositional construction, it only shows the functional peculiarity of the form, but cannot disprove its case-like nature, since cases of nouns in general render much the same functional semantics as prepositional phrases (reflecting a wide range of situational relations of noun referents).

Within the general functional semantics of appurtenance, the English genitive expresses a wide range of relational meanings specified in the regular interaction of the semantics of the subordinating and subordinated elements in the genitive investigations in this field, the following basic semantic types of the genitive can be pointed out.

The first, the form that can be called the 'genitive of possessor'.

Its constructional meaning will be defined as 'inorganic' possession, i.e. possessional relation (in the broad sense) of the genitive referent to the object denoted by the head-noun.

Examples: Christine's living room.

The assistant manager's desk. Dad's earning.

Kate and Jerry's grandparents.

The Steel Corporation's hired employees.

The diagnostic test for the genitive of possessor is its transformation into a construction that explicitly expresses the idea of possession inherent in the form:

Examples: →Living room that belongs to Christine.

→The Steel Corporation possesses hired employees

The second, the form that can be called the '*genitive of integer*'. Its constructional meaning will be defined as '*organic possession*', i.e. a broad possessional relation of a whole to its part.

Examples: Jane's busy hands.

Patrick's voice.

The patient's health.

The hotel's lobby.

Diagnostic test: → The busy hands as parts of Jane's person.

→The health as a part of patient's state.

→The lobby as a component part of the hotel.

The third, the '*genitive of agent*' (genetivus agentis), *the fourth*, the '*genitive of patient*' (genetivus patientis), *the fifth*, the '*genitive of destination*' (genetivus

destinationis), *the sixth*, the '*genitive of dispensed qualification*' (genetivus qualificationis dispensae), *the seventh*, the '*genitive of adverbial*' (genetivus adverbis), *the eighth*, the '*genitive of quantity*' (genetivus quantitatis').

We have considered theoretical aspects of the problem of case of the English nouns and have also observed the relevant lingual data instrumental in substantiating the suggested interpretations. As a result of the analysis, we have come to the conclusion that the inflexional case of the nouns in English has ceased to exist. In its place a new, peculiar two case system has developed based on the particle expression of the genitive falling into two segmental types: the *word-genitive* and the *phrase-genitive*.

An analysis of the pronouns based on more formal considerations can only corroborate the suggested approach proceeding from the principle of functional evaluation. In fact, what is traditionally accepted as case-forms of the pronouns are not the regular forms of productive morphological change implied by the very idea of case declension, but individual forms sustained by suppletivity and given to the speaker as a ready-made set.

The set is naturally completed by the possessive forms of pronouns, so that actually we are faced by a lexical paradigmatic series of four subsets of personal pronouns, to which the relative *who* is also added: *I-me-my-mine*, *you-you-your-yours... who-whom-whose-whose*.

Whichever of the former case correlations are still traceable in this system (as, *for example*, in the sub-series *he-him-his*), they exist as mere relicts, *i.e.* as a putrefied evidence of the old productive system that has long ceased to function in the morphology of English.

Thus, what should finally be meant by the suggested terminological name '*particle case*' in English, is that the former system of the English inflexional declension has completely and irrevocably disintegrated, both in the sphere of nouns and their substitute pronouns; in its place a new, limited case system has arisen based on a particle oppositional feature and subsidiary to the prepositional

expression of the syntactic relations of the nouns.

COMPARISON OF GENITIVE CASE (ENGLISH v UZBEK).

In English the categorical form of the genitive case is the morpheme -s, which has three phonetically conditioned variants as it was mentioned above in this work.

1. dog's [], Helen's [];
2. Nick's [], student's [];
3. Burn's [], Fox' []

As seen from the third variant, when a proper name ends in -s only an apostrophe is added in spelling, but the full inflexion [ɪz] is pronounced.

If the plural of the noun is formed by the inflexion ~(e)s the possessive case inflexion blends into one with the plural inflexion.

Examples: student's books, girl's coat, actresses' roles.

In Uzbek the categorical form of the genitive case of nouns is the morpheme -нинг, which is pronounced as -ни in colloquial speech.

In Uzbek, number and case are always expressed by separate morphemes (*болаларнинг, талабаларнинг*). In English the usage of the genitive case is limited. As a rule, it is used with animate nouns.

In Uzbek the usage of the genitive case is not limited. In Russian only a small number of nouns cannot take the forms of the genitive case.

Both in Uzbek and English two or more nouns functioning as homogeneous parts of a sentence can have one common genitive form, which is alien to Russian.

Ex: (English) Nick and Helen's house.

(Uzbek) Ник ва Еленаларнинг уйи.

(Russian) Дом Ника и Елены.

This is called 'the group genitive'.

In English there is another type of the group genitive, which is existent neither in Uzbek nor Russian: *The Prime Minister of England's son*.

As we see, the case morpheme -s has a certain freedom of distribution, not observed in any Uzbek or Russian case morphemes.

In Uzbek a noun in the genitive case requires a noun in the possessive form:
 боланинг китоби, талабанинг саволи.

The English and the Uzbek nouns in the genitive case cannot combine with prepositions, numerals, finite verbs and adverbial participles and with the infinitive in contrast to the Russian ones.

Case means the differences between words that are the subjects of a clause (nominative case) and words that show possession or similar relationships (possessive and genitive case).

Case in grammar means the relationship of noun and pronouns to other words in sentences. Nouns and pronouns are the only parts of speech that are inflected for case. Any being or thing named in a sentence as the subject of thought is said to be in the **nominative case**.

This case is called nominative in other language also. Any being or thing named in a sentence as the object of thought is said to be in the **objective case**, whether it follows a verb or a preposition expressed or understood.

This case is called **accusative or dative** in other languages. Any being or thing indicated in a sentence as possessing is said to be in the **possessive case**. This case is called **genitive case**, as a rule, in other languages. It is sometimes called genitive in English when it is denoted by of. When denoted by “s or s'” or it is called inflected possessive.

English nouns are not changed in any way for the nominative and objective case relationships, they are changed for the inflected possessive and sometimes for the genitive.

It follows, therefore that nominative case and objective case are describable only through thought connection and the order of words thus required, the nominative usually coming early in a sentence and before verb forms, the objective usually (but not always) coming late and after verb forms.

In *good books build both* and *character*, *books* indicates the subject of thought and is therefore, in the nominative case, *mind and character* indicate the objects of thought, the things acted upon, and are, therefore in the objective case.

You may reserve the order and thus the cases, if you wish: *Both mind and character are built by good books*. Now, *mind and character* are in the nominative case, and *books* is the objective case.

A noun is in the nominative case when it is *subject* of a verb, as *the boy struggled* in which *boy* is subject of *struggled*.

A noun is in the nominative case when it is used as predicate nominative, that is, when it follows the predicate but means the same things as the subject or closely explains or describes it, as *Buffalo Bill was a great marksman*, in a which *marksman* is the predicate nominative.

Other names for this construction are **predicate noun, attribute complement, subjective complement**.

A noun is in the nominative case when it is used in **direct address**, as *Mary, do your work*, in which Mary represents a person directly addressed. This construction is sometimes called **vocative**, that's , the called case. If such nouns is expressed with emotion, as *Police! Save my child* and *heart of my heart! The woman comes*, it is called by some authorities nominative of exclamation.

A noun is in the nominative case when it is unrelated to other words in a sentence and stands as the expression of an independent idea, as *the car having stalled, we got out and walked* in which car is nominative independent or nominative absolute . *The car having stalled* is detached or “untied” from the rest of the sentence.

As far as form is concerned it might just as well be called objective. But a fundamental rule of grammatical construction says that a noun or pronoun not dependent upon or related to any other word in a sentence, is correctly regarded as of the nominative case.

The nominative absolute is as a rule, the equivalent of an adverbial clause,

as *I being a coward, the thief was allowed to get away*, that is, *Inasmuch as I am a coward, the thief was allowed to get away; Jenkins being out of the office for a moment; the clerk telephoned his best girl.*

Note that absolute construction is frequently expressed with understood noun or subject in general usage, as in the *hymns are to be sung standing and Generally speaking, John is a good boy*; that's in the first, the congregation standing, and in the second, **one or a person generally speaking**. Don't confuse nominative absolute with dangling participle. Though it often has participial modification, the participle is not essential to an absolute construction; in the mountains rose like a celestial stairway, peak after peak the phrase **peak after peak** is nominative absolute.

A noun is in the nominate case when it is attached to another nominative noun by way of appositive or emphatic or explanatory adjunct, as the **teacher, a vigorous young man**, was taken suddenly ill, in which **man**, in apposition with **teacher**, is an explanatory modifier of it and is called nominative by apposition. Apposition derivatively means placed near. Its position must very often be depended upon to distinguish it from attribute complement. In **Charles, the captain has been taken ill**, **captain** is apposite to **Charles**.

In **Charles, who has been taken ill**, is the captain, captain is attribute to Charles, or predicate nominative.

A noun in apposition may be in objective case or in possessive case, in agreement with the noun that it explains. As a rule it agrees with that noun also in gender and number, but not always. In **ten girls, the whole class, failed**, **girls** is feminine and plural, whereas **class** is intrinsically common and singular. Again, in **Harold, the tennis – player, has won again** and **Mary the tennis – player**, has lost again, the noun in apposition – tennis – player is masculine in the one and feminine in the other. This is one of the very few instances in which a feminine ending might help the beginner in English. Note: again that a single noun may have more than one noun in apposition with it, as Harrison – captain, president, student,

editor – has made an enviable record. Here Harrison is the singular subject and requires a singular predicate, the four appositives having no influence on number.

The words *as*, *of*, or *are* sometimes used as introductory to the appositive: thus, **Adams, as our representative, did his best for us and wectarines, or peach – plums, of best quality come from South Africa.**

It is said above that the nominative noun usually comes early in a sentence and precedes the predicate. But it has been seen that this is not true when the nominative noun is attributive or appositive to an attribute, and it isn't necessarily true of a nominative absolute or of a nominative by direct address.

Note: the position of the italicized nominative in each of the following: **Please give me that, Bill. Has Jenny done her work yet ? There is a book on the table were I able I would help him. I cannot accept your explanation, neither can the other members of the team. Alone stands our hero! "This," said he, "is the end of all".** These various placements of the nominative show the facility of English in adjusting itself to interrogation and exclamation, and in lending itself to emphasis and variety.

A noun is in the objective case when it is the object of a predicate, of a participle, or an infinitive, as **Tim saved his money** in which **money** is the **direct object of saved** and **Jimmy saving his money became rich, and Jimmy determined to save his money.**

A noun is in the objective case when it is used as **cognate object** of a predicate, that is, when it infinitive, as when it repeats the meaning of an otherwise intransitive verb or yield.

A meaning similar to that of the verb, as **He played a solemn prayer; they lived their routine lives in which prayer and lives** repeat the idea contained in their respective verbs and are **direct cognate objects**. The repeated idea in the object should usually be intensified by a modifier; otherwise there is no purpose in repeating it.

A noun is in the objective case when it means the same thing as the direct

object or explains or describes it, as **WE made Horace leader**, in which leader defines the direct object Horace. There is not to be confused with a noun in apposition.

Note: that leader completes, that the sentence without it is absurd – We made Horace. The noun in apposition is not necessary for completion, but is added and gratuitous in a construction. In all such expressions. **They elected Roosevelt president, they named the boy Harrison.**

They choose Bill captain – the completing noun – **president, Harrison, captain** – is called objective complement; it is also called **factitive object, predicate objective, secondary object.**

Note: that the objective complement follows the direct object.

A noun is in the objective case when it is in apposition with another noun in the objective case, as We took the old route, our childhood haunt, in which haunt is in apposition with the direct object route and is, therefore, in the objective case.

A noun is in the objective case when it is used to denote distance, measure, space, time, manner, value, weight and the like as they stralled a few blocks, she stayed a month. The wall is three yards high. It weights ten pounds. She drove full speed, in which the italicized words are the objects of prepositions understood , as they stralled for a few blocks, She stayed for a month, The wall is high to the extent of three yards, It weights to ten pounds, She drow at full speed.

This construction is called **adverbial adjunct or adverbial modifier or** objective of weight or measure and so on.

Do not confuse this construction with cognate object. This objective having strictly adverbial nature where as the cognate is a noun repetition of the verb idea.

A noun is in the objective case when it is used as object of a preposition, the preposition showing from what word or words the idea starts and to what word or words it is directed, as **He is going to Boston, They arrived from the East, The boy is at the circus**, in which **Boston and East and circus** are in the objective case, objects respectively of **to, from, at.**

A noun is in the objective case when it is used as subject of the infinitive, as ***They expected the girls to be interested***, in which ***girls*** is subject of the infinitive ***to be interested***.

Note: that they expected the girls. That is a completely different idea. The direct object of the verb expected is the infinitive phrase the girls to be interested as a unit; separation of one part of the phrase from another is impossible if the exact meaning of the sentence is to be retained.

A noun is in the objective case when it is used as indirect object, that is an object indicating the person to or for on behalf of whom something is done, as pass Mary ***the Mary, Telegraph, Blaine our terms, tell the boy a story. Do Harry this favour***, in which italicized nouns are indirect objects with nouns are ***to or for*** understood before them.

But the preposition may be expressed before an indirect object, as Buy a car for the boy, Give my best wishes to your sister, Find a position for Mary.

When a position is understood before an indirect object, the indirect object always precedes the direct object, the preposition must be expressed. The verbs after which the indirect object is to be expected are those denoting getting, giving, providing, tending as, allow, ask, buy, deny, find, give, grant, hand, make, obtain, pass, pay, procure, promise, provide, secure, send, telegraph, telephone, tell, write, and a few others, after **ask**, it should be noted. The indirect object may be governed by the preposition **of**, as **We asked the principal no favors or We asked no favors of the principal.**

Note: also that make, meaning build or contrast, takes an indirect object as Make John a new chair; meaning appoint or **constitute**, it takes an objective complement, as They made Mary queen. The archaic forms *seems* and *methinks* are really forms of the indirect object – *seems to me* and *thinks to me*. The indirect object also occurs after certain adjectives and adverbs; thus, like Carrie, is really like to Carrie; unlike Mary, unlike to Mary; near Alice, near to Alice; opposite Sally, opposite to Sally.

The indirect object is sometimes called **adverb**.

A noun is in the case when it is used as retained object, that is, when an object, of an active verb is “held over” as object of the same verb in the passive voice. In I thought John a lesson by me, lesson is the retained object after the passive form of the verb. In the other passive reading – A lesson was given John by me, lesson is made subject and John is indirect object.

It is said above that the objective noun usually follows the predicate, and this is natural order. But for the sake of variety or emphasis it may be given other placement.

In a scarf he gave to me, scarf is object of gave, yet stands before it. In John I bought it for, John is object of the preposition for, yet it is placed as far away from it as it can be.

In John, two weeks we stayed in that one horse town, the adverbial adjunct, weeks carries emphasis as a result of placement out of natural order, which, incidentally is usually true in English. The possession, origin, course – indicates that to which something else belongs or with which it is connected.

The possessive case denotes possession, origin, course – indicates that to which something else belongs or with which it is connected. The possessive case of noun is their only inflected case, the inflection consisting of “s” or “’s” or of the apostrophe alone.

The “**of**” possessive inflection. Up to the later part of the seventeenth century the possessive was indicated by “es” or “is” or “ys” at the end of a noun, and this case ending made a separate syllable. The vowels in these ending were later supplanted by the apostrophe.

The “s”, sigh is not to be regarded as a shortened form of “his” or “its”.

The possessive singular of nouns is usually formed by the addition of “s”. As boy’s prize, day’s work, week’s visit, Bill’s pencil, Jane’s dress, May’s bonnet, if however, a singular nouns ends with “s” or other hissing sound and consists of two or more syllables after the sign of the possessive case is added, the apostrophe

alone may be used in order to prevent awkward pronunciation and disagreeable sound, as Dicken's novels instead of Dicken's novels, St. James, Square, instead of St. James, Square, Achilles's wrath, Jesus's name instead of Jesus's name knock' relation instead of knock's relation, goodness, sake, instead of righteousness' sake, Demosthenes, speeches instead of Demosthenes speeches.

There is an old rule to the effect that proper names ending with a hissing sound must from their possessive by the addition of "'s" no matter how *awkward* or in euphonious the pronunciation may be; thus, Dicken's novels, St. James, James Square, Thomas book are considered wrong under this rule.

As language evolves it tends to become simplified. There are no persons now who disregard this old rule and there are many who insist upon the conservative possessive forms – Dicken's novels and St. James Square. In England this proper name rule is rigidly observed.

In America it is not advertising copy having done much to popularize the simpler form.

The possessive plural of nouns that end with "'s" is formed by adding the apostrophe alone. When, however, the plural noun does not end with "'s", the possessive is formed by "'s", thus; girls, shoes, doctor's, offices, babies, bottles, women's activities interest.

Compound nouns take the sign of possession at the end, that is, sign of possessive is always placed nearest to the name of the thing possessed, as mother-in-law, cake, major generals uniform, mother's-in-laws, cakes, major generals uniforms.

Two or more names used in succession to denote joint possession take the sign(h) of possession on the last only. Similarly, two or more successive words (usually proper names, as in a title) carry the sign of possession on the last; thus, Canby, and Ordyche's Good English, Funk and Wagnall's practical Standard Dictionary, Germany and Russians Trade Treaty, The Guaranty Trust Company's buildings, the standard oil Company of the Jersey's employer. But if joint

possessive must be placed at the end of each name; thus; Harry's and Tom's cars means two cars, one owned by Tom; Harry and Tom's car means that Harry and Tom have one car between them. Nouns in apposition follow the above rule of possessive proximity, that is the sign of possession is placed nearest the thing possessed, as in Blairnd, the treasurers's report has been made. Both Blairnd and the noun in apposition with it- treasurers – are in the possessive case, but the sign of possession is placed on the appositive only. Note that the appositive is set off by commas just the same. If it were not, the appearance of such expression might cause confusion – Blairnd and any other word similarity placed might be taken as a vocative. All the possessive constructions treated in this paragraph are sometimes called **phrasal possessives**.

Note that a singular possessive may modify a plural noun a plural possessive a singular noun, as man's feet and man's room.

Note, too, that there are certain "frozen" or habitual possessives in which no apostrophe is necessary, as in such titles as Teachers College and Mechanics Bank rather than Teachers college and Mechanics Bank.

The pronunciation of the possessives is the same as that of the plural-number s; that is; it is [z] in those uses in which the plural es makes an extra syllable the 's does the same; thus, dogs, dog's are pronounced daughters, minks and mink's are pronounced minker and like the above illustrations are heard to be exactly the same.

The ear can distinguish such forms as these only by the context or the complete expression.

But not only are nominative plurals and possessive singulars and plurals in s this confusing; sometimes even the context or the complete expression fails to clarify them to the ear. *If you say the fox's head was turned in wrath*, the singular *head* makes fox's clear. But if you say *the fox's feet quilt of blood*, the *feet* plural does not make the preceding possessive clear; it may be either *fox's* as here, or *foxes*. In writing, no confusion exists, of course, for the eye sees the placement of

the apostrophe. In speaking, it is better to use the **of** possessive in case there is likely to be misunderstanding, as the feet of the fox or of the foxes.

As a rule, the possessive case of a noun as shown by **'s** is the same as the possessive or genitive case formed by the preposition **of**, as the Roosevelt's career and the career of Roosevelt. The use of **"of"** instead of **"'s"** is always recommended when a phrasal possessive is long awkward, as the policies of the Society for the Investigation of the Increase in Taxes, rather than The Society for the Investigation of the Increase in Taxes' policies; and when a series of possessives make a bungled and confusing sequence, as the brother of the cousin of Joe's partner, rather than Joe's partner's cousin's brother. The latter is sometimes called the "tandem" possessive and should be avoided.

But note that the **"of"** possessive may lead to ambiguity, context alone being depended upon to clarify. Thus, if you say the depredations of the enemy, you may mean the depredations suffered by the enemy or the depredations committed by the enemy upon others. It is necessary to use the preposition **"by"** or **"against"** to make meaning clear, or to supply modifying phrases, as depredations by the enemy or depredations against the enemy or depredations of the enemy or against foreign territory or depredations committed by the enemy. Note, again, that the **"'s"** possessive is no clearer used before a noun that means both act and condition, as the enemy's persecutions. Such ambiguous construction is called **subjective possessive** when the possessive or genitive noun denotes subject, **objective possessive** when it denotes object, thus, if the enemy were persecuted, the construction is subjective, if the enemy were persecuting, the construction is objective. Such expressions as love of God, love of mother, Mary's picture, John's painting are invariably ambiguous in both the **"of"** possessive and inflected possessive. The last, for instance, may be a painting owned by John, one that he made, one of him, one that he is carrying, one that he has hanging temporarily in his room.

The possessive case of a noun or pronoun is usually required before a

participle used as a noun, as Mary's arriving was well timed and The woman's going was hurried. In both of these examples it is the action-arriving and going-about which the predicate makes an assertion and on which the thought of the sentence is based. And in most such participial construction this is true; it would thus be wrong to say Mary arriving was well timed and The woman going was hurried. But not the difference between on the employer's entering a silence fell upon the meeting and on the employer entering there fell a book from the top of the door. In the former entering is correctly modified by the possessive employer's, for entering is the important word of the phrase. In the latter, employer is object of the preposition, "on" and it is modified by entering. In the second example above, it is possible to convey the meaning that the woman herself was hurried, that is, a hurried woman was going-the woman going was hurried. The meaning would be that the woman had a confused and hurried manner as she went. But this would be an unusual understanding of such a sentence, to say the least.

The "'s" form of the possessive is should be confined to names of living being or personified objects and to certain idiomatic expressions denoting time or space or measure.

By **double possessive** is meant those idiomatic expressions in which both the inflected possessive and the "of" possessive are used, as a poem of word worth's and a story of Poe's.

In all such expressions the plural of the first noun is understood after the inflected possessive, as a poem of (among) word worth's poems and a story of (among) Poe's stories. A poem of word worth, a story of Poe, that home run of Brown are, as a matter of fact, correct, but they are not idiomatic. The substitution of "by" for "of" in such expressions makes the apostrophes unnecessary, as a poem by word worth and a story by Poe. In such "of" expressions as the tautological month of May and year of 1776 and city of San Francisco, the two nouns are logically in appositions – the month, May and the year, 1776 and the city, San Francisco.

But the “**of**” is idiomatic, as well as sometimes emphatic and oratorical. In family names it has very largely become condensed, as **Davidson** for son of **David**. And in certain geographical names it is never used, we say Hudson River, not river of the Hudson, Sierra Nevada Mountains, not mountains of the Sierra Nevada.

The inflected possessive always precedes the noun that it limits. The “**of**” possessive usually follows it. Like the nominative and the objective, the possessive may, however, be wrenched out of its natural order for the sake of, emphasis, as of John’s oils I like this the best instead of I like this the best of John’s oils.

The possessive may stand alone with a nominative or an objective understood after it, as **John’s pleasure me most and I like John**.

A paradigm is a graph or tabulation by which is shown at a glance all the declension forms of nouns and pronouns, the conjugation forms of verbs, the comparison forms of adjectives and noun paradigms for nouns:

Singular		Plural
dog		dogs
conscience		consciences
Duke of Windsor		Dukes of Windsor
father-in-law		fathers-in-law
foot		feet
mouse		mice
Pius	•	Piuses
stepson		stepsons
Teddy		Teddys
tooth		teeth
XII		XII’s or XII s
Z		Z’s or Zs
Singular		Plural
Dog’s		dogs

conscience' or	consciences'
conscience's	
Duke of Windsor's	Dukes of Windsor's
father-in-law's	fathers-in-law's
foot's	feet's
Mouse's	Mice's
Pius' or Pius's	Piuses'
Teddy's	Teddys'
Tooth's	Teeth's
XII's ¹	XII s' ¹
Z's ¹	Zs' ¹

These can be formed but they would hardly be used.

COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND UZBEK NOUNS

1. *Non-personal nouns - Шахсифодаланмайдиган отлар.*

English: A door, a window, a dog, a bird, water, a flower.

Uzbek: Эшик, дераза, ит, куш, сув, гул.

The grammatical significance of personal and non-personal nouns is observed when replacing nouns with interrogative pronouns: *who*, *which*.

English: He is Bob - Who is he? It is a book - what is it?

Uzbek: Бу Эркин - Бу ким? Бу китоб - Бу нима?

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

Examples: The man who is coming here is my brother.

The pan, which you lost yesterday, is here.

The dog, which is on the chair, is mine.

This difference between the languages compared may cause inter-language interferences when the Uzbeks speak English.

! Error: The man, which is coming here, is my brother.

2. *Nouns denoting feminine gender* - «Аёлларни ифодаловчи» отлар.

English: a mother, a sister, a girl, a lady, a woman, Mary, an aunt.

Uzbek: она, опа, қиз, хоним, аёл, Марям, хола.

The Uzbek nouns denoting masculine and feminine genders are of no grammatical significance in contrast to the English and the Russian ones. The grammatical significance of the English nouns denoting masculine and feminine genders is observed when they are replaced by the pronouns *he* or *she*.

Examples: I have a brother. He is a doctor.

I have a sister. She is a teacher.

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

- human beings (doctor, friend, cousin, teacher, stranger);
- animals (wolf dog, bear, eagle, monkey, goat).

If we desire to indicate the gender of what is expressed by those nouns, a word

denoting the gender is added to them: *boy-friend, girl-friend; man-servant, maid-*

servant; man-doctor, woman-doctor; male elephant, female elephant; he-dog, she-dog.

In spoken English there is a tendency to associate the names of animals with the feminine or masculine gender.

1. When the noun indicates the gender of an animal it is generally spoken of as *he* {*lion, tiger, bull*) or *she* {*lioness, tigress, cow*).

Examples: The tiger approached the camp. His dreadful roars made us shudder.

The bull lowered his head.

Our dog is called Jenny. She is of a very good breed.

2. When the gender of an animal is not indicated by a noun, nouns denoting the larger and bolder animals are generally associated with the *masculine*

gender {elephant, horse, eagle), while nouns denoting the smaller and weaker ones with the feminine {cat, hare, parrot).

Examples: The elephant lifted his mighty trunk.

The cat has upset her milk.

In English inanimate things or abstract notions are usually personified and the nouns denoting them are referred to as belonging to those of the masculine or feminine genders¹. Here are some traditional associations:

1. Things and notions expressed by the noun *the Sun* and by the nouns expressing such ideas as *strength, fierceness {anger, death, fear, war)* are associated with the *masculine gender*.

Examples: It is pleasant to watch the Sun in his chariot of gold and the Moon in her chariot of pearl.

It seemed as if death was raging round this floating prison seeking for his prey.

2. *The things and notions expressed by the nouns the Moon and the Earth, by the names of vessels {ships, boats, steamers), vehicles {cars, carriages, coaches), countries and by the nouns expressing such ideas as gentleness, beauty (kindness, spring, peace, dawn) are associated with the feminine gender.*

Examples: The Moon was behind the clouds but an hour later we saw her in full.

She is a good car. She was a good boat.

France sent her representative to the conference.

It is necessary to distinguish gender in Russian. Gender (sex) is a logical semantic category, which reflects biological characteristic of living beings.

The aforesaid nouns denoting masculine and feminine genders form this category.

Gender is a formal grammatical category, which is represented by a system of three-member opposition: *masculine, feminine and neuter*.

¹ Асқарова М., Ўзбек тили грамматикаси практикуми – Т. 1982.

The formal grammatical category of gender of inanimate nouns does not reflect biological characteristic of things. As *for example*, the Russian noun *стол* does not denote the biological gender (sex), but it is a noun of masculine gender.

The English nouns denoting gender (sex) cause more interferences, when English is spoken by the Uzbeks, than by the Russians. Uzbek students usually make mistakes, when replacing them with the pronouns *he* or *she*. It is difficult for the Uzbeks and the Russians to express gender in English, when the means of expressing differs.

Rendering of the English nouns denoting gender in Uzbek.

English: 1. N denoting male gender

father

son

uncle

cock

bull

Uzbek: N denoting male gender

ота

ўғил

амаки

хўроз

хўкиз

•

2. N denoting male gender

boy

nephew

buck

N which do not gender

bola

жиян

кийик, куён, шер

In passing now from semantic classifications of nouns to another classification it should be noted again that the semantic types (groups) of nouns referred to have a variety of grammatical values in the languages compared.

According to their relation to the category of number, the English and the Russian nouns are divided into three groups:

1. Nouns used in the singular and plural;
2. Nouns used only in the singular;
3. Nouns used only in plural.

Only the first and the second groups exist in the Uzbek language.

CONCLUSION

The best way to get to understand anything is to get to know it. The best way to do that is to break it up into smaller chunks and to tackle each one in turn. Then you can put them back together again and you would be able to know how it works.

As the majority of modern languages, the English language has being analysed so far and words were classified according to their function in a sentence. This brings us to *the family* that is the collection of individual parts of speech, which rely on each other and have to work together if language is to fulfill its chief function - to communicate.

There are hundreds if not thousands of languages exist in the World, some of them popular, some of them not.

Today the English language, due to many historical, linguistic and other reasons is almost the *most popular* language in international relations around the world. A person, who knows English can travel around the World and be understood almost everywhere.

We all recognize the significance and importance of knowing the language.

This work was aimed in analyzing the English language, namely a part of it - the nouns.

One can see how interesting and simple to work with the nouns knowing them good.

Nouns are everywhere. We use thousands of nouns everyday. But can we analyse them independently in order to be able to construct correct phrases and sentences and in order to be able to speak and to be understood correctly.

There were five criteria used in the work in order to classify words into parts of speech.

According to the above criteria, the modern English linguistic suggests 14 parts of speech. Half of them are *notional* and the other half *functional*.

The notional parts of speech are: the nouns, the verb, the adverbs, the numerals, the adjectives, the pronouns and the statives.

The functional parts of speech are: the articles, the conjunctions, the prepositions, the modal verbs and the interjections.

Thus, the problem of parts of speech is also one of the disputable and the most important issues in the English grammar.

We have already paid due attention to the criteria of problem of parts of speech is noun. Noun plays very important role in English

In the modern English the nouns are said to be parts of speech because of the following features:

1. They name a person or a thing;
2. They fulfill in sentences as a subject, an object, an attribute, an adverbial or others;
3. They can combine with almost all the parts of speech.

The investigation has brought to conclusion the inflexion, which denotes the relation of the noun to other words of sentences.

The nouns may be classified as belonging to one of the masculine, feminine or neuter genders.

We also have mentioned semantic classification of the nouns

Proper, common, class nouns, material nouns, collective and abstract nouns.

We can conclude that the nouns in the English language play one of the most significant roles in order a sentence or a phrase to be correct and understood.

To sum up all we have said that the substantivum is the part of speech which expresses that only living being and things but also names of abstract notions, i.e., qualities, states, actions, abstracted from their bearers.

Nouns have both morphological and syntactical characteristics. So the morphological ones: are following:

1. Nouns that can be counted have two numbers: singular and plural as table, tables.

2. Nouns denoting persons or we can say living being have two cases: the common case and the genitive case.

The main syntactical functions of the noun in the sentence are those of the subject and the object. But it may also be used as an attribute or a predicative.

A noun followed by a preposition may be used as attribute, prepositional indirect object and adverbial modifier.

The noun is generally associated with the article. Because of the comparative scarcity of morphological distinctions in English in some cases only articles show that word is a noun.

A noun can be modified by an adjective, a pronoun, by another noun or verbals.

Case indicates the relations of the noun (or pronoun) to the other words in the sentence.

In Modern English nouns have a different form for the possessive case, but they show no difference between the subject and object forms. Make the possessive of a noun by adding – ‘s to a noun that does not already end in – s, and by adding only an apostrophe to a noun that already ends in – s.

There is also the common case.

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