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QUALIFICATION WORK

to obtain Bachelor's Degree on Specialty 5120100 – English Philology on theme
"Verbs and Auxiliary Verb Constructions of The English Language"

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INTRODUCTION

Topicality of the research. An auxiliary verb is a verb that adds functional or grammatical meaning to the clause in which it appears—for example, to express tense, aspect, modality, voice, emphasis, etc. Auxiliary verbs usually accompany a main verb. The main verb provides the main semantic content of the clause. Auxiliary verbs in the English language present complicated structures and clauses that determine the tense, mood and voice categories of the English language. As in the English language Uzbek language also has auxiliary verbs which are much more complicated in terms of their function, form and meanings. Uzbek auxiliary verbs as compared to English auxiliary verbs has never been an object of thorough investigation and comparative study of these verbs are not common in linguistic literature. That is why we found it very topical to study the system of auxiliary verbs in English and Uzbek language. The lack of detailed theoretical information on the types and functions of auxiliary verbs in English make the given qualification work even more topical, since the minor aim of the research is compellation of theoretical studies regarding auxiliary verbs of English and Uzbek languages.

The aim of the qualification work is to analyze the problem of auxiliary verbs and to classify their formation and use in Uzbek and English languages.

According to the aim of the work we set the following **tasks** of before the research work:

- to review literature on peculiarities of verb and verb constructions in Uzbek and English language;
- to analyze the peculiarities of auxiliary verbs and constructions in the Uzbek language;
- to classify them according to their function and form;
- to study the peculiar features of English verbs and auxiliary verbs;

- to examine the similarities and differences in the use of auxiliary verbs in both languages.

Scientific scrutiny of the research. As the research suggests we used the most active the literature devoted to the English grammar and the Structure of the English language. Besides, we studied up to date American, British and other foreign articles on international websites related to the scientific work.

In working with the auxiliary verbs of Uzbek language we relied on G.A. Abdurahmanov's "Ўзбек тили грамматикаси" (1 том. Морфология. – Тошкент, 1975. – 612 б.), English auxiliary verbs are well analyzed in such works as Downing Angela's "English Grammar. A University Course" (Routledge. 2006. – 640 p.), Newson Mark's "Basic English Syntax" (Bölcsész Konzorcium, 2006.- 477 p.) and Radford Andrew's "An English Syntax. Introduction" (Cambridge Univ. Press, 2004. - 258 p.) other works were taken from internet materials.

The object of the research are auxiliary constructions in Uzbek and English languages.

The subject of the research are daily spoken language of Uzbek and English which contains a lot of usage peculiarities of auxiliary constructions.

The novelty of the qualification work. The qualification work comprises different approaches to the study of auxiliary verbs in English and Uzbek languages. Moreover, the analysis and citations brought from different materials and especially about the problem of auxiliary verbs in Turkic languages make up the novelty of the work.

The practical and theoretical significance of the work is that the results of the scientific work can be used in the course of lectures and seminars in English Grammar and also can be useful for those who study in the sphere of linguistics. Information given in the problem of auxiliary verbs in Uzbek language may serve as an additional material for the students attending the courses of Typology of English and Uzbek languages.

Structurally the qualification work consists of introduction, two chapters and their paragraphs, conclusion followed by the list of used literature during the research.

CHAPTER I. LINGUISTIC PROPERTIES OF VERBS AND AUXILIARY VERBS IN THE UZBEK LANGUAGE

1.1 Characteristics of Verbs in Turkic Languages

The study of auxiliary verb constructions in the Turkic languages should begin no doubt with the treatment of this phenomenon in various Turkic languages published by D.M. Nasilov in 2001[1]. In this article Nasilov treats the problem of auxiliary verbs together with the question of aspect not only in the Turkic languages, but in the Mongol and Manchu-Tunguz languages as well. He offers detailed enumerations of these auxiliary verbs as used in Old Turkic and Uzbek,[and a brief description of the use of these verbs in Kazan Tatar. In his Table I he offers long lists of these for Old Turkic, Uzbek, Karakalpak, Kazan Tatar, Tuvan, Turkish, and Yakut accompanied by the lexical meaning of these verbs by themselves as well as their meaning as auxiliary verbs. Earlier, Nasilov had contributed a brief article in German relating to this topic to the proceedings of the I. Türk Dili Bilimsel Kurultayý which met in Ankara in 1972. In this article he limits himself to an enumeration of such auxiliary verbs as used in Old Turkic.

Since the publication of Nasilov's article two other monographic studies have appeared in West Germany treating this same topic, both in 1984. The first, by W.E. Scharlipp, treats such auxiliary verbs in modern Uyghur. The second, by C. Schönig, is a detailed theoretical description and classification of the functioning and phase structure of selected auxiliary verbs constructions in Kazan Tatar. Schönig's work also surveys auxiliary verb forms in a wide range of other Turkic languages.

Auxiliary verbs are used in such a manner as to influence the meaning of the main verb in a sentence. Nevertheless, beyond such a statement, there is still no scholarly consensus on the classification and interpretation of auxiliary verb

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[1] Nasilov D.M. Grammar of Turkic Languages. Lincom Press, 2001. – 489 p.

constructions. Under the strong influence of Russian linguistics, where the question of aspect (Russian vid glagola) is a major topic, many Turkologists have also placed a strong emphasis on the question of aspect in the Turkic languages. Aspect, however, can be explained as a semantic distinction in the meaning of a verb expressed through grammar. Aspect and related phenomena in Turkish has been studied in the fundamental work of L. Johanson. In most Turkic languages, however, an auxiliary verb modifies the meaning of the main verb in a sentence. This system of auxiliary verbs can be explained most usefully by the term Aktionsart. Aktionsart (Russian sposob deystviya) refers to the semantic distinctions represented through lexicalization (or according to some scholars through derivational morphology)[2].

Verbs of action in Turkic languages can refer to only one of the two kinds of verbal constructions, what Schönig calls "full verb constructions" or "auxiliary verb constructions". In both kinds of constructions, Verb 1 – in the form of a gerund (present or past)--is immediately followed by Verb 2 in a finite form. A "full verb construction" exists when Verb 1 is a gerund and Verb 2 is a finite verb governing the case; Verb 2 brings no additional nuances to Verb 1. In an "auxiliary verb construction", Verb 1 governs the case and Verb 2 is modifying Verb 1 through the addition of nuances; in such a construction Verb 1 and Verb 2 can be separated by a non-lexical particle. According to some scholars, in a full verb construction Verb 1 sets up a condition (Russian obstoyatelstvo). The meaning of Verb 2 in an auxiliary verb construction can differ based on whether it follows a past gerund (-p) or a present gerund (-a or its allomorphs). As Schönig also notes, many examples of full verb constructions will be identical with auxiliary verb constructions.

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[2] Nasilov D.M. Grammar of Turkic Languages. Lincom Press, 2001. – 489 p.

1.2 Auxiliary Constructions in Uzbek Language

Auxiliary constructions include two (or more) verbs in one clause, the first of which is a lexical (main) verb, and the last is an auxiliary[3]. This last verb has been bleached, at least partially, of its lexical meaning, and grammatically encodes one of several types of modification of the main verb. The auxiliaries are productive, recombining with many other verbs in similar constructions, resulting in other meanings.[4]

Unlike serial and directional modification verbs, in auxiliary verb constructions, the meaning of the predicate is non-compositional. Consider the following examples in (13)-(16), where in each case the same verb is used lexically in (a) and as an auxiliary in (b):

(13)   a. *Men u-ning uy-i-da tur-d-im*

1SG 3-GEN house-POS-LOC stay-DRPST-1SG 'I stayed at his house.'

b. u-ning dost-lir-i u-ni yo'ql-ab tur-ishad-i.

3-GEN friend-PL-POS 3ACC visit-NFT tur-NPST-3

'His friends will keep visiting him.'

The verb tur- means 'to stand, to stay,' as shown in (13)a. However, in (b), it indicates that the action of the main verb, yokl- 'visit,' continues over time.

(14)   a. *men uch bola-ni boq-a-man*

1SG three child-ACC look.after-NPST-1SG

'I am raising three children.'

As a main verb, boq- means 'to watch, look after,' but in (b), it has a completely different meaning, namely, that the event happened 'a little,' or was attempted but not carried out completely or thoroughly.

(15)   a. *nima bo'l-d-i?*

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[3] Nurmonov A. va b. O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Morfologiya. T., 2001.
[4] Nurmonov A. va boshq. O'zbek tili nazariy morfologiyasining asosiy tamoyillari. O'TA, 1998, 2-son.

what exist-DRPST-3

'What happened?'

b. u kitob-ni o'qi-b bo'l-d-i

3. NOM book-ACC read-NFT exist-DRPST-3 She finished reading the book.'

The verb bol- means 'to be, exist' as a main verb, but in (b), it indicates that the event was completed.

(16)   a. u eski kiyim-lar-ni tashla-d-i.

3SG old clothes-PL-ACC throw-DRPST-3 'SG'he threw away old clothes.'

b. hamma-miz u-ning gap-i-ga kul-ib yubor-d-ik

Osman laughed suddenly.'

"Tashla" means 'to throw or throw away' in (a). The meaning in (b) is quite different. In this case, it indicates that the event happened suddenly and uncontrollably, that the action was not intentional[5].

These (b) examples show the variety of semantic contexts in which auxiliary verb constructions are found. The meanings of the sentence-final verbs, tur-, boq-, bo'l-, and tashla- all seem unrelated to the meaning of the sentence.

Unlike other complex verb constructions, auxiliaries allow a negative form of the non-finite main verb (-mAy):

(17)   man   ovqat-ni ye-may ko'r-d-im

1.SG.NOM food-acc eat-NFT.NEG ko'r-DRPST-1SG

'I tried to not eat food.'

In this example, the auxiliary bak- shows that the action was attempted, but the main verb is in a negative non-finite form. Section 3.2 includes extensive

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[5] Nurmonov A. va b. O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Morfologiya. T., 2001.

discussion of the scope of negation in auxiliary constructions, but this example introduces the variant of form in auxiliary constructions[6].

To summarize, complex verbs in Uzbek can be broken down into three types, the characteristics of which are reviewed in the following table:

Complex verb construction types					
Construction Type	*Form of non-final verb*	*Tense*	*Independent subject*	*Selectional properties*	*Semantic transparency*
Serial verbs	*-Ib*	final verb only	No	may take NP complement	yes
Directionals				do not take their own NP complement	
Auxiliaries	*-Ib* (negative, -*mAy*[7])				no

Since little syntactic analysis has been done on these complex verb forms in Uzbek, the function of -(I)b has not been made clear. All complex verb construction types (serial, directional, auxiliary) select a verb in the -(I)b form. Lord notes that a construction of this type often evolves from a chain linking type to a more grammaticalized type. This is the case with Uzbek, where the three types are probably representative of three places along the continuum from linking consecutive events, to semantically modifying an event, to giving syntactic information about an event[8].

Uzbek differs from a language like Uyghur (also SOV with complex verb constructions superficially similar to those in Uzbek). There are two complex verb constructions in Lhasa, the difference between them being an ending on the non-

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[6] Nasilov, D. M. & Isxakova, X. & Safarov, Š. & Nevskaya, I. A. (2001): Imperative sentences in Turkic languages. In: Ed.: Xrakovskij, V.S. Typology of imperative sentences. München: Lincom Press, 181-220.
[7] Because of vowel harmony in Uzbek, the non-finite suffix may appear as -ip, -*up,* or -*up,* and the negative form as either -*may* or -*may*
[8] Shoabdurahmonov Sh. va boshq. Hozirgi o'zbek adabiy tili. T., 1980.

final verb. When the ending is present, the interpretation is serial; where the ending is absent, the interpretation is more adverbial. In this case, morphology determines interpretation.

In Uzbek, the -(I)b ending on the non-final verb is not optional for any of the complex verb constructions. The differences in interpretation (serial vs. directional modification vs. auxiliary) are due to the specific verbs used and phonological cues (pauses to indicate different focus), not just the presenceG'absence of this -(I)b morpheme. In other words, the presence of -(I)b is in no way indicative of how the verbs in the sentence is interpreted. Rather, it is the head of a tenseless phrase which is at the smallest, a VP, and at the largest, up to a CP.

1.3 Auxiliaries in the Uzbek Language
Description of structure; explanation of terms

In the literature, various terms are used for the two verbs involved in auxiliary constructions. In (16)b above (given here as (19)), there are again two verbs in the construction:

> *(19) men ovqat-ni ye-b ko'r-d-im.*
>
> *1SG food-ACC   eat-NFT look.after-DRPsT-1sG*
>
> *'I tasted a little bit of the food G' I tried to eat some of the food.'*

The first verb (here, yeb-) is often called the "converb." The term "converb" is generally used in the literature for non-finite verb forms, usually either a complement of a tensed verb, or else coordinated to a main verb. Anderson (2006) calls non-final (and therefore non-finite) verbs in Turkic languages 'participials.' However, since in Uzbek auxiliary constructions, the non-final verb is the verb carrying the main lexical meaning, I simply refer to them as 'main verbs.' The Uzbek main verb is always non-finite, never inflected for person or number. It

takes the form of root Q a non-finite suffix, -(I)b (or its negative counterpart, -may), and assigns theta roles and case to arguments[9].

(20) Various terms have been used to discuss the second verb in this sequence as well. Hojiev calls them "descriptor verbs," Tomur (2003) calls them all "aspectual stem forms," and Schamiloglu (1988) uses the term "auxiliary verbs." I am using the term auxiliary[10].

1.4 Describing Uzbek Auxiliaries: Semantics

The semantics of Uzbek auxiliaries, and auxiliaries in Turkic in general, are notoriously problematic. Uzbek seems to be a particularly tough case, since auxiliaries can give slightly inconsistent types of modification with different main verbs. For example, Tomur outlines five different meanings of the "aspect auxiliary" ket- Meanings and examples include:

(21) a. The subject moves away from the place of speech or reference point.

ular yaqin-da bu yer-danko'ch-ib ket-isha-di.

3Pl far-LOC this place-ABL move-NFT kat-NDRPST-3

'They will soon move away from here.

b. The result is the entrance into a state of having been suddenly and thoroughly completed.

Asta gapir-inglar, bola uyg'on-ib ket-ad-i.

Quiet speech do-IMP.2Pl child wake-NFT kat-NPST-3

'Please speak quietly or the child will wake up.'

c. An intensification of an intransitive action "with respect to degree, number of times, duration, and other related aspects."

Havo iss-ib ket-t-i.

Weather be.hot-NFT fcat-DEFDRPST-3

[9] Hojiyev A. Fe'l.T.,1973.
[10] Nasilov D.M. Grammar of Turkic Languages. Lincom Press, 2001. – 489 p.

'The weather has really become hot.'

d. The action begins suddenly and then continues.

Ketmoqchi bo'lib tursak, yomg'ir yog'ib ketti.

'Just as we were about to set out, it started to rain.'

e. The subject is able to do the action.

Baquvvat odam ekan, shuncha o'g'ir narsa-larni ko'tar-ib ket-t-i.

brave person be.Indef.NPST, so.that heavy thing-ACC endure-NFT fcat-DEFDRPST-3

'He's a very courageous person; he was able to endure such great hardships.

Given this extremely diverse set of meanings for just one auxiliary, it is clear that an exhaustive study of all of the semantic possibilities contained in these auxiliaries is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, most of the auxiliaries are not quite as broad in their range of meanings. Most have only one meaning, and for those with several meanings, one often emerges as the most common. This study will focus on these more central uses of auxiliaries, both their meanings and the syntax of the sentences in which they are found.

For an overview of how auxiliaries may affect the meaning of a sentence, recall the examples from (13)-(16), given again here as (22), now with AUX meaning highlighted:

(22) a. u-ning do'st-lar-i u-ni yo'ql-ab tur-ishad-i.

continued 3-GEN friend-PL-POS 3-ACC visit-NFT tur-NPST-3

'His friends will keep visiting him.'

b. u kitob-ni oqi-b bo'l-d-i

completion 3.NOM book-ACC read-NFT exist-DRPsT-3

'She finished reading the book.'

c. men ovqat-ni ye-b ko'r-d-im.

triedG'began 1SG food-ACC eat-NFT look.after-DRPsT-lSG

'I tasted a little bit of the food G' I tried to eat some of the food.'

d. Usmon kul-ib yubor-d-i.

accidentally, Osman laugh-NFT throw-DRPST-3 uncontrollably

'Osman laughed suddenly.'

These examples represent four semantic categories, in which these and almost all of the other auxiliaries fall. An overview is as follows:

(23) Representative examples of auxiliaries and semantics

Auxiliary	Description of modification	AUX category
tur-	continued; ongoing	Aspect: duration
bo'l-	completed	Aspect: completion
ko'r-	done "just a little;"	Agentive: initiated
tashla-	unintentional	Agentive: unintentional

This set of examples introduces some of the types of modification that auxiliaries may make to a predicate. There is quite a wide variety of semantics; the auxiliaries vary in meaning from "completion" to "unintentional." Some work has referred to the modification as 'adverbial' because many auxiliaries comment on the 'how' of the predicate, including modification of the agent's motive or initiation of the event (i.e, sal- accidental), which would equal a high-level adverb (i.e., above vP). Other work refers to them all as "aspect," because many auxiliaries comment on duration, completion, or other 'aspect-like' facets of the predicate (i.e., tur- continuing; bol- completed)[11].

The most surprising issue here is not that a sentence can indicate that a subject did something unintentionally, or that there are so many auxiliaries, but that Uzbek allows content which usually surfaces as an adverb to be grammaticalized into auxiliaries. If these auxiliaries can be grouped into a few semantic categories, are there any structural differences that parallel the distinction? If so, what are those categories, and where do they fall in the hierarchy of the sentence structure? In what follows, I establish a foundation of semantic categories and then offer a syntactic approach to these questions.

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[11] Nurmonov A. va b. O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Morfologiya. T., 2001.
Nurmonov A. O'zbek tilining fonologtyasi va morfonologiyasi. T., 1990
Mahmudov N., A. Nurmonov O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Sintaksis. T., 1995.

Others have examined Uzbek (andG'or Turkic) auxiliaries with the intention of explicating the usage of specific verbs (Nasilov 1978, Ibrahim 1995, Schamiloglu 1996, Tomur 2006, Zakir 1999), and have done so much more thoroughly than the present discussion. My goal here is not to exhaustively explain any one auxiliary, but to explain the most common meanings well enough to capture what is semantically possible with these auxiliaries.

Two general categories of meaning can be identified: that of aspect, and of agentivity. The agent-related auxiliaries have some significant parallels with another attested category: light verbs. Cross-linguistically, light verbs are semi-functional verbs that are only somewhat predicational, and typically focus on agentivity.

We then feed this information into structural analysis, in order to see if separating these semantic categories has any empirical reality in structure. Section 3 will deal more specifically with structural analysis. In this chapter I compare and contrast Uzbek auxiliaries with standard descriptions of auxiliaries and light verbs, and give at least a basic idea of how each in a list of 15 auxiliaries is generally used[12].

1.5 Background and overview: auxiliaries vs. light verbs
Auxiliaries: cross-linguistic properties and Uzbek Language

Cross-linguistically, auxiliary verbs are grammaticalized forms of main verbs that encode various non-lexical information in a predicate (usually tense, aspect, mood). Below is given a list of common features of auxiliary verb constructions: (24) Auxiliary verb construction properties

    a.   Semantic bleaching of auxiliary (at least to some extent)

    b.   Incorporation

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[12] Абдураҳмонов Ғ.А ва бошқ. Ўзбек тили грамматикаси. 1 том. Морфология. – Тошкент, 1975. – 612 б.

Sometimes become morphologically incorporated into main verb, diachronicall

c.   Pattern of diachronic semantic evolution

Often evolved from main verbs of a specific semantic sub-set

d.   Headedness May be headed by either auxiliary or lexical verb, most commonly by auxiliary

e.   Mono-clausal construction

The Uzbek auxiliary verbs generally meet these benchmarks.

a. Semantic Bleaching

Data given up to this point have shown that Uzbek auxiliaries show semantic bleaching to varying degrees. Table 2 compares the main (lexical) verb meanings with the meanings when the same forms are used as auxiliaries[13].

TABLE 2 Main verb vs. AUX (non-main) verb meanings

Verb	Main verb meaning	Non-main verb meaning
Tur-	stay, stand	durative, continuing
Yur-	walk, go on foot, roam around, associate with	durative, continuing
(*)bor-	go	durative, uninterrupted
Bo'l-	become	completed
Chiq-	emerge, go up, get on	completed; thoroughly
Ket-	leave, depart	become; change into
Qara-	watch, observe, take care of, raise	begin, do a little, try
Ko'r-	see	begin, do a little, try
Qol-	remain, be left over	unexpected event or result; complete

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[13] Nurmonov A. va b. O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Morfologiya. T., 2001.
Nurmonov A. O'zbek tilining fonologtyasi va morfonologiyasi. T., 1990
Mahmudov N., A. Nurmonov O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Sintaksis. T., 1995.

Sol-	putG'place something	unintentionally
Tashla-	throw, throw away	suddenly, uncontrollably
Ol-*	take, get, buy	take an opportunity
Qo'y-	place	done without effort or intention
Otir-	sit down	

b. Incorporation

At least three auxiliaries have been incorporated into the main verb; bar-, al, and - (i)qAt:

(25) a. ye-(ya)-ver-ing

eat-(NFT)-bar-IMP.2SG

'keep on eating'

b. top-ib-ol-d-im.

find-NFT-al-DRPsT-1 SG

'I found it (and it's not mine; I took advantage of the chance)'

c. men kel-iyap-man

l.SG come-NFT-wAt-NPST.lSG

"I'm coming."

c. Diachronic semantic evolution

All Uzbek auxiliaries are identical in form to a lexical verb. The meanings of these lexical verbs overlap significantly with crosslinguistic patterns. Bybee, Perkins, and Pagliuca includes a very diverse sample of languages in their study of the evolution grammaticalized elements; verbs with certain meanings often become grammaticalized[14].

Among the verbs listed as a source for progressive meaning, Bybee et. al. give the following: be, sit, stay, reside, stand, rest, stop, continue, be located. The Uzbek auxiliary verbs with progressive meaning come from lexical verbs including stayG'stand (tur-), walk, roam around (yUr-), and go (bar-). In the category of

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[14] Абдураҳмонов Ғ.А ва бошқ. Ўзбек тили грамматикаси. 1 том. Морфология. – Тошкент, 1975. – 612 б.

anteriorG' perfect(ive) G' completive meaning, Bybee et. al. list the following: come, go, throw away, pass by, have, exist, be, finish, put into. Uzbek auxiliary verbs with perfectG'completive meaning came from source verbs become (-bol), emerge, go up (gik-). In both completive and progressive categories, the Uzbek auxiliaries have meanings similar to source verbs of other languages.

Headedness

Uzbek auxiliaryG'light verb constructions are all clearly headed by the non-final, non-lexical verb; in (26), only the auxiliary ta§la- raisesG'agrees to get tense and agreement suffixes.

(26) Usmon kul-ip yubor-d-i.

Osman laugh-NFT ta^li-DRPST-3

'Osman laughed suddenly.'

Where "Auxiliary" does not fit

Despite being consistent with many cross-linguistic patterns of auxiliary verbs, the semantic properties of some of the Uzbek auxiliaries listed above do not fall in typical auxiliary semantics . Auxiliaries deal with tense, aspect, and mood (TAM; Bybee et. al. 1994, Anderson 2006, Heine 1993, Kutera 2001), but many of the verbs listed above do not fall into those categories. For example, an event being unintentional (sol-, qo'y-), unexpected (qol-), self-benefitting (ol-), or uncontrollable (tashla-) does not line up with TAM semantics, but they are consistently considered auxiliary verbs. A major contribution of this thesis is the proposal that a large subset of Uzbek "auxiliaries" would be better categorized as light verbs[15] .

Verbs: An alternative

The term 'light verb' originated with Jesperson as a term for English constructions such as have a rest, where the verb have is the structural verb, but most of the semantics comes from another element, in this case the noun rest. Light verbs are called as such because unlike auxiliaries, they retain much of their

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[15] Абдураҳмонов Ғ.А ва бошқ. Ўзбек тили грамматикаси. 1 том. Морфология. – Тошкент, 1975. – 612 б.

semantics, but they do not act as a full predicate. The diagnostics used to differentiate between light verbs and auxiliaries vary cross-linguistically, making it difficult to make generalizations. Some of the benchmarks of light verbs do seem perfectly aligned with Uzbek verbs of initiation, unintention, and intention:

(71) Typical qualities of light verbs:

a. Identical in form to a main verb

b. Hard-to-define semantics; may exhibit different nuances in different contexts

c. Picky selectional restrictions (more likely than auxiliaries not to be able to combine with all main verbs)

d. Associated semantics have included volition, benefaction, forcefulness, surprise, suddenness

e. Not incorporated into the verb (unlike some auxiliaries, over time)

f. Denote agent-related notions, since v is thought to license the agent The last of these characteristics is especially interesting for the current purposes, but all of them seem very apt for what I have titled, up to this point, agentive auxiliaries in Uzbek. The following table compares characteristics of auxiliaries and light verbs.

At this time, the main motivation for separating light verbs from Uzbek auxiliaries is semantic. There is currently no convincing set of syntactic tests to validate the difference for Uzbek, I return to the question of light verbs in section (2), but I leave the establishing of syntactic tests for light verbs to future work[16].

1.6 Aspectual Auxiliaries

Duration habitual auxiliaries (tur-, o'tir-, bor-)

As an aspectual category, duration concerns the continuation of an event over time. The action may be either one steadily continuing activity, or one activity repeated over time. An example of each is given in (28)-(30):

(28)   *Tez-tez bu yer-ga kel-ib tur-adi.*

       Often this place-DAT come-NFT tur-NPST.3

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[16] Абдураҳмонов Ғ.А ва бошқ. Ўзбек тили грамматикаси. 1 том. Морфология. – Тошкент, 1975. – 612 б.

'He keeps on coming here often.'

(29) *doim aroq ich-ib   yur-ad-i.*

Always alcohol drink-NFT roam-NPST.3

'He goes on and on drinking alcohol (everyday).'

(30) *vaqt o't-ib ket-ib bar-adi.*

time   pass-NFT leave inf bar-NPST.3

'Time is passingG'going on.'

The first of these, **tur-**, is by far the most common of the three, at least in this multiple verb form. According to Erkin Khadir (personal communication), **yur-** is currently hardly used at all as a durative auxiliary, although both Engasaeth (2002) and Hahn (1991) include **yur-** in their lists of auxiliaries.

More on bor-

Engasaeth's example in (30) is not typical because the auxiliary rarely appears as a separate, unincorporated verb form, and it is not clear that bor- is an auxiliary at all here instead of simply a main verb as part of a serial sequence (the meaning of bor- is 'go'). Far more typical, from my fieldwork, is an incorporated (suffix) version of this auxiliary, as is given here :

(31)   ye-(ya)-ver-ing   eat-(NFT)-bor-iMP.2SG 'keep on eating'

(32)   ishla-t(a)-ver-ing   use-NFT-bor-iMP.2S G

'(go ahead and) keep using it'

There is not complete agreement as to whether this suffixG'auxiliary actually comes from the verb bor- , but for two reasons, I propose that it is in fact the same verb. The first reason is that the phonological form of these examples is exactly what we would expect if the suffix came from the verb bor-. As shown in (31)-(32), the usual -ib nonfinite ending of the root verb is not clearly seen, and neither is the initial 'b' of the bar- suffix. However, the v in the -ver- form that occurs above is consistent with intervocalic voicing patterns in Uzbek. Consider a similar case of another incorporated auxiliary in the following:

(33) *buni sot-iv-ol-d-im.*

this-ACC buy-NFT-ol-DRPST- 1SG

'I (went ahead and) bought it.'

Here in (33), the infinitival -ib ending in the verb also changes to v. It is very reasonable to assume then that the b of the -ib ending and the b of bor- together become the voiced labiovelar approximant v in both of these two cases of incorporation.

A second argument in favor of this suffix being bor- is the fact that the continuative meaning of the incorporated suffixG'auxiliary is so semantically relevant to the main verb meaning of bor- (recall that bar- is 'go' in Uzbek). Cross-linguistically, it is not at all uncommon for a progressiveG'durative auxiliary to have originated as a lexical verb with a meaning similar to 'go' (Anderson 2006).

Although semantic resemblance to a non-auxiliary meaning is by no means necessary, when it does occur, it strongly suggests a relationship with that main verb. For these reasons, I argue that this continuative suffix is actually an incorporated form of the auxiliary bor-.

Completion auxiliaries (bo'l-, chiq-, ket-, qol-)

Completion auxiliaries assert that an action has been carried through in its entirety. In (34)-(36) are representative examples:

(34)   *u bu kitob-ni uch kun-da o'qi-b chiq-t-i.*

3SG this book-ACC three day-LOC read-NFT pik-DRPST-3

'He (completely) read the book in three days.'

(35)   *baho-si osh-ib ket-t-i*

   price-POS.3sG fall-NFT kat-DRPsT-3

   'The price rose.'

Bo'l-

Bo'l- has the least complicated meaning in the "completion auxiliary" set. It simply means that the action definitely happened and was completed.

(37)   *Janob yuvinib bo'lib, bashqalardan ko'proq haq to'lab, chiqib ketibdi.*

'Mister finished washing himself, paid more than the others, and went out.'

(38) keladiganlarning hammasi kelib bo'ldi, majlisni boshlaylik.

'All who are coming have arrived, so let's begin the meeting.'

Chiq-

As an auxiliary, chiq- indicates that an action was "performed conscientiously and thoroughly, from beginning to end" (Hahn 1988:614). The activity must be carried through to completion both 'until it was done' as well as 'to the furthest extent possible,' in a sense of thoroughness. In (39)a, it is used to describe the activity of drinking many kinds of tea. However, in (39) (i)b it may not be used to say that although many kinds of tea were tried, there was one left untasted.:

(39) Xitoyning hamma choylarini ichib chiq-d-im.

China-GEN tea-pl-POS-ACC basically drink-NFT p'A-DRPST-1SG*

'I drank all kinds of tea in China.'

*b. *Xitoyning hamma choylarini ichib ciqdim, lekin bitta tur choyni ichib*
   ko'rmadim.

'I drank all kinds of tea in China, but there's one kind I didn 't try.'

It also often indicates a level of intention on behalf of the agent, such as this example from Hahn (1991:614):

(40)   Hamshira kasal-ga qar-ab chiq-t-i.

       nurse patient-DAT care.for-NFT leave-DRPST-3

       'The nurse took good care of the patient.'

Ket-

Ket- is extremely common in daily speech, and its various subtle shades of meaning make it very difficult to center on one chief semantic use. Tomur (2006) gives a short list of semantic uses. I provide his categories here, with several examples each. However, I suggest that his categorizations could very naturally all fall into one category; that of a change of state which has been achieved, and which continues. Engasaeth (2002) explains it as the 'sudden occurrence of an

action and its going into a sustained state in that manner' (ms). In (41)-(52), examples are given with Tomur's subcategorization in order to show the patterns, although I think the more general 'change of state' category includes the entire set.

Intensification

(41)   *achchig'-im kel-ib ket-d-i.*

anger-GEN.1SG come-NFT kat-DRPST-3

'I'm really angry,' lit. 'my anger came.'

(42)   *men qiynal-ib ket-d-im*

1.SG suffer-NFT kat-DRPST-1SG

'It's really annoying for me.'

Thorough change of state

(43)   bu-ni Olim bil-ib, hafa bo'l-ip ket-d-i.

this-ACC Alim know-NFT angry exist-NFT kat -DRPST-3

'Knowing this, Alim got angry.'

(44)   to'l-ib ket-mak be.full-NFT kat-INF 'to fill'

(45)   baho-si o's-ip ket-d-i

        price-POS increase-NFT kat-DRPST-3

        'The price rose'

Ability

When the -al ability suffix follows the auxiliary root, the interpretation is that of ability regarding the main verb:

(52) gokum oginip ket-ala-ydu.

clearly learn-NFT kat-abil-NPST.3 'of course they will be able to learn (it).'

Qol-

This auxiliary is listed in this section for a secondary 'completion' meaning, but its most important meaning is that of unintentionality.

1.7 Agent modification auxiliaries G' verbs
Initiation; beginning, attempt or 'do a little' (boq-, ko'r-)

These auxiliaries indicate that the event was started or attempted, or that the action was done 'just a little.' Hojiev names it the "experimental aspectual stem form of the verb"[17]. This category is on the edge of the aspectualG'agentive line. Most aspectual categories relate to internal aspect, i.e., the compositional telicity or duration of an event, often including the presence or absence of an internal argument. The modification of these two auxiliaries, although related to the structure of the situation, is outside of the event itself. It may be most closely categorized as inceptive or inchoative, but inceptive aspect is only occasionally included in lists of aspectual categories, and does not appear in many standard discussions of aspect. In addition, it is not truly inceptive aspect, because it does not strictly denote the beginning of an event, because it also includes an element of volition; a verb with more typical inceptive meaning would be boshla-, 'begin.' Therefore this set is included in the Agentive category, having noted that it is marginally related to aspect as well[18].

Difference in meaning between the two auxiliaries in this category is very subtle, if any.

(53)   *men televisor-ni tuzat-ib ko'r-ma-gan-man.*

   1SG television-ACC repair-NFT £a£-NEG-DRPST-1SG

   'I have never tried fixing a television (before).

(54)   *sina-b ko'r-ay*

   try-NFT bak-IMP.1SG

   'I'll try (and do something.)

(55)   *birgalikda tuzati-ib ko'r-a-miz*

   together repair-NFT kor-NPST-1PL

   'Together we'll see if we can fix it.'

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[17] Hojiyev A. Fe'l.T.,1973.

[18] Mahmudov N., A. Nurmonov O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Sintaksis. T., 1995.

Agentive: Unintentionality (kal-, sal-, tashla-)

These auxiliaries indicate a lack of intention or control by the subject. Among these three, I informally observed that kal- is the most commonly used in speech. The other two are less frequently used, but express a similar meaning.

Qol-

This auxiliary shows that the action was unintentional, but like ket-, its semantics are quite complex. Tomur (2003) also lists several meanings for this auxiliary. When combined with different forms of the stem (simple stem, stem with ability, stem with negation), he finds a total of nine different nuances of meaning . Again, to undertake the full range of meanings is beyond what can be done here. In observations from fieldwork however, one of these shades of meaning was by far the most common, that being the unintentional nature of the event. Below is a selection of examples with this usage:

(56) *eshit-ib qol-d-im*

    hear-NFT kal-DRPST-1SG

    'I (accidentally) heard (maybe was not supposed to know)'

(57) *uhl-ab qol-moq*

    be.tired-NFT kal-INF

    'to fall asleep'

As mentioned in the Completed Aspect section (2.2.2), kal- also includes an element of completion. Even if the action is accidental, it is understood to be completed. Engasaeth reflects this by stating that there is a change of state that is not directly caused, and a change of state must by definition be complete. But as shown in (58) ('crashing' at someone's house for the night) and (61) (forgetting something), the action may be an event other than a change of state. Regardless, it is accurate to say that kal- falls into both the aspectual and the agentive categories of auxiliaries.

Yubor- and tashla-

According to Engasaeth (2002), sal- shows a lack of intention on the part of the subject; that something happened inadvertently (62). Ta§la- has very similar unintentional meaning (63).

(62) *bu jumla-ni oqi-b kul-ib yubor-d-im.*

this sentence-ACC read-NFT laugh-NFT sal-DRPsT-lSG

'I read this sentence and just couldn't help laughing'

(63) *hammimiz u-ning gap-i-ga kul-ib yubord.*

all.lPL 3SG-GEN words-POS-DAT laugh-NFT ta^li-DRPST-lPL

'We all burst out laughing at what he said.'

Intentionality (-al-)

This commonly used auxiliary has been described as 'reflexive' because it shows that the action benefits the speaker in some way, such as in (64) .

(64) ular bu yil ikki xonali uy qur-ish-d-i.

3Pl this year two opening house build-NFT-al-DRPST-3

'This year they built themselves a two-roomed house.'

I argue that it could also be categorized as a highly intentional act on the part of the agent. The verb ish- as a main verb means 'take, get, buy,' and its auxiliary meaning retains a sense of the main verb meaning in that the subject is 'taking advantage' of an opportunity. For example, (65)-(66) are examples where a reflexive meaning is not at all clear, but both would involve an agent doing something on purpose, often when heG'she was not supposed to do the action:

(65) *kor-ish-ol-d-im*

see-NFT-al-DRPST-1SG

'I saw it (but perhaps wasn't supposed to)

(66) *bu-ni sot-iv-ol-d-im.*

this-ACC sell-NFT-al-DRPST- 1SG

'I (went ahead and) bought it.'

(67) u pul-ni ishlativordi

3SG money-ACC spend-NT-al-DRPST-3

'he spent the money (and maybe the money is not really his)

(68) top-iv-ol-d-im.

find-NFT-al-DRPsT- 1SG

'I found it (and it's not mine; I took advantage of the chance)'

It often takes the form of an imperative, usually in a context where a speaker encourages someone to take advantage of an opportunity that will not last long:

There is a homophonous suffix, *-(i)l,* which is a more traditional reflexive, in that the action is done to the subject itself:

(72) och-il-moq

open-ref-INF

'to open itself'

Unlike the auxiliary, the reflexive suffix never appears after a non-finite suffix. Perhaps the auxiliary *ol-* has been categorized or translated as a reflexive due to the homophonous forms, but there are certainly two separate grammatical functions. The *ol-* auxiliary always follows the non-finite suffix *-Ib,* and never adds a theta role. The subject may benefit in some way, but there is no additional participant in the case of aux *ol-.* In a causative construction, where there is no doubt an extra theta role, the additional NP (the causee) is dative, but with this *ol-* auxiliary, there is not such additional theta role given or allowed.

The five auxiliaries included in the 'agent modification' category reflect initiation, lack of intention, or intention on the part of the agent. This category is part of what makes Uzbek auxiliaries unusual, at least according to classification in the literature up to this point; the non-aspectual meanings are atypical of auxiliaries cross-linguistically. Their forms, however, are completely in line with the more expected aspectual auxiliaries[19].

1.8 Other auxiliaries

Uzbek includes a very large number of verbs used as auxiliaries. Others not in this study include at-, yat-, ot-, and kal-. This study focuses on those I found to

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[19] Mahmudov N., A. Nurmonov O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Sintaksis. T., 1995.

be most common in fieldwork, as well as those which were less common in fieldwork but are generally placed in categories similar to the ones I found to be very common. The purpose was to find the most accurate categories for types of aspectG'modification encoded in auxiliaries. There are several that do not fit into these categories. Although the structure is not covered in any depth, below are examples from a few of the other auxiliaries.

Qo'y

Qo'y- can be used with two distinct auxiliary meanings. It is very commonly used as a deferential marker, indicating that the speaker wants to be polite or slightly formal. It is often used in a request, an apology, or an invitation.

(73)   ko'r-sat-ib qo'y-misiz-mi?

See-CAUS-NFT koy-IMP.2SG-also

'Won't you show me too, please?'

 (74)   un-ga habar-ni yet-kazib qo'y-ing.

3SG-DAT news-ACC tell-NFT koy-IMP.2SG

'Please tell him the news.'

(75)   kechirasiz, uzoq kutt-t-irib qo'y-d-im.

sorry long wait-CAUS-NFT koy-DRPST-1SG

'Sorry I made you wait so long.'

(76)   vaqt-ingiz-ni ol-ib qo'y-d-ik

time-GEN.2SG-ACC take-NFT koy-DRPST-1PL

'(Sorry; unfortunately) we took up your time.'

'She invited us to come to her house on Sunday.' The second meaning, used less in spoken language, is that the speaker is doing the action half-heartedly, usually only one time, and not a continued or repetitive action, as in (78). Interestingly, this usage is usually transitive[20]:

O'tir-

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[20] Mahmudov N., A. Nurmonov O'zbek tilining nazariy grammatikasi. Sintaksis. T., 1995.

The auxiliary o'tir- (main verb meaning, 'sit, stay') is difficult to explain in terms of the benchmarks discussed so far. It indicates that the event is of short duration, and that there is a lack of depth of involvement of participants, as exemplified in (80):

(80)   *bu ish to'g'risida ko'p so'zl-ab o'tirmay-miz.*
This thing about much talk-NFT oltur-NFT.NEG-NPST.1PL
'We'll not dwell long on (say much about) this matter.'

CHAPTER II. VERBS AND AUXILIARY VERB CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

2.1 Peculiarities of English Verbs: Forms and Functions

It is but natural that the verb should take up as much, or indeed, more space than all the other parts of speech we have so far considered, put, together. It is the only part of speech in present-day English that has a morphological system based on a series of categories. It is the only part of speech that has analytical forms, and again the only one that has forms (the infinitive, the gerund and the participle) which occupy a peculiar position in its system and do not share some of the characteristic features of the part of speech as a whole. In analyzing the morphological structure of the English verb it is essential to distinguish between the morphological categories of the verb as such, and the syntactic features of the sentence (or clause) in which a form of the verb may happen to he used. This applies especially to the category of voice and, to a certain extent, to the categories of aspect and tense as well[21].

The order in which we shall consider the categories of the verb may to a certain extent be arbitrary. However, we should bear in mind that certain categories are more closely linked together than others. Thus, it stands to reason that the categories of aspect and tense are linked more closely than either of them is with the category of voice[22]. It is also plain that there is a close connection between the categories of tense and mood. These relations will have to be borne in mind as we start to analyze the categories of the verb[23].

One last preliminary remark may be necessary here. It is always tempting, but it may prove dangerous, to approach the morphological system of the verb in

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[21] Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – Москва, 1991. – 383 с.

[22] Каушанская В.Л., Ковнер Р.Л. Грамматика английского языка. – Ленинград, 1993. – 322 с.

[23] Иванова И.П. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – Москва, 1991. – 287 с.

one language from the point of view of another language, for example, the student's mother tongue, or a widely known language such as Latin. Of course the system of each language should be analyzed on its own, and only after this has been done should we proceed to compare it with another.

Anyway the assessment of the system of a given language ought not to be influenced by the student's knowledge of another language. Neglect of this principle has often brought about differences in the treatment of the same language, depending on the student's mother tongue[24].

We will begin the analysis of each verbal category by examining two forms or two sets of forms differing from each other according to that category only.

Aspect

There are two sets of forms in the Modern English verb which are contrasted with each other on the principle of use or non-use of the pattern *"be+* first participle":

writes — is writing

wrote — was writing

will write — will be writing

has written — has been writing

etc.

These two sets of forms clearly belong to the same verb *write* and there is some grammatical difference between them. We will not here consider the question whether the relation between *writes* and *is writing* is exactly the same as that between *wrote* and *was writing,* etc. We will assume that it is the same relation.[25]

What, then, is the basic difference between *writes* and *is writing,* or between *wrote* and *was writing?* If we consult the definitions of the meaning of *is writing* given in various grammar books, we shall find, with some variations of detail, that

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[24] Каушанская В.Л., Ковнер Р.Л. Грамматика английского языка. – Ленинград, 1993. – 322 с.

[25] Хаймович Б.С., Роговская И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке). – Москва, 1996. – 288 с.

the basic characteristic of *is writing* is this: it denotes an action proceeding continuously at a definite period of time, within certain time limits. On the other hand, *writes* denotes an action not thus limited but either occurring repeatedly or everlasting, without any notion of lasting duration at a given moment. It should be noted here that many variations of this essential meaning may he due to the lexical meaning of the verb and of other words in the sentence; thus there is some difference in this respect between the sentence *the earth turns round the sun* and the sentence *the sun rises in the East:* the action mentioned in the former sentence goes on without interruption, whereas that mentioned in the latter sentence is repeated every morning and does not take place at all in the evening, etc. But this is irrelevant for the meaning of the grammatical form as such and merely serves to illustrate its possible applications.[26]

The basic difference between the two sets of forms, then, appears to be this: an action going on continuously during a given period of time, and an action not thus limited and not described by the very form of the verb as proceeding in such a manner.

Now, the question must he answered, how should this essential difference in meaning between the two sets of forms be described. The best way to describe it would seem to be this: it is a difference in the way the action is shown to proceed. Now this is the grammatical notion described as the category of aspect with reference to the Slavonic languages (Russian, Polish, Czech, etc.), and also to ancient Greek, in which this category is clearly expressed.

As is well known, not every verb is commonly used in the form "be + first participle". Verbs denoting abstract relations, such as *belong,* and those denoting sense perception or emotion, e. g. *see, hear, hope, love,* seldom appear in this form. It should be noted, however, that the impossibility of these verbs appearing in this form is sometimes exaggerated. Such categoric statements give the reader a wrong

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[26] Хаймович Б.С., Роговская И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке). – Москва, 1996. – 288 с.

idea of the-facts as they are not verified by actual modern usage. Thus, the verbs *see, hope, like, fear* and others, though denoting perception or feelings (emotions), may be found in this form, e. g. *It was as if she were seeing herself for the first time in a year.* (M. Mitchell) The form *"be* + first participle" is very appropriate here, as it does not admit of the action being interpreted as momentaneous (corresponding to the perfective aspect in Russian) and makes it absolutely clear that what is meant is a sense perception going on (involuntarily) for some time.[27]

This use of the form is also well illustrated by the following bit of dialogue from a modern short story: *"Mis's Courtright — I want to see you" he said, quickly averting his eyes. "Will you let me — Miss Courtright — will you?" "Of course, Merle," she said, smiling a little. "You're seeing me right now." (E.* Caldwell) It might probably have been possible to use here the present indefinite: 'Tow *see me right now,"* but the use of the continuous gives additional emphasis to the idea that the action, that is, the perception denoted by the verb *see,* is already taking place. Thus the descriptive possibilities of the continuous form are as effective here with the verb of perception as they are with any other verb.

A rather typical example of the use of the verb *see* in the continuous aspect is the following sentence: *Her breath came more evenly now, and she gave a smile so wide and open, her great eyes taking in the entire room and a part of the mountains towards which she had half turned, that it was as though she were seeing the world for the first time and might clap her hands to see it dance about her.* (BUECHNER)

Here are some more examples of continuous forms of verbs which are generally believed not to favour these forms: *Both were visibly hearing every word of the conversation and ignoring it, at the same time.* (C.ARY) The shade of meaning provided by the continuous will be best seen by comparing the sentence as it stands with the following variant, in which both forms of the continuous have been replaced by the corresponding indefinite forms: *Both visibly heard every*

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[27] Brittanica Online Encyclopaedia. Auxiliary Verbs of English. 2011 // http://www.brittanica.com/auxiliary_verbs/

word of the conversation and ignored it, at the same time. The descriptive character of the original text has disappeared after the substitution: instead of following, as it were, the gradual unfolding of the hearing process and the gradual accumulation of "ignoring", the speaker now merely states the fact that the two things happened. So the shades of meaning differentiating the two aspect forms are strong enough to overcome what one might conventionally term the "disclination" of verbs of perception towards the continuous aspect.

We also find the verb *look* used in a continuous form where it means 'have the air[1], not 'cast a look': *Mr March was looking absent and sombre again.* (SNOW) This is appropriate here, as it expresses a temporary state of things coming after an interruption (this is seen from the adverb *again)* and lasting for some time at least. Compare also the verb *hope: You're rather hoping he does know, aren't you?* (SNOW) If we compare this sentence and a possible variant with the present indefinite: *You rather hope he does know, don't you?* We shall see that the original text serves to make the idea of hope more emphatic and so the form of the continuous aspect does here serve a useful purpose. *But I'm hoping she'll come round soon...* (SNOW) Let us again compare the text with a variant: *But I hope she'll come round soon...* The difference in this case is certainly much less marked than in the preceding example: there is no process going on anyway, and it is clear from the context (especially the adverbial modifier *soon)* that the feeling spoken of only refers to a very limited space of time. So the extra shade of meaning brought by the continuous form appears to be only that of emphasis.

Our next example is of the link verb *be* in the continuous aspect form: *There were a few laughs which showed however that the sale, on /he whole, was being a success.* (SNOW) With the non-continuous form substituted: *There were a few laughs which showed however that the sale, on the whole, was a success.* In this instance, once more, the difference would appear to be essential. In the text as it stands, it is certain that the laughs mentioned were heard while the sale was still going on, whereas in the second variant this is left to conjecture: they might as well

have been heard after the sale was concluded, when some people were discussing its results. So the continuous form of the link verb has an important function in the sentence. Compare also the following: *You are being presumptuous in a way you wouldn't be with anyone else, and I don't like it.* (TAYLOR) Compare also: "*I think yon are being just*" *Charles said...* (SNOW) Here the continuous is perhaps more necessary still, as it clearly means that the person's behavior in a certain concrete situation is meant, not his general characteristic, which would be expressed by saying, *"I think you are just."* Compare also: *Perhaps I'm being selfish....* (LINKLATER) The link verb *be* is also used in the continuous aspect in the following passage: *What I think is, you're supposed to leave somebody alone if he's at least being interesting and he's getting alt excited about something.* (SALINGER) *He is being interesting* obviously means here, 'he is behaving in an interesting way, or 'he is trying to be interesting', and it implies a certain amount of conscious effort, whereas *he is interesting* would merely mean that he has this quality as a permanent characteristic, without reference to any effort of will and without limitation to any period of time. Compare also: *Now you are being rude.* (Taylor)

Each of the two aspects must be given some name which should of course be as adequate as possible to the basic meaning of the aspect. It seems easier to find a name for the type *is writing* than for the type *writes.* The term continuous aspect has now been in use for some time already and indeed it seems very appropriate to the phenomenon which it is used to describe. As to the type *writes,* a term is rather more difficult to find, as the uses of this form are much more varied and its intrinsic meaning, accordingly, less definite. This state of things may be best of all described by 'the term common aspect, which is indefinite enough to allow room for the various uses. It also has the merit of being parallel with the term common case, which has been discussed above and which seems the best to denote the phenomenon if a case system in English nouns is recognized at all. Thus we will

use the terms continuous aspect and common aspect to denote the two aspects of the Modern English verb.

However, the problem of aspects and their uses is by no means exhausted. First of all we must now mention the uses of the continuous aspect which do not easily fit into the definition given above. Forms of this aspect are occasionally used with the adverbs *always, continually,* etc., when the action is meant to be unlimited by time. Here are some typical examples of this use: *He was constantly experimenting with new seed.* (LINKLATER) *Rose is always wanting James to retire.* (GARY) The adverbial modifier *always* shows that Rose's wish is thought of as something constant, not restricted to any particular moment. So the difference between the sentence as it stands and the possible variant, *Rose always wants James to retire* does not lie in the character of the action. Obviously the peculiar shade of meaning in the original sentence is emphatic; the action is represented as never ceasing and this gives the sentence a stronger emotional colouring than it would have with the form of the common aspect: the lexical meaning of *always* is reinforced by the emphatic colouring of the continuous aspect. It is quite clear that these are exaggerated statements, where the form of the continuous aspect is used emotionally, to present an action as going on and on without interruption, whereas that, in the nature of things, is not possible. Such a use is consistent with the basic meaning of the form and illustrates its possible stylistic applications. We shall have to refer to it to elucidate some moot questions concerning these forms. It is the descriptive value of the continuous aspect forms which makes such a use possible at all.

2.1.1 Different Interpretations of Verbs

The interpretation of the opposition *writes — is writing* given -above is not the only one to be found in works dealing with the English language. We will now consider some different interpretations proposed by various scholars.

O. Jespersen treated the type *is writing* as a means of expressing limited duration, that is, in his own words, expressing an action serving as frame to

another which is performed within the frame set by that first action[28]. A somewhat similar view has been propounded by Prof. N. Irtenyeva, who thinks that the basic meaning of the type *is writing* is that of simultaneity of an action with another action. In assessing these views it must be said that they arc plausible for some cases, especially for a complex sentence, in which the type *writes* is used in the main clause, while the type *is writing* is used in the subordinate clause, or vice versa. This can only be found when the narration refers to the past time, as in the following example: *But once she was in the car and Andre was bending over her, tucking her rug about her, her sense of freedom left her.* (R. WEST). This use is of course very common. The view propounded by these authors does not fit in with the use of the present *is writing,* which is never, for aught we know, used in a complex sentence of that structure. In sentences such as *What is he doing? He is reading,* there is no other action with which the action expressed by the type *is writing* could be simultaneous or to which it might be a "time frame".[1] N. Irtenyeva answers this possible objection by saying that in such cases the action expressed by the *is writing* type is simultaneous with the act of speech.[2] However, that completely changes the situation. The act of speech is not mentioned in the speech. Moreover, simultaneity with the act of speech is the definition of the present tense, and not of the type *is writing* as such. Besides (and this appears to be very essential) if we take simultaneity with another action to be the basic meaning of the type *is writing* we cannot account for that descriptive power which this type obviously has in the cases when it is used in connection with such adverbs *as always*. Thus a view which does not take into account the category of aspect in this matter does not appear to be convincing.

Another view is held by Prof. I. Ivanova. She recognizes the existence of the aspect category in English, but treats it in a peculiar way. According to Prof.

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[28] Хаймович Б.С., Роговская И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке). – Москва, 1996. – 288 с.

Ivanova, *is writing* is an aspect form, namely that of the continuous aspect[29], but *writes* is not an aspect form at all, because its meaning is vague and cannot be clearly defined. So the author reaches the conclusion that some finite forms of the Modern English verb have the category of aspect, and are in so far "aspect-tense forms", while others have no aspect and are therefore "purely tense forms". Concerning this view it must be said that on the basic point it agrees with the view put forward above: the distinction between the type *writes* and the type *is writing* is a distinction of aspect. But Prof. Ivanova denies the existence of the common aspect. This seems rather a difference of wording than one of essence. "No aspect" seems something like another version of "common aspect". And it must be said that the idea of "common aspect" answers the facts better than does the idea of "no aspect". The difficulty of formulating the moaning of the common aspect need not worry us. That is one more case of distinction between a marked and a non-marked member of an opposition. The continuous aspect is marked both in meaning and in form *(be* + first participle), whereas the common aspect is non-marked both in meaning and in form; no formal characteristic of the common aspect can be given except the negative one: in contradistinction from the continuous aspect, it is not expressed by *"be* + first participle". Thus the theory of common and continuous aspect may be upheld.

Besides the various theories put forward with reference to the opposition *writes — is writing,* we must mention various terms that have been proposed to denote its members. H. Sweet used the term "definite tenses" for what we call the continuous aspect. This term cannot be said to be a happy one, as the word "tense" disguises the fact that we find here a peculiar grammatical category different from that of tense.

Another term which has been used is, "expanded form", or "progressive form". The term "form" cannot be described as satisfactory since it leaves the basic grammatical question open: we might as well speak of the past form, or of the

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[29] Иванова И.П. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – Москва, 1991. – 287 с.

passive form, etc. As to the adjectives modifying the word form, it must be said that *expanded* merely gives a characteristic of the analytical structure of the form, without indicating its meaning. As to *progressive,* it does indicate the meaning, but is hardly preferable to the adjective *continuous.* So we will stick to the term "continuous aspect".

2.1.2 Aspect and Character of the Verb

The problem of aspect is intimately connected with a lexicological problem, which we shall therefore have to touch upon here. It may be well illustrated by the following series of examples. If we have, for example, the sentence, *A young man sat in the corner of the room,* we can say, instead, *A young man was sitting in the corner of the room,* without affecting the basic meaning of the sentence. The same situation may be described in both ways, the only difference between them being that of stylistic colouring: the variant with the common aspect form is more matter-of-fact and "dry", whereas the one with the continuous aspect form is more descriptive[30].

The absence of any actual difference in meaning in such a case is brought out in the following passage from a modern novel: *Mr Bodiham was sitting in his study at the Rectory. The nineteenth-century Gothic windows, narrow and pointed, admitted the light grudgingly; in spite o/ the brilliant July weather, the room was sombre. Brown varnished bookshelves lined the walls, filled with row upon row of those thick, heavy theological works which the second-hand booksellers generally sell by weight. The mantelpiece, the overmantel, a towering structure of spindly pillars and little shelves, were brown and varnished. The writing-desk was brown and varnished. So were the chairs, so'-was the door. A dark red-brown carpet with patterns covered the floor. Everything was brown in the room, and there was a curious brownish smell. In the midst of this brown gloom Mr Bodiham sat at his desk.* (Huxley)

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[30] Иванова И.П. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – Москва, 1991. – 287 с.

By comparing the first and the last sentence of this passage it will be seen that they tell of the same situation, but in different ways. The first sentence is clearly descriptive, and it opens a rather lengthy description of Mr Bodiham's room, its furniture, books, etc. The last sentence of the passage, on the other hand, confirms the fact that Mr Bodiham sat in his study, as if summing up the situation. So the same fact is told a second time and the difference in the stylistic qualities of the continuous and the common aspect is well brought out.

On the other hand, if we have the sentence *He brought her some flowers* and if we substitute *was bringing* for *brought* and say, *He was bringing her some flowers,* the meaning will be affected and the two facts will be different. With the common aspect form *brought* the sentence means that the flowers actually reached her, whereas the continuous aspect form means that he had the flowers with him but something prevented him from giving them to her. We might then say that *he sat = he was sitting,* whereas *he brought ≠ he was bringing.* What is the cause of this difference? Here we shall have to touch on a lexicological problem, without which the treatment of the continuous aspect cannot be complete. The verb *sit* differs from the verb *bring* in an important way: the verb *sit* denotes an action which can go on indefinitely without necessarily reaching a point where it has to stop, whereas the verb bring denotes an action which must come to an end owing to its very nature. It has now been customary for some time to call verbs of the *sit* type **cursive**, or **durative,** and verbs of the *bring* type **terminative**. We may then say that with cursive, or durative verbs, the difference between the common and the continuous aspect may be neutralized whereas with terminative verbs it cannot be neutralized, so that the form of the common aspect cannot be substituted for the form of the continuous aspect, and vice versa, without materially changing the meaning of the sentence.

A final note is necessary here on the relation between the aspects of the English verb and those of the Russian verb.

Without going into details, we may assume that the Russian verb has two aspects, the perfective and the imperfective. All other varieties of aspectal meanings are to be considered within the framework of the two basic aspects. It is obvious at once that there is no direct correspondence between English and Russian aspects; for instance, the English continuous aspect is not identical with the Russian imperfective. The relation between the two systems is not so simple as all that. On the one hand, the English common aspect may correspond not only to the Russian perfective but also to the Russian imperfective aspect; thus, *he wrote* may correspond both to написал and to писал. On the other hand, the Russian imperfective aspect may correspond not only to the continuous but also to the common aspect in English; thus, писал may correspond both to *was writing* and to *wrote.* It follows from this that the relation between the English and the Russian aspects may be represented by the following diagram:

English	Common	Continuous
Russian	Perfective	Imperfective

While the existence of the aspect category in English is a disputed matter, the tense category is universally recognized. Nobody has ever suggested to characterize the distinction, for example, between *wrote, writes,* and *will write* as other than a tense distinction. Thus we shall not have to produce any arguments in favour of the existence of the category in Modern English. Our task will be on the one hand to define the category as such, and on the other, to find the distinctions within the category of tense, that is, to find out how many tenses there are in English and what each of them means and also to analyze the mutual relations between tense and other categories of the English verb.

2.1.3 General Definition of Tense

As to the general definition of tense, there seems no necessity to find a special one for the English language. The basic features of the category appear to be the same in English as in other languages. The category of tense may, then, be defined as a verbal category which reflects the objective category of time and expresses on this background the relations between the time of the action and the time of the utterance.

The main divisions of objective time appear to be clear enough. There are three of them, past, present, and future. However, it by no means follows that tense systems of different languages are bound to be identical. On the contrary, there are wide differences in this respect.

English Tenses

In English there are the three tenses (past, present and future) represented by the forms *wrote, writes, will write,* or *lived, lives, will live.*

Strangely enough, some doubts have boon expressed about the existence of a future tense in English. O. Jespersen discussed this question more than once. [2] The reason why Jespersen' denied the existence of a future tense in English was that the English future is expressed by 'the phrase *"shall / will* + infinitive"*, and the verbs *shall* and *will* which make part of the phrase preserve, according to Jespersen, some of their original meaning *(shall* an element of obligation, and *will* an element of volition). Thus, in Jespersen's view, English has no way of expressing "pure futurity" free from modal shades of meaning, i.e. it has no form standing on the same grammatical level as the forms of the past and present tenses. However, this reasoning is not convincing. Though the verbs *shall* and *will* may in some contexts preserve or indeed revive their original meaning of obligation or volition respectively, as a rule they are free from these shades of meaning and express mere futurity. This is especially clear in sentences where the verb *will* is used as an auxiliary of the future tense and where, at the same time, the meaning of volition is excluded by the context. E.g. *I am so sorry, I am afraid I will have to go*

back to the hotel — (R. WEST). Since the verb *will* cannot possibly be said to preserve even the slightest shade of the meaning of volition here, it can have only one meaning -that of grammatical futurity. Of course numerous other examples might be given to illustrate this point.

It is well known that a present tense form may also be used when the action belongs to the future. This also applies to the present continuous, as in the following example: *"Maroo is coming, my lad" he said, "she is coming to-morrow, and what, tell me what, do we make of that?"* (BUECHNER) The adverbial modifier of time, *to-morrow,* makes it clear that the action expressed by the verb *come* in the present continuous tense actually belongs to the future. So it might also have been expressed by the future tense: *Maroo will come, my lad, she will come to-morrow.* But the use of the present continuous adds another shade of meaning, which would be lost if it were replaced by the future tense: Maroo's arrival to-morrow is part of a plan already fixed at the present; indeed, for all we know, she may be travelling already. Thus the future arrival is presented as a natural outcome of actions already under way, not as something that will, as it were, only begin to happen in the future.

So the three main divisions of time are represented in the English verbal system by the three tenses. Each of them may appear in the common and in the continuous aspect. Thus we get six tense-aspect forms.

Besides these six, however, there are two more, namely, the future-in-the-past and the future-continuous-in-the-past. It is common knowledge that these forms are used chiefly in subordinate clauses depending on a main clause having its predicate verb in one of the past tenses, e. g., *This did not mean that she was content to live. It meant simply that even death, if it came to her here, would seem stale.* (R. WEST) However, they can be found in independent clauses as well. The following passage from a novel by Huxley yields a good example of this use; *It was after ten o'clock. The dancers had already dispersed and the last lights were being put oat. To-morrow the tents would be struck, the dismantled merry-go-*

round would be packed into waggons and carted away. These are the thoughts of a young man surveying the scene of a feast which has just ended. The tenses used are three: the tense which we call past perfect to denote the action already finished by that time *(the dancers had dispersed),-* the past continuous to denote an action going on at that very moment *(the lights were being put out)* and the future-in-the-past to denote an action foreseen for the future *(the merry-go-round would be packed and carted away).* The whole passage is of course represented speech and in direct speech the tenses would have been, respectively, the present perfect, the present continuous, and the future.

The future-in-the-past and future-continuous-in-the-past do not easily fit into a system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the past into the future. They are a deviation from this straight line: their starting point is not the present, from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself. With reference to these tenses it may be said that the past is a new centre of the system. The idea of temporal centers propounded by Prof. I. Ivanova as an essential element of the English tense system seems therefore fully justified in analyzing the "future-in-the-past" tenses. It should be noted that in many sentences of this kind the relation between the action denoted by the verb form and the time of the utterance remains uncertain: the action may or may not have taken place already. What is certain is that it was future from the point of view of the time when the action denoted by the verb form took place.

A different view of the English tense system has been put forward by Prof. N. Irtenyeva. According to this view, the system is divided into two halves: that of tenses centering in the present, and that of tenses centering in the past. The former would comprise the present, present perfect, future, present continuous, and present perfect continuous, whereas the latter would comprise the past, past perfect, future-in-the-past, past continuous, and past perfect continuous. The latter half is characterized by specific features: the root vowel (e. g. *sang* as against *sing),* and the suffix *-d* (or-t), e.g. *looked, had sung, would sing, had been singing.*

This view has much to recommend it. It has the advantage of reducing the usual threefold division of tenses (past, present, and future) to a twofold division (past and present) with each of the two future tenses (future and future-in-the-past) included into the past or the present system, respectively. However, the cancellation of the future as a tense in its own right would seem to require a more detailed justification.

Mood

The category of mood in the present English verb has given rise to so many discussions, and has been treated in so many different ways, that it seems hardly possible to arrive at any more or less convincing and universally acceptable conclusion concerning it. Indeed, the only points in the sphere of mod which have not so far been disputed seem to be these: (a) there is a category of mood in Modern English, (b) there are at least two moods in the modern English verb, one of which is the indicative. As to the number of the other moods and as to their meanings and names they ought to be given, opinions to-day are as far apart as ever. It is to be hoped that the new methods of objective linguistic investigation will do much to improve this state of things. Meanwhile we shall have to try to get at the roots of this divergence of views and to establish at least the starting points of an objective investigation. We shall have to begin with a definition of the category. Various definitions have been given of the category of mood. One of them (by Academician V.Vinogradov) is this: "Mood expresses the relation of the action to reality, as stated by the speaker." This definition seems plausible on the whole, though the words "relation of the action to reality" may not be clear enough. What is meant here is that different moods express different degrees of reality of an action, viz. one mood represents it as actually taking (or having taken) place, while another represents it as merely conditional or desired, etc[31].

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[31] Carstairs-McCarthy Andrew. An Introduction to English Morphology. – Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – 160 p.

It should be noted at once that there are other ways of indicating the reality or possibility of an action, besides he verbal category of mood, viz. modal verbs (*may, can, must,* etc.), and modal words (*perhaps, probably,* etc.); which do not concern us here. All these phenomena fall under the very wide notion of modality, which is not confined to grammar but includes some parts of lexicology and of phonetics (intonation) as well.

In proceeding now to an analysis of moods in English, let us first state the main division, which has been universally recognized. This is the division of moods into the one which represents an action as real, i.e. as actually taking place (the indicative) as against that or those which represent it as non-real, i.e. as merely imaginary, conditional, etc.

Among these we must mention first the groups *let me go, let us go* and *let him (them) go,* i.e. the patterns "*let* + personal pronoun (in the objective case) or noun (in the common case) + infinitive", which may be used to denote (1) a decision of the 1st person singular (i.e. of the speaker himself) to commit an action, or (2) an appeal to the 1st person plural, that is to one or more interlocutors to commit an action together with the speaker, or (3) an appeal to the 3rd person (singular or plural) to commit some action.

There is the question whether groups of this structure can or cannot be recognized as analytical forms of the imperative. This question must be answered in the negative for the following reasons. The noun or pronoun following the verb *let* stands in an object relation to this verb. This is especially clear with personal pronouns, which are bound to appear in the objective case form: *Let me go (not I), let him go (not he),* etc. If we were to say that the formation "*let* + personal pronoun + infinitive" is a form of the imperative, we should have to accept the conclusion that the subject is expressed by a pronoun in the objective case (the nominative being impossible here), which is obviously unacceptable, as it would run counter to all the principles of English syntactic structure. This formation is therefore not an analytical form of the imperative mood, and the verb *let* not an

auxiliary of that mood (or, indeed, of any other grammatical category). Expressions of the type *let me go, let us go, let him go* are therefore not in any way morphological phenomena. They belong to syntax. The imperative mood is represented by 2nd person forms only.

It might be argued that, since there are no other persons within the system of the imperative, the 2nd person is not opposed to any other person and does not therefore exist as a grammatical category. If we take this view we should have to say that there is no category of person at all in the imperative. This view is quite defensible, provided we take the system of the imperative as something existing in its own right and not within the wider framework of the verb system as a whole. If, on the other hand, we do place it in this wider framework we shall recognize that the form *come (!)* bears the same reference to person as the form (*you*) *come (!)* and we shall not deny it the right to be called a 2nd person form. Here, indeed, the decision arrived at will depend on the view we take of the problem on a wider scale.

2.2 Place of Auxiliary Verbs in the English Language

In linguistics, an auxiliary (also called helping verb, auxiliary verb, or verbal auxiliary) is a verb functioning to give further semantic or syntactic information about the main or full verb following it. In English, the extra meaning an auxiliary verb imparts alters the basic form of the main verb to have one or more of the following functions: *passive*, *progressive*, *perfect*, *modal*, or *dummy*. The auxiliary verbs are *be* and *have*[32].

In English, every clause has a finite verb which consists of a full verb (a non-auxiliary verb) and optionally one or more auxiliary verbs, each of which is a separate word. Examples of finite verbs include *write* (no auxiliary verb)*, have written* (one auxiliary verb), and *have been written* (two auxiliary verbs).

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[32] Auxiliary Verbs. Article Last Accessed 2011. // http://www.en.wikipedia.org/auxiliary_verb

There is a syntactic difference between an auxiliary verb and a full verb; that is, each has a different grammatical function within the sentence. In English, and in many other languages, there are some verbs that can act either as auxiliary or as full verbs, such as *be* ("I *am* writing a letter" vs "I *am* a postman") and *have* ("I *have* written a letter" vs "I *have* a letter"). In the case of *be*, it is sometimes ambiguous whether it is auxiliary or not; for example, *The ice cream was melted* could mean either *Someone/something melted the ice cream* (in which case *melt* would be the main verb) or *the ice cream was mostly liquid* (in which case *be* would be the main verb)[33].

The auxiliary verb *be* is used with a past participle to form the passive voice; for example, the clause "the door was opened" implies that someone (or something) opened it, without stating who (or what) it was. Because many past participles are also stative adjectives, the passive voice can sometimes be ambiguous; for example, "at 8:25, the window was closed" can be a passive-voice sentence meaning "at 8:25, someone closed the window," or a non-passive-voice sentence meaning "at 8:25, the window was not open". Perhaps due to this ambiguity, the verb *get* will sometimes be used colloquially instead of *be* in forming the passive voice, "at 8:25, the window got closed".

Progressive aspect

The auxiliary verb *be* is used with a present participle to form the progressive aspect; for example, the sentence "I am riding my bicycle" describes what the speaker is doing at the very moment of utterance, while the sentence "I ride my bicycle" is a temporally broader statement.

Perfect aspect

The auxiliary verb *have* is used with a past participle to form the perfect aspect; for example, the sentence "Peter has fallen in love" differs from "Peter fell

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[33] Brittanica Online Encyclopaedia. Auxiliary Verbs of English. 2011 // http://www.brittanica.com/auxiliary_verbs/

in love" in that the former implies some connection to the present — likely that Peter is still in love — while the latter does not.

Modal

There are nine modal verbs: *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, and *must*. They differ from the other auxiliaries both in that they are defective verbs, and in that they can never function as main verbs. (There do exist main verbs *can* and *will*, but these are distinct.) They express the speaker's (or listener's) judgement or opinion at the moment of speaking. Some of the modal verbs have been seen as a conditional tense form in English.

Some schools of thought consider *could* to represent the past tense of *can*. However, according to Michael Lewis (*The English Verb*), this is not always true. "Could I get you something?" clearly is not expressing past time. Lewis instead suggests that *could* is a *remote* form of *can*. It is evident after re-examining the usage of *could* in this light that *remoteness* does describe the general meaning, e.g.

- I couldn't do it. (remoteness of time)

- It could happen. (remoteness of possibility)

- Could you do me a favor? (remoteness of relationship)

The remaining modal auxiliaries can be viewed in this same manner. Lewis covers this area in detail in his book; see the References section[34].

Because, aside from the verbs *to be* and *to have*, only auxiliaries can be inverted to form questions and only auxiliaries can take negation directly, a dummy auxiliary *do* is used for questions and negatives when only a full verb exists in the positive statement (i.e. there are no auxiliaries in the positive, non-interrogative form). The same dummy *do* is used for emphasis in the positive statement form. This is known as *do*-insertion.

For example, if the positive statement form is:

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[34] Valeika Laimitus. An Introductory Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Vilnius. 2003. – 135 p.

- I know the way.

the interrogative, negative and emphatic forms are respectively:

- *Do* you know the way?

- I *don't* know the way.

- I *do* know the way.

Compare this with:

- I should know the way.

- Should I know the way?

- I shouldn't know the way.

- (and the emphatic form has to be marked by intonation or punctuation).

Quasi-auxiliaries

English contains many verb phrases that function as quasi-auxiliaries, such as *be going to*, *used to*, *is about to*. These quasi-auxiliaries require an infinitive. Others take a gerund (e.g. *need*, as in *need fixing*, in American English), past participle (e.g. *get*, as in *get done*), or other verb form[35].

In American English, *go* and *come* can be quasi-auxiliaries with nothing between them and the following verb phrases, but only in their plain forms: "Come show me", "I'll go get it", and "I had to come see for myself". This use can be regarded as ellipsis of *and* — the previous are equivalent to "Come and show me", "I'll go and get it", and "I had to come and see for myself" — and British English requires the *and* to be included, as does American English when the verb is not in its plain form: "I went and saw him." (It is also possible in both dialects for *to* to be used in place of *and*, though this typically has a slightly different sense.)

Properties of the English auxiliary verb

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[35] Valeika Laimitus. An Introductory Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Vilnius. 2003. – 135 p.

Negation

Auxiliaries take *not* (or n't) to form the negative, e.g. can't, won't, shouldn't, etc. In certain tenses, in questions, when a contracted auxiliary verb can be used, the position of the negative particle *n't* moves from the main verb to the auxiliary: cf. *Does it not work?* and *Doesn't it work?*

Inversion

Auxiliaries invert to form questions:

- *You will* come.

- *Will you* come?

Emphasis

The dummy auxiliary *do* is used for emphasis in positive statements (see above):

- I *do* like this beer!

Ellipsis

Auxiliaries can appear alone where a main verb has been omitted, but is understood:

- I will go, but she won't [*go*].

The verb *do* can act as a pro-VP (or occasionally a pro-verb) to avoid repetition:

- John never sings in the kitchen, but Mary does. *(pro-VP: replaces* sings in the kitchen*)*

- John never sings in the kitchen, but Mary does in the shower. *(pro-verb: replaces* sings*)*

Tag questions

Auxiliaries can be repeated at the end of a sentence, with negation added or removed, to form a tag question. In the event that the sentence did not use an auxiliary verb, a dummy auxiliary (a form of *do*) is used instead[36]:

- You *will* come, *won't* you?

- You ate, *didn't* you?

- You *won't* come, *will* you?

- You *didn't* eat, *did* you?

In Scottish English

An example was made famous by Hamish and Dougal

- You'll have had your tea?

as a greeting. The implication is that I (having made the utterance) am not going to put myself in the position in which I would have to offer you tea, lest you had not had any[37].

More common, is the construction of the form

- You *will* not be wanting a drink?

uttered by a person who should offer you one but wishes not to.

Other languages

In Indo-European languages, the verb "to have" is the most common auxiliary used for perfect tenses. Interlingua has inherited this use of the verb[38]. Some languages use "to be" for the perfect forms of some or all verbs (in Esperanto, for example, *Mi estis irinta* (I was having-gone = I had gone). French, German, and Dutch use it for verbs of motion and becoming, and (in German and Dutch) for "to be" itself, as does Italian. The use of auxiliaries is one variation among Romance languages. English uses "to be" only with "to go" in some senses.

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[36] Valeika Laimitus. An Introductory Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Vilnius. 2003. – 135 p.
[37] Teschner Richard. Analyzing the Grammar of English. – Georgetown Univ. Press. 2007. – 246 p.
[38] Wekker Herman. A Modern Course in English Syntax. – Routledge, London. 1996. – 201 p.

Finnish, a Uralic language, uses *olla* (to be) for all verbs: *Sillä niin on Jumala maailmaa rakastanut* (Because so *is* God the world *loved*); it lacks an equivalent of the verb *to have*.

2.3 Functions of Auxiliary Verbs and Constructions in the English Language

In sentences (1-3), the verbs in italics are usually called 'auxiliary verbs'.

(1) It is raining.

(2) You have been overcharged.

(3) It must have been raining.

These auxiliary verbs are distinguished from other verbs by two characteristics:

Support role: They are each followed by a non-finite verb (raining, been, overcharged) which they 'support' in various ways. The term 'auxiliary verb' refers to this support role. (Think of 'auxiliary teacher', a support teacher.)

Inversion etc.: They are syntactically special in a number of ways that are quite separate from the support role; for example, English auxiliary verbs are unlike other verbs in allowing subject inversion[39]:

(4) It is raining. - Is it raining?

(5) She wrote a book - BUT NOT: *Wrote she a book?

The trouble is that these two characteristics are separate and each define a different group of verbs, to which grammarians give distinct names[40]:

Support role: verbs that combine with a following non-finite verb are often called 'catenative verbs' (where the term 'catenative' means 'chaining' - Latin catena, 'chain'). This term includes verbs like get, keep, start, help as well as the traditional auxiliary verbs:

(6) She was/got chosen for the job.

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[39] Kroeger R. Paul. Analyzing Grammar. – Cambridge Univ. Press. 2005. – 383 p.
[40] Newson Mark. Basic English Syntax. - Bölcsész Konzorcium, 2006.-477 p.

(7) She was/kept talking.

(8) She ought/started to talk.

(9) She will/helped wash up.

Inversion, etc.: verbs that allow subject inversion (and other grammatical patterns to be listed below) are called 'operators', so the rule for subject inversion is: 'put an operator before the subject'. This term includes the verb be in all its uses, and not just when it supports another verb, and also the verb have when it means 'possess'. (This is an area where English grammar is currently changing; this use of have is much more popular with older speakers than with younger ones.) All the following sentences therefore contain operators which are not catenatives:

(10) She is ready. - Is she ready?

(11) She has some money. - Has she any money?

The clear cases of auxiliary verbs combine the two sets of properties, so we can provisionally define auxiliary verbs like this:

<u>Definition: An auxiliary verb is a catenative which is also an operator.</u>

The auxiliary verbs defined by this criterion are:

be when followed by a non-finite verb (is working, was chosen, is to go)

have when followed by a past participle (have finished)

do when followed by an infinitive (did know)

will, shall, can, may, must, ought

(for some speakers) used, dare and need.

2.3.1 Characteristics of operators

The characteristics of operators apply to English, but they are irrelevant to other languages. However they are fundamental to English grammar and cannot be ignored. The special role of operators has evolved in English since the time of Shakespeare, but it is now firmly established in all varieties of modern English.

Subject inversion: As pointed out above, the basic rule for forming interrogative sentences says 'put an operator before the subject'. Most verbs

(including most catenatives) cannot be inverted so this characteristic divides verbs cleanly into two classes: operators and non-operators. For example, have, be, do and will allow it, but get, start and want do not[41]:

(12) He was run over by a bus. - Was he run over by a bus?

(13) He got run over by a bus. - BUT NOT: Got he run over by a bus?

Negation. A clause is made negative by adding not or suffixed n't after its finite auxiliary verb:

(14) It is not raining. - It isn't raining.

(15) He is not ready. - He isn't ready.

(16) BUT NOT: *He got not run over by a bus. - NOR: He gotn't run over by a bus.

Do-support. If a clause is negative or interrogative but does not already contain an auxiliary, the appropriate form of do is added. Adding do is NOT possible before an auxiliary.

(17) He did not get run over by a bus. - Did he get run over by a bus?

(18) BUT NOT: He did not be run over by a bus. NOR: Did he be run over by a bus?

(19) NOR: He did not be ready. NOR: Did he be ready?

Adverbs. Some adverbs (e.g. never, sometimes, soon, obviously) can occur in 'medial' position, which is either just before or (preferably) after an auxiliary verb or just before (but not after) a non-auxiliary.

(20) People never get run over. BUT NOT: People get never run over.

(21) People never are run over. - People are never run over.

(22) He never is ready. - He is never ready.

Contraction. Many auxiliary verbs have a 'contracted' form, but no non-auxiliary does:

(23) It is raining. - It's raining.

(24) It keeps raining. BUT NOT: Itk'ps raining.

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[41] Dixon R.M.W. Semantic Approach to English Grammar. – Oxford Univ. Press. 2005. – 562 p.

(25) He is ready. - He's ready.

Agreement. Many auxiliary verbs (the 'modal' verbs) have no agreement form in the present tense.

(26) He will (NOT: wills) come.

A problem of terminology

We have defined auxiliary verbs as operators which are also catenatives, which has the effect of excluding operators that are not catenatives - the uses of be and have in (10) and (11). This has the advantage of preserving the traditional link between 'auxiliary verb' and the support role, but it faces a serious problem: the list of words picked out as auxiliaries is exactly the same as the list of operators! This is because be and have both have catenative uses as well as their non-catenative ones. Grammarians adopt two different positions on this problem[42]:

Auxiliary verb = operator that functions as a catenative. This definition excludes the non-catenative uses of be and have; it respects the traditional view but is hard to justify in terms of grammatical rules and generalisations.

Auxiliary verb = operator. This definition includes the non-catenative uses of be and have; it make the grammar better by reducing two classes to one.

On balance the second of these approaches seems preferable, but if we do adopt it, which of the terms should we preserve?

Operator. If we abandon the term 'auxiliary' we lose the possibility of comparing English auxiliaries with similar verbs in other languages, because 'operator' is based on characteristics that are specific to English.

Auxiliary. If we preserve 'auxiliary' we can make these comparisons - but we have given the term a completely new meaning.

Neither of these options is attractive, but there is a way forward. Suppose we distinguish between a general definition of auxiliaries (which applies across languages) and a language-particular definition of the auxiliaries in some particular language (which will obviously have to match the general definition). The general

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[42] Dixon R.M.W. Semantic Approach to English Grammar. – Oxford Univ. Press. 2005. – 562 p.

definition builds on the 'supporting role' of catenatives, but also says that there must be some other grammatical peculiarity to distinguish auxiliaries from other catenatives:

General definition:

An auxiliary verb is a verb that combines two characteristics:

Support: It supports another verb.

Other distinctions: It shares some other (and unrelated) grammatical distinctive characteristic with a small group of other verbs.

Definition for English:

An auxiliary verb is a verb that combines two characteristics:

Support: It can support another verb.

Other distinctions: It allows subject inversion, negation, contraction but it does not allow do-support and may not show subject agreement.

Notice how the definition for English is a slight modification of the general definition - it changes supports to can support, and it supplies a particular range of other distinctions. The support role is still relevant, because every auxiliary verb can be used to support another; but it is not crucial because the main distinctive load is carried by the other distinctions. The consequence of this definition is that a sentence like He is ready. contains an ordinary and straightforward auxiliary verb as far as the English definition is concerned, but this auxiliary verb is untypical in comparison with the general definition.

The crucial question is how to analyse sentences like (10) and (11), where be and have have non-catenative uses. There are two possible answers:

Most grammarians take the view that these are non-auxiliary uses of be and have, which commits them to using some other terminology which shows that even these uses of be and have allow subject inversion and so on - hence the use of 'operator'.

An alternative is the view that these verbs are auxiliaries. They share all the special characteristics but not the support role.

Unfortunately sentences like (10) and (11) are extremely common, so it is hard to avoid this choice; and it is even harder to fudge it by finding a compromise position in between!

2.4 Syntax of Auxiliary Structures in a Sentence

Lexical auxiliary is the term used for a set of verbs of modal or aspectual meaning which form chain-like structures with the main verb of the VG. The majority are followed by a V-to-inf form, but a few take the infinitive without to. They can be divided into three types according to whether their first word is (1) be; (2) have; (3) a modal idiom.

As with other to-infinitive uses, the lexical auxiliaries tend to point to a future event, though not invariably so. They express subjective estimations by the speaker as to the imminence of the event, the certainty, probability or usualness of the event taking place, or the speaker's duty or ability (based on knowledge or skill) to do something. Some of these auxiliaries have undergone semantic change, so they are not what they seem at first sight[43].

Be + Lexical item + to-infinitive

be going to	We're going to need more staff.	(prediction based on here.evidence)
be about to	The plane is about to take off.	(imminence of event)
Be due to	He's due to arrive at any moment.	(expectation of scheduled event)
be to	As a young girl, she little knew she was to marry the heir to the throne.	(planned event or destiny)
be bound to	There's bound to be some cheese in the fridge.	

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[43] Auxiliary Verbs. Article Last Accessed 2011. // http://www.en.wikipedia.org/auxiliary_verb

Be certain to	She is certain to resign.	(confident anticipation)
be sure to	He's sure to be waiting outside.	(probability)
be likely to	They're likely to win by several goals.	
be apt to	He's apt to ask awkward questions.	(tendency or usualness)
be liable to	This machine is liable to break down.	
be supposed to	We're not supposed to smoke in here.	(duty, general belief)
be able to	I am not able to guarantee the results.	(ability, possibility)

Note that a few of the lexical words in this list can also function as adjectives: an able mechanic; an apt quotation; a certain/ sure winner; the likely winner of the elections.[44]

Have or Have got + to-infinitive

Have and have got + V-to-inf   meanings

I have to finish these letters.   (obligation)

There has to be a solution.   (necessity)

I've got to go now. Oh, do you have to?   (obligation)

There's got to be a solution.   (necessity)

Like must, these combinations have meanings of both obligation and necessity.

In type 3, had better has the meaning of advisability and would rather/would sooner indicate preference. The Subject-Finite operator inversion characteristic of

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[44] Хаймович Б.С., Роговская И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке). – Москва, 1996. – 288 с.

be, have and other auxiliaries in interrogative and negative clauses is explained in, together with the requirement of a do operator by lexical verbs. As a reminder here, we exemplify have to and have got to in interrogative clauses, showing that while have to can function either as a primary auxiliary or as a lexical verb, have got to functions only as an auxiliary:

Have to	**Auxiliary**	**Lexical verb**
Interrogative	Have you to go?	Do you have to go?
	Don't you have to go?	
Declarative Negative	You don't have to go.	
Have got to	Auxiliary	
Interrogative	Have you got to go?	Haven't you got to go?
Negative declarative	You haven't got to go.	

2.4.1 Syntactical Functions with one Auxiliary Verb

In the finite VG with only one auxiliary, this auxiliary is necessarily the operator and, according to its type, selects a corresponding form of the lexical verb. The o v structure can express the following features of grammatical meaning, in addition to the obligatory choices of tense, finiteness, polarity and contrastiveness[45]:

Features	**Realisations**	**Example**
A1 modal	modal aux.+ V-inf	must drive
B2 perfect	have + V-en	has driven
C3 progressive	be + V-ing	is driving
D4 passive	be + V-en	is driven
With a lexical auxiliary:		

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[45] Хаймович Б.С., Роговская И. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка (на английском языке). – Москва, 1996. – 288 с.

be + about to + V-infis about to drive

The four basic combinations also combine with each other to make up more complex Verbal Groups, all of which function as one VG at Finite + Predicator in clause structure. The features modal, perfect, progressive, passive occur in ordered combinations, like the letters of the alphabet ABCD. Thus, for instance, B can follow A, or D can follow C, but not vice versa. A certain feature may be omitted, as in ACD, BD. Lexical auxiliaries can occur with any combination, as illustrated in the next section. The grammatical meanings listed above, which are realised by one auxiliary (the operator) + the lexical verb, are illustrated in the following passage. Forms of be occur as main verb, there is one main verb fell and also one 'phased' VG:

One day, as you are washing1 your hands, you happen to glance (2) into the mirror over the basin and a sudden doubt will flash (3) across your mind: 'Is (4) that really me?' 'What am I doing (5) here?' 'Who am (6) I?' Each one of us is so completely cut off (7) from everyone else. How do you know8 you are reading (9) a book? The whole thing may be (10) an illusion. How do you know (11) that red is (12) red? The colour could appear (13) blue in everyone else's eyes. A similar doubt, differently expressed, is (14) inherent in the well-known question: 'A tree that has fallen (15) in the forest, far from the nearest man – when it fell, (16) did it make (17) any noise?'

Be as main verb: 4, 6, 12, 14.

Be as aux. progressive: 1, 5, 9.

Be as aux. passive: 7

Have as aux. perfect: 15.

Do as aux. present: 8, 11.

Do as aux. past: 17.

Modal aux: 3, 10, 13

Phased VG with catenative happen to: 2.

This text illustrates the options listed as ABCD choices. It must be remembered, however, that all finite Verbal Groups also select obligatorily for tense, polarity and contrastiveness. This means that a full description of any one VG realisation would have to specify all these choices, as can be exemplified by 1are washing: finite, present, positive, non-contrastive, non-modal, + progressive, non-perfect, non-passive.

2.4.2 Structures with Two Grammatical Auxiliaries

6 modal + perfect   must have driven

7 modal + progressive   must be driving

8 modal + passive   must be driven

9 perfect + progressive   has been driving

10 perfect + passive   has been driven [20]

In combination with a lexical auxiliary:

11 modal + lexical-aux   must be about to drive

12 perfect + lexical-aux   has been about to drive

13 lexical-aux + progressive   is about to be driving

14 lexical-aux + passive   is about to be driven

Structures with two auxiliaries occur widely in both spoken and written English. The following extract is adapted from a report about problems facing language-school students when they come to the UK to study English:

It must be realised1 that many students will be going (2) abroad for the first time and may well be likely to feel (3) anxious about the kind of reception they will be given, (4) about the kind of work they are about to have to do5 or about the host family to which they happen to have been assigned. (6) Many of these worries

can easily be allayed (7) by giving them as much information as possible beforehand. In the past, some students have been apt to complain8 that they have had to face (9) certain difficulties in the first weeks owing to lack of sufficient information.

1 modal + passive;

2 modal + progressive;

3 modal + lexical-aux;

4 modal + passive;

5 lexical-aux + lexical-aux;

6 catenative (happen to) + perfect + passive;

7 modal + passive;

8 perfect + lexical-aux;

9 perfect + lexical-aux

2.4.3 Structures with Three Grammatical Auxiliaries

15 modal + perfect + progressive   must have been driving

16 modal + perfect + passive   must have been driven

17 modal + progessive + passive   must be being driven

18 perfect + progressive + passive   has been being driven

Verbal groups of three grammatical auxiliaries are more common in speech than in writing. With a modal or a lexical auxiliary, complex forms easily occur in spoken English, as in the following examples [20]:

...and (they) think the killer could be being protected locally

The matter could and should have been dealt with as set out above

Groups with the two forms been being are uncommon, but they can occur if they are needed. With a lexical auxiliary added there are now four auxiliaries:

19 modal + perfect + lexical-aux   must have been about to drive

20 modal + lex.-aux + progressive   must be about to be driving

21 modal + lex.-aux + passive   must be about to be driven

22 perfect + lex.-aux + progressive   has been about to be driving

23 perfect + lex.-aux + passive   has been about to be driven

24 progressive + lex.- aux + passive   is about to be being driven

Example: Then his application would have to have been made to the Commission by March.

CONCLUSION

The scope of a study such as this one is wide, aiming to investigate both the semantic and syntactic properties of auxiliaries in Uzbek and English languages that have so many of them.

I hope that sections on semantics will serve as an update to older work, to help refine the list of currently used auxiliaries and determine how they are being used in both languages. A second aim of the study was to group together the wide array of meanings, and find cohesive categories of meaning. The result was a list of two major categories, aspectual and agent-oriented auxiliaries, each divided into sub-groups. These categorizations are easier when they reflect cross- linguistic trends (i.e., completive and durative aspect, and the occasionally reported inceptive aspect). Agent-oriented modification such as 'suddenly' or 'accidentally' usually falls into the categories of adverbs, but here they are also grammaticalized as auxiliaries.

The notion of verbs offers a very useful insight into these constructions. At this point there are no strong Uzbek-specific syntactic tests to differentiate light verbs from auxiliaries, but these could certainly be discovered, and I suspect that all of the agent-oriented "auxiliaries" will fall into the light verb category. If so, there would be a robust collection of both light verbs and auxiliaries in one language, and any empirical differences would perhaps enrich the somewhat murky boundary between them. This is certainly an interesting area for further research. Given the small amount of literature on the difference between light verbs and auxiliaries, Uzbek, as a language which has many of both types, may have some noteworthy empirical differences between them upon further investigation.

According to our study the auxiliary verbs in English serve to:

- connect words and sentences;
- complete the sense of a main verb;

- change grammatical forms of words;

- make active or passive voice;

- make questions and negatives;

- indicate a change of time;

- form tenses;

- indicate change of mood.

The third chapter is devoted to the auxiliary verbs in Uzbek language. We have seen above that auxiliary verbs in Uzbek serve to give different meaning to the adverbs they come attached to. Having the particular features and meaning they also fall into different groups. For example, some auxiliaries show the process of action, some identify the modality of an action and so on.

According to our study of auxiliary verbs in Uzbek and Turkic languages, in Uzbek language and other Turkic languages there is no any independent auxiliary verb which has lost its meaning and used as an auxiliary verb compared to English Language. Some of the independent verbs function as an auxiliary verb and serve to give different meanings. They are as follows: бошла, ёт, тур, юр, ўтир, бўл, бит (битир), ол, бер, қол, қуй, чик, бор, кел, кет, юбор, ташла, сол, туш, ўл, ўт, ет, кўр, қара, боқ, ез. These auxiliary verbs are distinguished according to their specific features and have common traits. In Uzbek sentences, a lot of important meanings are expressed by the form of the lexical verb – for example questioning, negation, time, completion, continuation, repetition, willingness, possibility, and obligation.

As I mentioned above, comparative studying the auxiliary verbs in English and Uzbek langauges is of great theoretical and practical value. Though I studied this section of the English and Uzbek grammar far deeply I believe that it needs further and further investigation.

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