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IBI (India) = 4.260
OAJI (USA) = 0.350

SOI: [1.1/TAS](#) DOI: [10.15863/TAS](#)

International Scientific Journal Theoretical & Applied Science

p-ISSN: 2308-4944 (print) e-ISSN: 2409-0085 (online)

Year: 2020 Issue: 06 Volume: 86

Published: 22.06.2020 <http://T-Science.org>

QR – Issue



QR – Article



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THE DIFFERENCE AND PECULIARITIES IN ENGLISH AND UZBEK PARTICLES

Abstract: The given article is devoted to study English, Uzbek particles and their differences, usage, relationships with other words, grammatical functions and their peculiarities and the claims are shown to account for the behavior of the particle-verb construction when interacting with a wide range of other phenomena. The adoption of a further claim (iv) ECM subjects of small-clauses preferably or obligatorily (depending on the speaker) raise out of the small clause overtly, whereas ECM subjects of IPs need not - is then shown to be able to explain the pattern of grammaticality and acceptability judgments encountered in the so-called 'complex' particle-verb.

Key words: Particle, grammatical function, lexical meaning, function words, phrasal verbs, quasi-modal verbs, determiner phrases.

Language: English

Citation: Tojiyeva, D. S. (2020). The difference and peculiarities in English and Uzbek particles. *ISJ Theoretical & Applied Science*, 06 (86), 314-319.

Soi: <http://s-o-i.org/1.1/TAS-06-86-60> **Doi:**  <https://dx.doi.org/10.15863/TAS.2020.06.86.60>

Scopus ASCC: 1203.

Introduction

Underlying this paper is the idea that there exists such a thing as a 'particle'. Despite the existence of a vast literature on particles, and although linguists appear to share a general idea of what a particle is, it is not easy to define. It is especially difficult to find a definition that holds crosslinguistically or in an theoretic manner. For example, a common delineation of English particles is the set of words which may immediately precede or follow a non-heavy, non-pronominal, accusative-marked, in constructions where this combination immediately follows the verb (i.e. those words participating in the word-order alternation exemplified in (1)).

Crosslinguistically, this definition is insufficient. In Swedish, for example, particles must typically precede the relevant argument, while in Danish particles must follow it. In OV Germanic languages, particles are found in the so-called 'separable prefix verbs', but they necessarily follow the relevant .

Even in English, such a definition is insufficient, as it only applies to transitive particle-verb constructions. There are many verb + preposition combinations which do not take an object, but where

the prepositional element is still generally considered to be a particle (e.g. as opposed to a pure adverb). There are good reasons for grouping such prepositions together with other particles. One reason is that a number of particle verbs have optionally overt objects and exhibit that the word-order alternation when the object is overt. Similarly, other particle verbs participate in the unaccusative/causative alternation, where the latter use allows the transitive word-order alternation.

- a. The baby threw up.
- b. The baby threw {its lunch} up {its lunch}.
- a. The soup cooled down quickly.
- b. John cooled {his soup} down {his soup} by blowing on it.

Furthermore, words like *on* and *away* are typically considered to be particles, even though they are generally believed to be incompatible with nP objects in some of their most productive uses.

- a. John sang (*the song) on.
- b. John pounded away at the wall.

It is clear that a definition of particles which only picks out those which occur in transitive constructions is insufficient.

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It is also common to limit discussion of particles to words which are homophonous with prepositions. While such particles do seem to occur most frequently in English, there is good reason to not exclude other types of words in a definition of particles.

It has frequently been noted that some adjectives, and even the non-finite form of the verb *go* in *let go*, behave like particles in that they may precede or follow an object nP.

- a. He cut {open} the melon {open}.
- b. He let {%go} the reins {go}.
- a. They set {free} the slaves {free}.
- b. He wiped {clean} the window {clean}.
- c. They cut {short} the meeting {short}.

Analysis of Subject Matters

When all is considered, I do not believe it is possible to provide an theoretical definition that encompasses everything that linguists commonly refer to as particles; for this reason, I propose and defend the following theoretical conception of particles.

Particles are syntactic heads which need not project phrases and which may merge directly with a verbal head. This definition consists of a number of distinct theoretical assumptions [2].

First, particles are syntactic heads rather than nonsyntactic, morphological units.

Second, by saying that “particles need not project phrases”, I intend to include both words that never project phrases and words that optionally project phrases in my definition of ‘particle’. Only words that must project phrases are excluded. For example, canonical resultative secondary predicates are excluded, even though they otherwise have a similar syntactic distribution as projecting particles in my analysis below. Finally, I have two purposes in saying that particles are heads which “may merge directly with a verbal head”. One is to exclude any non-projecting or optionally projecting word that cannot occur with verbs (e.g. there may be nonprojecting heads that combine with nouns). The second purpose is that it allows us to capture words which are often considered particles but which appear in clauses lacking a verbal element. For example, it is normal to call the preposition *out* in *Out with it!* a particle, even though it is not accompanied by a verb.

In my definition, we can call this a particle because this same word may occur in constructions like *spit it out*, where I argue it merges directly with a verbal head. In combination with the syntactic structure I propose for the particle-verb construction, the definition above picks out most words crosslinguistically which have been called particles.

Finally, I wish to clarify for the reader what I do not intend to claim by providing the above definition. In line with most analyses, I do not claim that particles are a distinct lexical category alongside nouns, verbs and so on. I also do not claim that particles are necessarily the only optionally projecting heads; there may be optionally projecting words which do not merge with verbal heads. Last of all, it should be noted that the term ‘particle’ is multiply ambiguous in linguistics.

In addition to the class of words defined above, the term is commonly used to refer to ‘discourse particles’ such as *you know* or *well*, and it can also refer to a range of Case-marking suffixes and other postpositions in languages such as Korean or Japanese. I make no claims regarding these other types of particles, other than to say that they are distinct from the type of particle under investigation.

Research Methodology

Particles are function words that express grammatical relationships with other words. Function words are words that perform definite grammatical functions but that lack definite lexical meaning. Only one grammatical form can perform the grammatical function of particle in the English language: p-words. Similar in form to prepositions, p-words function as particles within three constructions in English:

- Phrasal verbs
- Quasi-modal verbs
- Determiner phrases

The following sections explain and exemplify the particle in English grammar.

Particles in Phrasal Verbs

The first grammatical construction in the English language that contains a p-word that functions as a particle is the phrasal verb. Phrasal verbs consist of a verb followed by one or more p-words. The p-word of a phrasal verb functions as a particle.

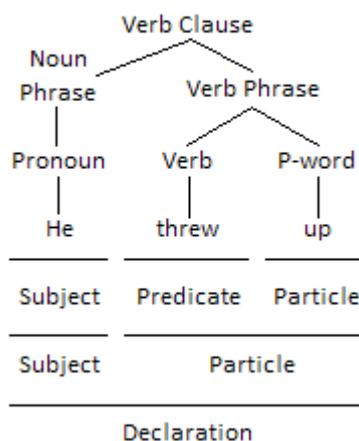
Examples of phrasal verbs include the following:

- call off (cancel)
- lay in on (criticize)
- let up (diminish, lessen)
- pass on (transmit)
- rule out (eliminate)
- throw up (vomit)

The following grammar tree illustrates the form and function of the phrasal verb including the function of the p-word as a particle:

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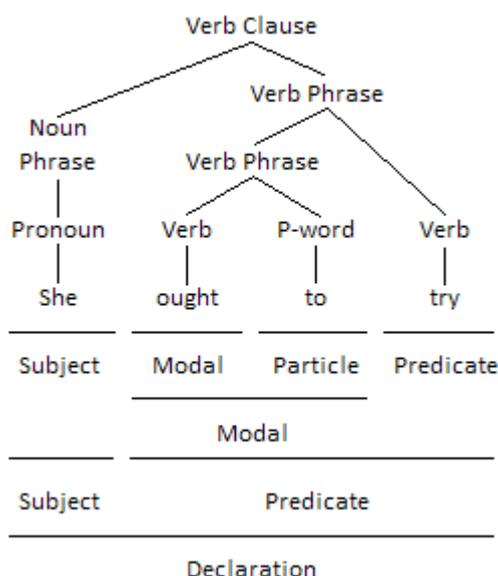
Picture 1. Particles in Quasi-modal Verbs

The second grammatical construction in the English language that contains a p-word that functions as a particle is the quasi-modal verb. The modal verb — a term that encompasses both full modal verbs and quasi-modal verbs — is a distinct auxiliary verb form of the English language that differs from prototypical verbs in grammatical form and grammatical function.

- ought (to)
- had better (had best)
- used to

The p-words of the quasi-modal verbs are *to* and *better (best)*. The following grammar tree illustrates the form and function of the quasi-modal verb including the function of the p-word as a particle:

Three English quasi-modal verbs contain p-words that function as particles:



Picture 2. Particles in Determiner Phrases

The third grammatical construction in the English language that contains a p-word that functions as a particle is the determiner phrase. In English grammar, more than one determiner in the form of a determiner phrase can function as the determinative of a single word or phrase.

- *The thirteen* books were each popular titles.
- *All her many* accomplishments impressed *the many* members of *both of the* search committees.

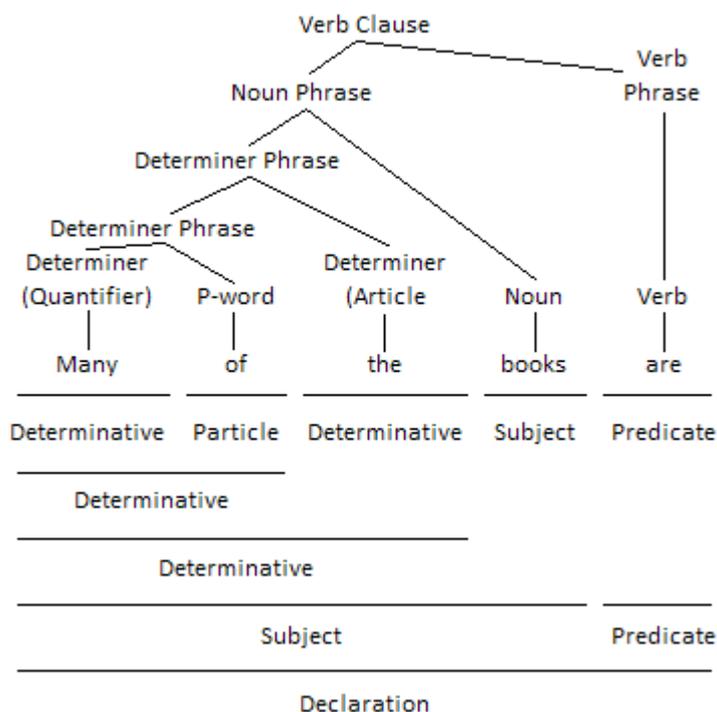
The following italicized determiners are examples of determiner phrases:

In determiner phrases such as *all three of the*, *any of their*, and *both of the* in the previous sentences, the p-word *of* functions as a particle. The following grammar tree illustrates the form and function of the determiner phrase including the function of the p-word as a particle:

- *All three of the* children refused to eat *any of their* vegetables.

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Declaration

Picture 3.

P-words perform the grammatical function of particle — which are function words that express grammatical relationships with other words but that lack definite lexical meaning — within phrasal verbs, quasi-modal verbs, and determiner phrases in the English language [3].

Particle is a grammatical function.

The grammatical form that can function as the particle in English grammar is the p-word. The p-words of phrasal verbs, quasi-modal verbs, and some determiners function as particles. The integral part of a systematic course of the studied language (Russian, English, Uzbek, and others) is the section about the function parts of speech (**function words**), **prepositions, conjunctions, particles**.

Knowledge of the functions and the correct use of linking words are indispensable condition for the development of coherent speech skills, the ability to make up phrases and sentences to find out the relationship of words, their semantics both in the isolated form and in the particular context.

So, prepositions, as well as other linking words, have no independent meaning. They are involved in the establishment of relations between nouns, pronouns, numerals and other words (above all - verbs) in word combinations or sentences. In this the syntax and to some extent the morphological functions of preposition are demonstrated.

The absence of prepositions in the language (for example, in Uzbek as in other Turkish languages) causes serious difficulties in teaching this section of

grammar and the need to overcome them on the basis of the comparative method, in particular, in comparison say of Russian prepositions with Uzbek postpositions and affixes. At present, in a rapidly developing linguistics, the dialectical study of all the phenomena occurring in the language has become the demand of time.

Analysis and results

A special place in this process takes the characteristic of two ontological nature of linguistic unities in the prospective of these categories of dialectics as general - private, phenomena - case, possibility - case, reason - consequence, form - sense. Even the third included rule of dialectical logic is used at all levels and stages of development of linguistics. It is of particular importance at disclosing the nature of mutually antithetical elements, developing in conjunction with the formation of semantic and structural relations in the system of the language. So, in this respect, it is possible to use the internal rules of the laws of included the third law at disclosing the relevant indications of significant and function words. The rule of the included the third reflects the oppositions between derivationally correlating linguistic phenomena. If opposites do not cover the whole meaning of the considered concept and between them there are significant additional qualities, then the included the third rule does not apply[4].

For the most part, the third situation is significant, generating the need for the intermediate conditions of the third law. The third included rule of

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dialectical logic incorporates in itself the quality of sides, obviously to each other. In this case two opposite phenomena are united in the third one, having the quality of two opposites.

The third intermediate rule is applied to disclose significant and function words. Thus, the main criterion for selection is the general categorical meaning of these words. Conversion of independent words into function words (and even into affixes) is closely connected with historical development of language.

So, when determining the nature of function words and their place in morphology of words, it is necessary to take into account the significant and functional meaning of words. In order to establish the differences between significant and proper function words, it is important the presence of linking function inherent by proper function words, and this is also morphological invariability, the inability to use them as a single word and their partial similarity with affixes. If we consider that one of the ways of the origin of affixes morphemes goes back to significant function words, then proper function words take an intermediate niche between affixes and significant function words.

This can be characterized in the following way:

Significant words → *significant-function word* → *proper-function word* → *function word* → *morpheme* (or in Uzbek terminology: *mustaqil so'zlar* → *mustaqil-yordamchi so'zlar* → *sof yordamchi so'zlar* → *affiks*).

Thus, in each function part of speech, the special category of linking-significant words are marked out acting as a link between the significant and linked parts of speech, thus ensuring the continuity of development of the language system and implementing the system of connection between heterogeneous phenomena.

Therefore, when studying significant and function parts of speech, it is permissible to mark out the third group of words – function-significant – acting in opposition to significant and function words included the third, in which the polarity is met, removed the opposition of both groups.

Function-significant words by their morphological features and abilities to independent usage, relate to a significant part of speech and in a linking function to the category of a function part of speech.

Therefore, it seems possible to study them as specific subgroups both in the framework of these significant parts of speech to which they are related functionally. (Among linking-significant words activity used in modern Uzbek language are the words: *аввал, илгари, олдин, бурун, қадим, муқаддам, боида, асосан, асосида, биноан, бўйича, мувофиқ, кўра, бошқа, бўлак, ташиқари, ўзга, ортиқ, бўйи, давомида, мобайнида, оша, бўйлаб, қараб, мос, боғлиқ, ҳолда*).

The transition of words with significant meaning in the category of words with the of auxiliary – a phenomenon, associated with expansion of semantic and stylistic meanings of a words and begins to develop the functional meaning[5].

In Uzbek language there are function and significant words partly close to morphological endings. Such words can be used independently. They are capable, to designate auto semantic lexical meaning and serve to indicate different grammatical meanings (post positionalization, conjunctualization, particulation of language).

The language essence of the function words is distinguished by its extremely complexity and multifunctionality.

In general, function words (postpositions, conjunctions, particles, etc) are grammatical categories, standing between vocabulary and grammar. In this case, auxiliary verbs, postpositions - names, postpositions - adverbs, adverbs - particles, allied words and others, by some of their properties are close to significant words on the other properties to the function words.

Auxiliary verbs, nouns and particles firstly, capable to act independently giving auto semantic the lexical meaning, and secondly, they are used as function words and serve to transmit various grammatical meanings, but even so, they do not lose the ability to change the meaning of words (they do not change time, personal endings, the meaning of nouns and soon).

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