

T.C.
SELÇUK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BİLİM DALI

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY ON TURKMEN AND ENGLISH
IN TERMS OF MORPHOLOGY

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Danışman

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ece SARIGÜL

147567

Hazırlayan
Kayum AHMEDOV

KONYA -2004

ÖZET

Bu tez temel itibariyle Türkmen öğretmenlerin İngilizce öğretimindeki karşılaştıkları zorlukları bir nebze olsun gidermek amacıyla, kelime grupları bazında Türkmençe ve İngilizce morfolojisindeki farklılıkları ve benzerlikleri örneklerle açıklayan bir çalışmadır.

Çalışmanın birinci bölümünde çalışmanın tarihçesi, çalışmanın amacı sunulmuştur.

İkinci bölümde, Türkmen ve İngiliz morfolojisine giriş, Türkmençe ve İngilizce'deki kelime oluşumu ve kelime yapıları verilmiştir.

Üçüncü bölümde de konunun içeriği olan, Türkmen – İngiliz kelime grupları ve karşılıklı örnekler verilmiştir.

Dördüncü bölümde ise, Türkmen öğrencilerine İngilizce öğretilirken öğretmenlerin dikkat etmesi gereken hususlar sıralanmış ve onlara bazı tavsiyelerde bulunulmuştur.

Sonuç bölümünde ise, bu çalışmanın değerlendirilmesi yapılmıştır.

ABSTRACT

This study explains morphological differences between English and Turkmen languages related to the parts of speech with the aim of lessening difficulties faced by Turkmen teachers of English.

In the first chapter, the background to the study, aim and scope of the study and field of study are presented.

Main purpose of the second chapter is to introduce the morphology of Turkmen and English and definition of word formation and structure.

The third chapter is concerned with parts of speech of Turkmen and English and the presentation of contrastive samples.

The fourth chapter presents some suggestions for the teachers of English in Turkmen classes in teaching word formation and morphological patterns.

The summary of the study is presented in the last chapter.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to my thesis supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Ece SARIGÜL for her guidance, supervision, and valuable support during the writing process of this thesis. Thanks to English Language Fellow Sally Ashton for proofreading and suggesting corrections.

I would like to express my gratitude to the teachers of Turkmen Language Teaching Department of Turkmen State Institute for their valuable opinions and analysis during my study. Moreover, I would like to thank the Turkmen State Science Academy for allowing me to use the resources.

In addition, my endless thanks go to my friends and my family who shared my difficulties during this study.

There are 30 letters in the Turkmen Alphabet.

No	Harpyň ady	Türkmen elipbiýinde okalyşy	Pronunciations In English
1	A a	a - at	/a/ - <u>cut</u>
2	B b	be - baýdak	/b/ - <u>bottle</u>
3	Ç ç	çe - çäýnek	(ch)- <u>chair</u>
4	D d	de - düýe	/d/ - <u>dark</u>
5	E e	e - elek	/e/ - <u>Elene</u>
6	Ä ä	ä - äýnek	/æ/ - <u>apple</u>
7	F f	fe - fabrik	/f/ - <u>factory</u>
8	G g	ge - gerb	/g/ - <u>garage</u>
9	H h	he - horaz	/h/ - <u>horn</u>
10	I i	i - iňňe	/i/ - <u>Eve</u>
11	J j	je - jorap	(j) - <u>jam</u>
12	Ž ž	že - žiraf	(zh) - <u>garage</u>
13	K k	ka - kirpi	/k/ - <u>carpet</u>
14	L l	el - limon	/l/ - <u>lemon</u>
15	M m	em - maýmyn	/m/ - <u>monkey</u>
16	N n	en - nar	/n/ - <u>nap</u>
17	Ňň	eň - töňňe	(ng) - <u>spring</u>
18	O o	o - otly	/o/ - <u>Noah</u>
19	Ö ö	ö - öktüz	(ir:) - <u>sir</u>
20	P p	pe - pişik	/p/ - <u>peak</u>
21	R r	er - ruçka	/r/ - <u>race</u>
22	S s	es - sagat	/s/ - <u>circle</u>
23	Ş ş	şe - şar	(sh) - <u>shark</u>
24	T t	te - top	/t/ - <u>toe</u>
25	U u	u - uçar	/u/ - <u>understood</u>
26	Ü ü	ü - üzüm	(ü) - <u>food</u> (Australian) [actually there's no exact word for representation of pronunciation of this letter in English]
27	W w	we - wertolýot	/v/ - <u>van</u>
28	Y y	y - yz	(?) - <u>enamel</u>
29	Ý ý	ýe - ýolbars	(y) - <u>yield</u>
30	Z z	ze -	/z/ - <u>zebra, zezem</u>

We pronounce most of the letters more or less like their English counterparts. The unusual letters are as follows:

Alphabet - English Equivalent:

Aa - always the long a, as in "father"

Ää - always the short a, as in "cat"

Çç -ch, as in "cheese"

Gg -when starting a word, voiced like the English "g" in "go". Within words, voiced like the throaty "g" in "bag"

Ii - ee, as in see,be, fee

Oo - always the long o, as in go

Öö - oo, as in good but rounder

Rr - r, pronounced with a slight trill

Uu - always the long u, as in flute

Üü - like u, but pronounced with rounded lips and higher in the throat as in food.

Ww -w, as in "water" (in Russian words, v, as in "very")

Yy - i, as in enamel

Ýý - y, as in yes

Ňň - ng, as in song

Žž - zh, as in pleasure (mostly found in Russian words)

Şş - sh, as in wash

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ÖZET.....	I
ABSTRACT	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
THE TURKMEN ALPHABET.....	IV

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the study.....	2
1.2. The aim of the study.....	3
1.3. The scope of the study.....	3

CHAPTER II

AN INTRODUCTION TO MORPHOLOGY AND TO THE TURKMEN – ENGLISH MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURES

2.1. Brief summary of morphology	4
2.2. Word structure and its constituents	5
2.3. Affixes and their variations	7
2.4. Parts of speech	11

CHAPTER III

PARTS OF SPEECH IN TURKMEN AND IN ENGLISH, AND THEIR CONTRASTIVE EXPLANATION

3.1. Nouns	15
------------------	----

3.1.1. Types of Nouns.....	16
3.1.2. Declension and identifying questions for nouns.....	18
3.1.3. Formation of nouns.....	21
3.1.4. Selected suffixes and prefixes.....	23
3.1.5. The number of nouns.....	33
3.1.6. Category of Possessiveness.....	35
3.2. Adverbs.....	38
3.2.1. Kinds of Adverbs.....	41
3.2.2. Simple adverbs.....	46
3.2.3. Complex adverbs.....	46
3.2.4. Derived adverbs.....	48
3.2.5. Degrees of adverbs.....	49
3.3. Verbs.....	51
3.3.1. Tenses.....	52
3.3.2. Suffixes.....	56
3.3.3. Verb types	61
3.3.4. Verb formation in Turkmen and their counterparts in English.....	68
3.4. Adjectives.....	73
3.4.1. Simple adjectives.....	75
3.4.2. Complex adjectives.....	75
3.4.3. Derived adjectives.....	79
3.4.3.1. The formation of adjectives.....	79
3.4.4. Types of Adjectives.....	81
3.5. Pronouns	87
3.5.1. Kinds of pronouns	89
3.5.2. Cases of Pronouns.....	101
3.6. Numerals.....	101

3.7. Conjunctions	105
3.7.1. Coordinating conjunctions.....	106
3.7.2. Subordination conjunctions.....	108
3.8. Prepositions.....	112
3.8.1. Kinds of postpositions in Turkmen.....	118
3.9. Modal words.....	118
3.10. Particles.....	122
3.11. Interjections	126
3.11.1. Manner and sound words.....	130
CHAPTER IV	
CONTRASTS AND SIMILARITIES OF MORPHOLOGICAL PATTERNS	
4.1. Suggestions for Teachers of English in Turkmen Classes.....	131
CHAPTER V	
5. CONCLUSION.....	147
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	149

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

After Turkmenistan became an independent country, English gained importance in all fields of life to exchange technical, scientific, cultural, and political information with other countries. At the present time our country is extending and strengthening the international relations in various ways. Therefore, English is one of the main subjects to teach and to learn in foreign language education. Nevertheless, there are very few studies in comparing Turkmen and English in the specific field of language.

It is necessary to carry out a contrastive study of Turkmen and English in order to find out the differences that may cause problems for Turkmen learners of English. Such a study would be useful for teachers of English to know important teaching points they must concentrate on during the teaching of English. This study is needed because there are few direct studies as in the morphological base between Turkmen and English.

The reason for writing this thesis stems from the desire to contribute to the contrastive study of the morphological structures of Turkmen and English. In this thesis, an attempt has been made to discuss some similarities and differences between English and Turkmen languages in terms of morphology and to give some useful clues for teachers of the English language.

In the next chapters, I am firstly going to give a summary of morphology of Turkmen and English and word structure with its constituents. Secondly, parts of speech and their counterparts in both languages and their affix variations in making new words are analyzed. Thirdly, the differences and similarities of the word formation process and morphological patterns, which have an important role in teaching English in Turkmen classes, are the main subject of analysis. Consequently, I will try to give some suggestions to teachers of English in teaching the word forms of two languages.

1.1. Background to the study

Contrastive linguistics is a branch of linguistics, which seeks to compare the sounds, grammars, and vocabularies of two languages with the aim of describing the similarities and differences between them. Such a description may be carried out for its own sake, or its purpose may be to contribute to the task of foreign language teaching. A contrastive analysis is the technique associated with contrastive linguistics and it may be defined as:

“A systematic comparison of selected linguistics features of two or more languages, the intent of which is... to provide teachers and textbook writers with a body of information which can be of service in the preparation of instructional materials, the planning of courses and the development of classrooms techniques”. (Hammer and Rice, 1965).

The basic method is followed in this study. Materials used in this study were based on comparing two different languages by different aspects of the language. There are some other contrastive studies, which analyzed grammars and structures of Turkmen and English. However, most of them are written in Russian.

There are other useful works, which have been beneficial, and it would be appropriate to mention some of them.

In the findings of *A.Ibrayimov* who contrasted grammars of Turkish Languages, (1972) “Türki Dilleriň Deňeşdirme Grammatikasyndan Gollanma Part-1”, we can find some parts of speech and their contrastive exemplifications. Comparison of parts of speech was made between other Turkish dialects. The morphological comparisons are made between Turkmen and English languages by sentence patterns and some useful common examples are given in the study of *Nepesova, R. (1992)*. “Contrastive Morphology of Turkmen and English Languages”. *Türkmen Ylymlar Akademiyasy*. *Nepesova, R., Solovjeva, S. (1982)*. “A Contrastive Analysis of English and Turkmen Verbal Morphologies” where some useful affixes are taken into account. Post-positions and their usage in Turkmen are given in the study of *Hidirov, M. N. (1947)* “Türkmen Dilindaki Posleloglar we Olaryň Ulanyşlary”. Another work on morphology is the work done by *Hudajgulyýew, M. (1985)*. However, the study is written in Russian and only verbs were

presented. “Analitichiskiye Konstruksi Glagola i Slojniye Glagola v Turkmenskiye Yazike”. *Voprosy Sovetskoy Tyurkologi*.

1.2. The aim of the study

This study aims at presenting the differences and similarities in terms of morphology of Turkmen Language and the English Language to point out difficulties encountered in the teaching of English to the Turkmen learners as a foreign language. Giving some advice on these difficulties will attempt to help the teachers of English in teaching English as a foreign language. At the end of this study, suggestions and examples are given, which should be useful for the teaching of English in Turkmen classes.

However, in this study, focus will be on general points about morphology: word classes and their constituents. Parts of speech and their relationship with each other, and the aspects of word - formation process forming words are our main questions in this study.

The objective of this thesis is to introduce students the basic concepts of English and Turkmen morphology in order to enhance their command and understanding of the language and familiarize word formation processes.

1.3. The scope of the study

This study examines Turkmen and English at the level of morphology. First, it gives an account of the words in Turkmen and in English in terms of the parts of speech and then describes word-formation processes in both languages. Then, some clues are given to solve possible difficulties while teaching the English language to Turkmen learners.

Besides the standard language, there are many other dialects in the Turkmen, which are not included in the scope of this study. The standard dialect of Turkmen and English have been the subject of this study, and the examples about the parts of speech are given from the most commonly used affixes accompanying grammatical functions.

CHAPTER II

AN INTRODUCTION TO MORPHOLOGY AND TO THE TURKMEN – ENGLISH MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURES

2.1. Brief summary of Morphology

Morphology, as a sub-branch of linguistics deals with the internal structure of word forms. It is an independent part of the grammar, and studies deals with word – formation, word changes and parts of speech.

“Morphology solves two problems in linguistics: learning the structure of the word and word derivation system. It deals with the internal structure of word-forms.” (Lyons, 1968).

Morphology is the study of the structure and form of words in language or a language, including inflection, derivation, and the formation of compounds. When linguists study morphology, they are interested in the different categories of morphemes that make up words (including bound, free, derivational and inflectional morphemes), as well as morphological processes for forming new words. At the basic level, words are made of “morphemes.” These are the smallest units of meaning: roots and affixes (prefixes and suffixes). Native speakers recognize the morphemes as grammatically significant or meaningful.

Morphology deals with the inner structure of words. It is interested in the smallest units in words that bear some meaning and how they can be combined to form words. First, what are meaning bearing units? We can say that the words “rabbits - towşanlar” have two units that contribute to the meaning of the words: “rabbit or towşan” convey the main meaning, and “-s”, “lar” add the information that the word is plural. The smallest unit in words that bear some meaning, such as “rabbit”-“towşan” and “s”-“lar”, are called morphemes. Morphemes like “rabbit- towşan” that contribute the main meaning of a noun, verb, etc. are also called stems, while the other morphemes are known as affixes. The second question is then, how morphemes

may combine to form words that are legal in some languages. Two kinds of processes can be distinguished here. They are called inflection and derivation;

1) Inflection is usually taken to be the process of adding a grammatical affix to a word stem, forming a word of the same class as the stem. Adding plural "s /lar, ler" to a noun stem, for example, is an inflectional process.

2) Derivation, when adding an affix to a word stem, results in a word with a class different from that of the stem.

For example, "schoolyard" is made of "school" + "yard", "makes" is made of "make" + a grammatical suffix "-s", and "unhappiness" is made of "happy" with a prefix "un-" and a suffix "-ness".

As it is pointed out above, inflection produces new forms of a single lexeme, while derivation produces new lexemes. Morpheme, root, base, and affix have a fundamental role to form new words in a language.

2.2. Word structure and its constituents

"Morpheme" comes from the Greek name "morphos" (=shape or form). Morphemes are the smallest meaningful pieces of language that make up words. Words may consist of one or more morphemes; (any part of a word that cannot be broken down further into smaller meaningful parts, including the whole word itself). The smallest units of meaning may be complete simple words (e.g. man, run, big) or parts of complex words (e.g. un-, -faith- and -ful in unfaithful), which are called morphemes.

In English, we can divide morphemes in different ways. One way to categorize them is in terms of bound and free classes. Bound morphemes are, as their name suggests, those that must be attached to a free morpheme. They cannot stand alone as a word. For example, un - is a bound morpheme; in the word "doors" there are two morphemes: "door" and "-s". The morpheme (morfema) "door (gapy)" can be used by itself, so it is called a "free (özbaşdak)" morpheme. But the morpheme "s" cannot be used by itself. Therefore, "-s" is called a bound (bagly) morpheme.

A free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand alone as an independent word (e.g. 'cat'). By now, you may have figured out that free morphemes are morphemes that can stand alone as words, thus giving them "free" status. Words such as "kind (mahir)," "boy (oglan)," "desk (tagta)," "the," "to," "clock (sagat)," "run (ylga)," are all examples of free morphemes.

Bound morphemes tend to be affixes (e.g. prefixes and suffixes), attaching to the beginnings and ends of words. Free morphemes, on the other hand, tend to be word roots, the strong building blocks conveying much of the core meanings of words. Bound morphemes that are prefixes or suffixes can be divided into derivational and inflectional categories. "Cat / pişik" is a morpheme, and "-s /-ler" is a morpheme. Every morpheme is either a base (baza, düyp) (that is, a morpheme that gives a word its meaning) or an affix, something that is added, usually at the beginning or end of English words.

Base ("baza") (also called a stem "düyp") is an element (free "özbaşdak" or bound "bagly", root "kök" morpheme or complex "birleşik" word) to which additional morphemes are added. A base can consist of a single root morpheme, like the word "kind / mahir" of "kindness" but a base itself can contain more than one morpheme. For example, we can use the word "kindness" as a base to form the word "kindnesses"; to make "kindnesses", we add the plural morpheme, spelled "-es" in this case, to the base "kindness".

Root (kök) is a (usually free) morpheme around which words can be built up through the addition of affixes. The root usually has a more specific meaning than the affixes that attach to it. E.g. "öy" (home), "daş" (stone), "agaç" (tree); -The root "mahir" can have affixes added to it to form "mahirli – kindly", "mahirlilik – kindness", "kinder-mylayym", "kindest- mylayym".

In Modern Turkmen, the "root" can be monosyllabic (baş, dil, ak, köp), bi-syllabic (ata, yedi, ene), and polysyllabic (jahennem, gyrgyzy). Some roots are used in the formation of many words.

For instance:

-Baş + ly (head), başly+k, (title), başla+ma (to start), başlan + gyç (beginning), etc.

Here the word "baş" (head) is a prolific root. Although most of the roots have one meaning some of them may have two or more meanings (such roots are called homonymous roots); e.g. at

(horse/ to throw/name of something), dil (to cut in piece/ tongue/ language), gol (arm/goal) and daş (stone/ far from here).

Finally, morphemes consist of several grammatical categories. Morphemes may be defined as the minimal unit of grammatical analyses. These grammatical categories in Turkmen language are numerals, cases, and possessives.

2.3. Affixes and their variations

Most languages, especially agglutinating and inflectional ones, differentiate between the stem of the word, which carries the basic meaning, and various affixes or attachments that carry additional, often grammatical, meanings. There are several kinds of affixes: suffixes are attached to the end of the stem; prefixes are attached to the front of the stem; infixes are put in the middle of the word.

e.g. Prefix:bi-cycle-ing(suffix)= (complex word) bicycling

-dis-grace-ful =disgraceful

-in-tolera(te) -able = intolerable

-re-vis(ion)-ist = revisionist

-un, co - operate-ive + ly = uncooperatively

-un-like+ly-hood = unlikelihood

An affix is a bound morpheme, which only occurs when attached to some other morpheme such as a root or a base. One example is the “derivational affixes” used to make new words of different grammatical categories from a base or a root. Unlike the root, the affix has a grammatical meaning but not a lexical one. An affix cannot be used alone as a meaningful part. The other type is “inflectional affix,” used to indicate aspects of the grammatical function of a word such as plural, past, or comparative (“-er” in English and in Turkmen “-rak”, “räk”) endings.

Suffixes are the most common; both Turkmen and English use them. For example, the past tense of most verbs is formed “-ed/ -dy, di” to the stem; the present participle is made by adding

“-ing/ -yar”; the plural of a noun is made by adding “-s / lar, ler”. In Turkmen, using prefixes to form new words is very rare. Suffixes are either derivational or inflectional; the majority of derivational suffixes are class changing. Inflectional affixes are applied before derivational affixes and derivational affixes at boundaries; (-ion, -ish, -al, -ous, -in,-ness, -hood, -ist, -izm, -anti...) “nation-al-ist”, al + ma + dy + lar, iş – ç i -ler.

1. Inflectional affixes are the ones that do not change a word’s part of speech or meaning (in a significant way) but rather add grammatical information about the number (singular/plural), tense, case, person (first, second, third), and any of a few other categories.

e.g. eat+ing = verb + pres. part.

box +es = noun + plural

box +??? = noun + singular

box + es = verb + pres. tense, 3rd sing (as in hitting people)

English nouns are used either in singular and plural forms. In the standard case, you get the plural form by adding an “-s / lar” to the end of the noun stem, however, there are some exceptions, where the plural is not built by simply adding an “s / lar” to the stem, but rather by changing the stem: foot - feet, in irregular verbs. Unlike English, in Turkmen, there is no irregularity in forming nouns.

Inflectional morphemes never change the category and "core" meaning of the word. In English, we have very few (a total of eight) inflectional affixes and all of them are suffixes.

Inflectional Affixes (Turkmen and English):

Affix	Grammatical Function	Examples
-s	3rd person singular present; s: forms third-person singular form of verbs,	She works.
-ed	past tense	She worked.
-ing /-yar	present participle/ progressive-ing: forms present-participle verbs	She is working.
-en/-ed , in Turkmen; yldyk, -dy, di, -yl, il, uldyk,ndy,ndi	past participle en -: forms past tense of verbs- ed -: creates past-participle of verbs	She has worked. She has eaten. We were robbed. The chair was stolen.
-s/(in	plural ; creates plural nouns : alma-lar,	The tables are mine.

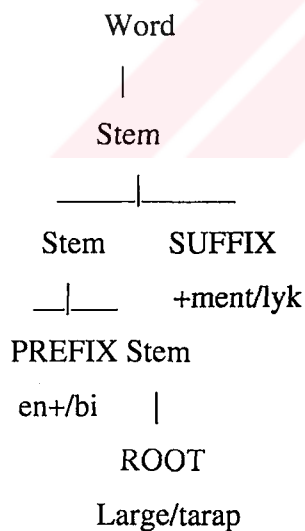
Turkmen) lar,ler	işçiler	
- 's -in Turkmen; in,in,nyn,nin (case suffixes)	possessive: forms possessive nouns,	Jan's friend left- Jany'n dosty gitdi.
-er / in Turkmen; dan,den,	comparative-er: forms comparative form of adjectives and adverbs,	Jan has taller children than Sue. Meret Merdandan uzyn .
-est /in Turkmen; has, in	Superlative- est: forms superlative form of adjectives and adverbs	Jan has the tallest children. Meret synpynyn in uzyny.

There are more ways inflection can be irregular: Suppletion (instead of a suffix, the whole word changes): be - am - are - is - was - were – been; go - went – gone; good - better – best; bad - worse – worst; some - more – most.

2. Derivational affixes: the stem says one thing; the affix turns it into something else.

e.g. Construct, construct + ation = verb + affix = noun ; Bad, bad +ly = adjective + affix = adverb

A. Parse tree for “enlargement” and Turkmen word “bitaraplyk”:



B. Positional analysis of enlargement

Prefix root suffix

en+ large +ment

bi + tarap+ lyk

This is the structure produced by the word grammar.

The parse tree structure shows that the word “bitaraplyk” is composed of the stem “bitarap” plus the suffix +lyk, and the stem “bitarap” in turn is composed of the prefix bi+ plus the root “tarap.” By giving simple positional analysis we can say “bitaraplyk” is a noun while the affix “-lyk” reveals to us which parts of speech “bitaraplyk” belongs to.

Some derivational affixes of two languages;

Noun Affixes	Verb Affixes	Adjective Affixes	Adverb Affixes
-ant, -gy, gi, yş, iş, wuk, wük	-ate -en -ize	-able -al -ful	-ly -ward -wise
-er- (in Turkmen) -çy, çy	(in Turkmen) a, e, al, el, yk, ik, jar, jer, yl-da,	-y -ous (in Turkmen) sy, si, agan, egen	Turkmen;- yl, il, n, yna, ine, ygna, laýyn, leýin
-hood- lyk, lik, -ment-ness-tion	ilde		

A derivational affix changes the word meanings and creates new meanings when it is added to a word. e.g. suw-a (to plaster), suw-çy (the man who waters the garden), suw-luk (a device to keep water in), suw-jar, suw-sa (being thirsty), and suw-ar (to water).

We divide derivational affixes into two categories by their functions and adding forms in Turkmen.

We add them to the root of the word; ek-in (crop)-çi-lik, guý-guç-ly, gaş-lyk, çiş-lik-çi (the person who cooks good kebab), duz-ly (salty).

Sometimes they do not create new words but change the word by degrees in meaning. Diminutives (little, -ish-) or intensifiers are examples for affixes: gyz-cagaz (a little girl/ poor girl), oglan-jyk (a little boy), ak-ja (whitish), or ajymtyk (hotter).

Turkmen is an example for an agglutinating language that makes extensive use of suffixes. One example where more suffixes are used is “Annaberdiyewlerinkidenmikayinle?”

Anna - proper name

-berdi- second proper name

- yew- specific suffix of family name
- ler- plural suffix in Turkmen-in-possessiveness, case suffix
- ki = 's possessive suffix
- den- ablative case suffix
- mi - suffix for question
- ka- suffix of supposition
- ka+yin - particle -le – particle

Turkmen language, like all other Turkish languages, contains all specific characteristics of an agglutinative language. Therefore, affixation has a very important role in producing words.

In Turkmen, the main and active way of forming new words is morphological where different words are formed by affixes. Nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs are formed in this way.

2.4. Parts of speech

The words in every language fall into classes that are called parts of speech. Each part of speech has characteristics of its own. The parts of speech differ from each other in meaning, in form and in function.

Different parts of speech have different lexical meanings. For example, verbs are words denoting processes (to work-işlemek, to live-yaşamak); nouns are names of objects... (table- (in Turkmen) stol, boy-oglan); adjectives are words expressing properties (good - gowy, bad - yaramaz), etc.

Some parts of speech have different grammatical categories, e.g. verbs indicate mood, tense and aspect, voice, person and number; nouns have the category of number and case; adjectives have degrees of comparison, etc. Other parts of speech are invariable – they have one form. These parts of speech are prepositions, conjunctions, particles, modal sözler, sözsonylar, ümlükler, etc.

These characteristic features will be described in detail when each part of speech is considered separately.

Besides, all words may be divided into three main groups: concrete words, functional words and independent elements:

1. Concrete/notional words have distinct lexical meanings and perform independent syntactic functions in the sentence – they serve either as primary or secondary parts of the sentence. The following parts of speech verbs, nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, and adverbs belong to this group. Speakers can add new content words to language, called "open class" vocabulary because it is open to additions.

2. Function/structural words differ from notional/content words semantically- their lexical meaning is of a more general character than that of notional words (e.g. in, and, even). Moreover, they are sometimes altogether devoid to show the full meaning (e.g. the articles –the- and –a -, the conjunction –that-the preposition –of, etc). Function words do not perform any independent syntactic function in the sentence but serve either to express various relations between the words in a sentence (e.g. –the trees- “in” the garden, Tom “and” Joe , etc.) or to specify the meaning of a word (e.g. “the” book, “a” book, “even” dull, “only” tomorrow, etc.). They do not change in the derivational and inflectional process and they have different specific characters from other parts of speech. The following parts of speech are to be treated as structural words : (articles), particles, prepositions and conjunctions and (in Turkmen) sözsonlylar (postpositions). In general, speakers cannot add new function words to the language, and so this is the “closed class” vocabulary. The number of words is definite.

3. Independent elements are words which are characterized by peculiar meanings of various kinds (e.g. yes-hawwa ,no- yok, certainly-elbetde, oh-ah, alas-yetiş, etc/). They have no grammatical connection with the sentence in which they occur, i.e. they do not perform any syntactic function in the sentence (e.g. He `certainly` knows all about it). Independent elements can even serve as sentences themselves (e.g. Yes. No. Alas!). The following parts of speech belong to this group: modal words, interjections, ses we obraz anladylan sözler (sound and manner words) (words of affirmation and negation which are studied under “modal words” in Modern English and Turkmen).

We know the grammatical meaning of the word from the root or from its affixes. Their membership to the parts of speech is their grammatical meaning. We study how words are formed (morphology) and to which word classes they belong to.

Nouns are identifying words, or names. Nouns identify persons, places, or things. Verbs are action words in a statement. Without them, it is impossible to put sentences together. It is the verb, which says something about the noun: dogs bark, birds fly, fish swim. Besides nouns and verbs, there are other kinds of words that have different functions in statements. They are pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, etc... All of these kinds of words are called parts of speech.

The traditional parts of speech composed eight kinds, excluding the two articles (a/an, the). In modern English, there are eleven parts of speech; nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, manner words, particles, numerals, and interjections whereas in modern Turkmen language there are twelve of them. Parts of speech in Turkmen contain almost the same kinds of word groups of English counterparts. But there are sound / manner words and postpositions which counterparts do not exist in English.

Morphology of old Turkmen language differs from modern Turkmen by the number of main parts of speech and by the grammatical categories that they belong to. There were about seven kinds of parts of speech in old Turkmen language, but now in Modern Turkmen, they are twelve:

1. Atlar (nouns) – idea (pikir), flute (tüydük), happiness (şatlyk)
2. İşlikler (verbs) – wait (garaş), know (bil)
3. Sypatlar (adjectives) - tall (uzyn), unknown (bilinmeyen), flimsy (inçe) , blue (gök)
4. Çalyşmalar (pronouns) – some (kabir), my (menin), his, all (hemme), that (şu,şo)
5. Sanlar (numerals) - one (bir), fifth (beşinji)
6. Hallar (adverbs) –slowly (asdajyk), soon (birazdan), carefully (dikkatlyja), down (aşak)
- 7-Sözsonu kömekçiler (post-positions) - (English counterparts are prepositions) - in, at, above (üstünde), for (tarapa, üçin), down (aşaga), near (yakynynda)
- 8-Baglayjylar (conjunctions) - and, but, or, for, because, although, while
- 9-Ownuk Bölekler (particles) - pick up, turn on, drop off, and fool around

10-Ümlükler (interjections) - Rats! Dang! Wow! Hey! Yo!

11-Modal sözler (modal words) –could, might, should...

12-Ses ve obraz añladýan sözler – (sound and manner words)

Some words have independent meaning and they are classified as main parts of speech: for instance, nouns, adverbs, verbs, numerals, pronouns, and adjectives. Only nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs can be the product of word-formation and mainly these form classes are used as bases in the formation of derivatives.

If somebody learns a new word as a newly acquired piece of property, as a possession that will be a new word for him, it will be more apparent to him if he has sufficient knowledge about each word as the name of an idea. Every new word that we learn, gives us a new idea. This new idea opens the way to other related ideas. This accumulation of ideas builds up our knowledge. For example, e.g. “civics”- “civic”- “civilian”; “civil”- “civility”-“civilization”- “civilizes”.

As it can be observed above, we can create new words by affixes, depending on our knowledge about grammar. Every student should learn word formation by affixation, as one of the word formation processes, in order to enlarge his vocabulary. To learn this process we must learn specific affixes used in different parts of speech and their characteristics. Beginning to learn a new foreign language requires good knowledge about native language structure and the word forming processes. Having good knowledge about the native language makes target language learning easier.

CHAPTER III

PARTS OF SPEECH IN TURKMEN AND IN ENGLISH, AND THEIR CONTRASTIVE EXPLANATION

In this chapter, parts of speech of Turkmen and English languages are presented in order to set up a frame within which the morphological structures of words are contrastively analyzed.

3.1. Nouns

Nouns are names of person, place, or thing, human beings, animals, materials and abstract notions (e.g. table, house, man, girl, man, lion, snow, sugar, love, beauty). They are “thing” words - although “things” can include all sorts of abstract ideas that might otherwise look more like verbs or adjectives. In various languages, they are marked, by affixes or particles, as to their number, gender, definiteness, and especially cases.

Definiteness concerns the extent to which we are talking about a specific thing or event, one that is known to the speakers, or about something less well defined, such as any old thing, or something not specific.

In English, the article “the” marks the definition. It can also be marked by other words, such as “this, that, my, yours”, and so on. The indefinite, is marked by the article “a” or “an”, as well as the plurality without an article, or words such as “(one, two) some, and any”, etc. In Turkmen, definiteness, also have almost the same counterparts in English, except articles.

Semantically all nouns can be divided into two main groups – proper names (e.g. John, London, the Thames) and common nouns.

3.1.1. Types of Nouns

There are many different types of nouns. As you know, we capitalize some nouns, such as "Canada" or "Louise," and do not capitalize others, such as "badger" or "tree" (unless they appear at the beginning of a sentence). In fact, grammarians have developed a whole series of noun types, including the proper noun, the common noun, the concrete noun, the abstract noun, the countable noun (also called the count noun), the non-countable noun (also called the mass noun), and the collective noun. We should note that a noun could belong to more than one type: it could be proper or common, abstract or concrete, and countable or non-countable or collective. In contrast, in Turkmen language, there is no countable or non-countable noun classification.

1). **Proper Nouns – Has Atlar.** We always write a proper noun with a capital letter, since the noun represents the name of a specific person, place, or thing. The names of days of the week, months, historical documents, institutions, organizations, religions, their holy texts, and their adherents are proper nouns. A proper noun is the opposite of a common noun.

e.g. Beltane is celebrated on the first of May.

Abraham appears in the Talmud and in the Koran.

Aynabat Aşgabatdan geleli bari Türkmenbaşynyn Ruhnama kitabyny Oguljahanlara eltip bereyinem diymandi.

2). **A common noun (jyns atlar)** is a noun referring to a person, place, or thing in a general sense - usually, you should write it with a capital letter only when it begins a sentence. A common noun is the opposite of a proper noun.

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

a- Countable nouns denote objects that can be counted. They may be either concrete (konkret atlar) (e.g. book-kitap, student-talyp, cat-pişik) or abstract nouns (abstract atlar) (e.g. idea-pikir, word-söz, effort-alada, zahmet).

b- Uncountable nouns are the names of objects that cannot be counted. They may be also concrete (e.g. water - suw, grass- ot, wood-agaç) and abstract (e.g. information-habar, amazement-gen bolma, time-wagt).

e.g. According to the **sign**, the nearest town is 60 miles away.

Many child-care workers are **underpaid**.

The Diary of Anne Frank is often a child's first **introduction** to the history of the Holocaust.

3). A **Concrete Noun (konkret at)** is a noun, which names anything (or anyone), that we can perceive through our physical senses: such as touch, sight, taste, hearing, or smelling. A concrete noun is the opposite of an abstract noun.

e.g. The **judge** handed the **files** to the clerk.

Whenever they take the **dog** to the beach, it spends hours chasing **waves**.

4) An **abstract noun (abstrakt at)** is a noun, which names anything that we cannot perceive through our five physical senses, and is the opposite of a concrete noun.

e.g. Buying the fire extinguisher was an **afterthought**.

People who are **nostalgic** about **childhood** **amuse** Tillie.

Dostluk – doganlyk üçin janymyz gurban!

5) - A **collective noun (Topar at)** is a noun naming a group of things, animals, or persons. We could count the individual members of the group, but we usually think of the group as a whole rather than as one unit. We need to be able to recognize collective nouns in order to maintain subject-verb agreement. A collective noun is similar to a non-countable noun, and is roughly the opposite of a countable noun in English ; (**Synp, juri, topar, goşun, halk, süri**...in Turkmen).

e.g. The flock of geese spends most of its time in the pasture.

The collective noun **the flock of geese** takes the singular verb "spends."

Juri toplamak üçin hat yazylady. Synpa gelmeyanler galarlar.

The above classification is not our main perspective to examine nouns but they are important to show how, where and in which positions we form new nouns.

Nouns are studied in cases, possessives, and numerals. Therefore, we can form new nouns easily from numerals, possessives, and cases by the help of suffixes. The most complex aspect of nouns is cases, which is also known as declensions.

3.1.2. Declension and identifying questions for nouns

Case is the form of the noun that shows the relation of the noun to other words in the sentence. English nouns have two case forms – the common case and the genitive case, e.g. the child- the child's father, an hour – an hour's walk. The noun suffixes -s and -'s indicate either plurality or possession. They both sound the same in the spoken language, although they are distinguished in the written form. Be careful not to confuse these suffixes with a derivational suffix with the same form. The genitive case is formed by means of the suffix –'s. The –'s is added to singular nouns and also to irregular plural nouns, e.g. men's, children's, women's.

Nouns are changed in cases by case suffixes in Turkmen. Case and possessive suffixes connect words to show the right meaning in a sentence. Thus, the role of case suffixes is a bit more important to learn. In Turkmen, nouns can accept case, possessive, and plural suffixes all at the same time after each other to found perfect relationship among words in a sentence. These suffixes are not derivational but they are inflectional suffixes. The first case is the “nominative”, roughly the subject of the sentence in Turkmen and in English. The rest of the cases are referred to as oblique or objective.

In Turkmen, there are some specific suffixes for each case whereas in English prepositions or postpositions are used. We will give more explanation about them in the following paragraphs.

- 1- Accusative - the direct object of the verb: He threw the ball. – Ol topy zyndy.
- 2- Dative - the indirect object: He threw the ball to John. – Ol topy John-a zyndy
- 3- Ablative - expressed in English with the preposition “from”: He threw from first base.
- 4- Time / Place are expressed in English with prepositions such as “at” or “in”: We were at the hotdog stand in the stadium.
- 5- Genitive - the possessive form, is often expressed in English with the word “of”, but also with the case suffix “-’s”: It was John's ball.
- 6- Instrumental - expressed in English with prepositions like “with”: He hit it with a bat.

Agglutinative languages such as Turkmen should be thought of as having postpositions that are attached to the noun, since they are very consistent and easy to recognize, unlike the cases in English. Turkmen cases are ^{also} classified in Russian style.

Nouns in cases in Turkmen

Nouns in Turkmen language possess the category of case. In contrast with Turkmen language, the situation with “case” in English is different, because, for over a thousand years the English language has been “dropping” out the cases; the whole of the case system, at present, is hinging upon the agglutinative “-s” (/z/-/s/-/iz/).

Cases and their suffixes:

	Vowel Endings	Consonant Endings
Nominative	--- (no change) pagta - cotton Gök Depe - Goek Depe (a town)	--- (no change) gazan - pot käşir - carrot(s)
Possessive	nyň, niň (nuň, nüň)- in English “of” or –‘s pagtanyň - ~ cotton's Gök Depeniň- ~ Goek Depe's	yň, iň (uň, üň) gazanyň- ~ pot's käşiriň- ~ carrots's
Dative	-a,-ä or -na, -ne- in English “to/for” pagta - ~ to cotton Gök Depä- ~ to Goek Depe	-a, -e gazana- ~ to the pot käşire- ~ to the carrots
Accusative	ny, ni- “at/in/within” pagtany - ~ the cotton (direct ob.) Gök Depeni- ~ Goek Depe (d.o.)	y, i gazany- ~ the pot (d.o.) käşiri- ~ the carrot(s) (d.o.)
Time/Place	da, de or nda, nde pagtada- ~ in cotton Gök Depede- ~ in Goek Depe	da, de gazanda- ~ in the pot käşirde- ~ in carrots
Instrumental	dan, den or ndan, nden--“from / than” pagtadan - ~ from cotton” ”Gök Depeden- ~ from Goek Depe	dan, den gazandan- ~ from the pot” käşirden- ~ from carrots”

1-The Nominative Case answers; Kim? Who; Näme? What? , Nire? Where? It is used for the subject of the sentence and sometimes for non-specific direct objects. Gök Depe gowy. = Goek Depe is nice.

2-The Possessive Case answers; Kimiň? Whose?, Nämäniň? Of what? , Niräniň? Of where? It is usually used to show simple possessive relationships. Gök Depäniň häkimligi = Goek Depe's mayor's office. However, it is sometimes used in the ways unfamiliar to English speakers, most notably in prepositional contexts: Gök Depäniň ýanynda = by Goek Depe, near Goek Depe.

are not vowels. Nevertheless, if a word, which is changes by a case suffix, is of a foreign origin, it retains 'k' or its last letter without changing.

Baş -Nominative	barmak (finger)	edebiýat (literature)
Eýelik- Genitive	barmagyn (of finger)	edebiýat + yn (of literature)
Ýöneliş-Dative	barmaga (to finger)	edebiýat + a (to literature)
Ýeniş- Accusative	barmagy (the finger)	edebiýat + y (the literature)
Wagt-orun –Locative	barmakda (on finger)	edebiýat + da (at/in literature)
Çykyş -Ablative	barmakdan (from finger)	edebiýat + dan (from literature)

Unstable vowels like 'i, y, u, ü' are omitted while they are changed into the genitive, dative, accusative cases in Turkmen language.

Now let's see how true words are changed by the suffixes:

e.g. howuz (lake), tomus (summer), gelin (bride), sygyr (cow)

Baş	howuz (lake)	tomus (summer)	gelin (bride)	sygyr (cow)
Eýelik	howz+uň (of the lake)	toms + uň (of summer)	gelniň (of bride)	sygryň (of cow)
Ýöneliş	howz+a (to the lake)	toms + a (to summer)	gelne (to bride)	sygra (to cow)
Ýeniş	howz+y (the lake)	toms + y (summer)	gelni (the bride)	sygry (cow)
Wagt-orun	howuz + da (in the lake)	tomus +da (in summer)	gelinde (at bride)	sygyrda (at cow)
Çykyş -	howuzdan (from the lake)	tomus + dan (from summer)	gelinden (from bride)	sygyrdan (from cow)

Other possible changes of word forms from case suffixes are as follows:

- 'i, y'- in the dative case some nouns which end in 'i, y' vowels change into 'a, e'; yaby (horse)-yaba (to horse), geçi (goat)-geçä (to goat)
- 'e' – in the accusative case some nouns of which end in 'e' change into 'ä'; köçe (street) – köçäni (the street), göle (calf) - göläni (the calf).

3.1.3. Formation of nouns

In Turkmen language, nouns are classified into three groups as simple, complex, and derived nouns by their morphological structures.

1). Simple Nouns

Most nouns in Turkmen, like in other languages, involve simple nouns. They may be of monosyllabic or may be of more than one-syllable (i.e. polysyllabic).

e.g. Maşyn (car), derya (river), daş (stone), gün (sun), at (horse), köpek (dog), ýol (road), adam (msn), inek (cow).

All the nouns in Turkmen that cannot be divided into a root and an affix should be regarded as simple nouns.

2). Complex nouns

Forming nouns in a morphological - syntactic way; goşma (complex nouns), tirkeş (repeated nouns), gysgaldylan atlar (abbreviated nouns). The constituents of complex nouns (noun groups) in Turkmen are nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, and numbers.

e.g. Ýaşuly (old man), demirýolçy (railway-worker), demirýol (railway), gelneje (sister-in-law), bedenterbiýeçi (physical training teacher), elguş (hunter bird), düýeguş (ostrich), Nurberdi, Göktepe, başatar (name of the gun), unaş (flour soup), Aýbibi., bilesgeliji (curious), aýakgap (shoe), günbatar (west), onýyllyk (decade), Türkmenabat, Daşoguz, Aýgül, kırkgünlük (melon); toothbrush (diş çotkasy), handful (aya dolusy), drawback, postman (poçtaçy), father-in-law (gayyn ata), commander-in-chief (harby serkerde), passer-by (ötegçi), court martial (harby kazyyet).

Formation of complex nouns:

Noun + noun: book+case = bookcase (kitap tekjesi), writing table, demir+gazyk=demirgazyk (north pole), atgulak, suwoty, çayhalta, Gökdepe, kümüş hançar (silver dagger), demir çemçe (metal spoon), ýol+başçy (director).

Adjective + noun: saryguş (yellow + bird), göknar (poppy), Garagum (black + sand), Akgözel (white + beauty).

Noun + verb: at+ bakar (horse breeder), günebakar-sunflower, orunbasar (assistant), Gurtgeldi.

Numerals + noun: kırk- forty, leg-aýak, kırkaýak (the name of an insect), yüz+ başy (captain), on+başy (corporal), başdaş (five stone – the name of children game)

Numerals-adjective: üç-three, aýy – pepper =Üçajy (the name of the place), yeke (one) + el (hand) = ýekelli (a man with one hand or disabled),

Verb + verb: düş-düş (the name of the bug which hangs down from the roof)

Numerals + verb: bäşatar (five + bullet weapon), altyatar (six bullet weapon)

3). Derived nouns

Derivational affixes form derivative nouns. In English, common noun derivational suffixes are; “-er-, -or, -ist, -ess, -ee” form derived nouns; e.g. singer, naturalist, authoress, legatee; and “-ness, -ion- (-tion/sion, ation), -ity, -ism, ship, -ance, -ism; -ment: lateness, rotation, ignition, security, socialism, elegance, movement

In Turkmen, we encounter the formation of nouns in a morphologic-syntactic way. Nouns create new nouns in the relationship with other parts of speech (Noun + Noun, Noun + Verb, Noun + Adjective and etc...) and get specific derivational affixes.

Nouns derived from nouns

The main derivational affixes for nouns are “-çy, -uw, -im, -le...” in Turkmen and their possible counterparts in English are “-ant”, “-er”, “-hood”, “-ment”, “-ness”, “-tion”, “-ship” (and others) The main inflectional affixes of nouns are affixes of cases, possessives and numerals.

3.1.4. Selected suffixes and prefixes

Besides suffixes in Turkmen language with the help of prefixes, some words are created. Nouns also form new nouns with prefixes. Note these nouns are not originally Turkmen words. They are loan words (i.e. some Persian words). Prefixes “na”, “bi”... add a negative meaning to the word. Their counterparts in English are “un, in...” Negative prefixes convey the concept of 'not' as well as related concepts such as 'opposite of', 'lacking', or simple 'bad'. The prefix “-bi” expresses the idea of “without”. It does not affect vowel harmony:

e.g. tarap – side, bi + tarap- neutral, bi + tarap-lyk - neutrality , bi + günä + lik- innocence, bi (not)+ günah (sin, guilt) = bigüna (innocent) , na + saz= nasaz, na + malim= namalim , bi + many = bimary, bi + tertip = bitertip.

The above forms can then combine with the *-lik/-lük/-lyk/-luk* forms to form nouns.

Suffixes **-çy, çî** “-er, -r, -or” - These suffixes form new nouns in the following examples:

The suffix **-çy or -çî**, according to vowel harmony, functions like *-ist or -er* in English to denote occupation, profession, or position.

-y = profession; = jî, çî – baker +y – bakery – çörek bişiriji

a) iş –work, işçi-worker, okuw-school, okuwçy-pupil

In certain cases where the verbs change into nouns, the suffix becomes -jy or -ji:

e.g. diňlemek- to listen, diňleýji - audience/listener, okamak -to read , okay + jy— read+er, ýasamak - to craft , ýasaýjy- master

traktor (tractor) - traktor + çy (tractor + ist)

terjime (translation) –terjime + çî (translator)

b). qualifies a person: - *er* (noun -- one who) = ly, çy, çî – in Turkmen. The “- er” suffix is frequently a noun suffix (remember, the suffix “-er” can also be an adjective, e.g., tall, taller, and tallest):

ýalan (lie)- ýalan + çy (lia + r)

gyýbat – gyýbat + çy (gossip - teller)

A barrister, for example, is only one who practices at the bar (i.e., lawyer).

A chronicler is one who chronicles. An Icelander is one who lives in Iceland.

e.g., actor, impostor, counsellor, aggressor, director, editor, agitator, assessor, annotator, conspirator, inspector, navigator, aviator, decorator, nominator.

-Ça, çe- create “diminutives”/ meaning “**little**” in English - ýorgan + ça, düşek + çe, gursak + ça, haly + ça (little carpet), temen + çe

-ly, -li- make proper nouns and adjectives from the noun stem : Agaly, Şirli, Babaly, Nurly, Dürli

-Çylyk, çilik, çuluk -“ity” guş +çy + lyk, öy + çü + lik, adam + çy +lyk (humanity), myhman+çy +lyk (hospitality), içlilik

-ystan, istan, üstan- Türkmenistan, çöl + üstan (desert), gül + üstan

-daş, deş- “ship”-yol + daş (comrade), yürek + deş, il + deş (citizenship), garyn + daş (relatives)

-lyk, lik- -“ness” - ship: baş (head) – başlyk (head of the company), kör (blind) - körlük (blindness), el (hand)-el + lik(gloves), kül (ash)- kül+lük (ashtray), dyz (knee)-dyz +lyk (knee-breeches)

- ship (noun suffix) - (abstract nouns denoting different kinds of relationships)

The noun suffix “-ship” may be added on to a noun to show quality or ability of something.

The word ambassadorship, for example, is the rank and office of an ambassador.

e.g. relationship(gatnaşyk), friendship (dostluk), partnership (hyzmatdaşlyk), membership(agzalyk).

e.g. His friendship with Carole slowly turned into a relationship.

I'm going to go into partnership with SIP and that will automatically give me membership at the golf club.

-hood; (abstract nouns denoting different kinds of 'families' or classes): childhood, motherhood.

e.g. Childhood and motherhood / fatherhood are two very important stages in our lives.

In addition, we have some other affixes that do not obey general rules of affixation to make new nouns. They add to neologisms in Turkmen:

izm- The noun suffix “- ism” frequently means the belief in something.

e.g.-Atheism, for example, means someone who does not believe God exists.

-keş- gybat – gossip , gyybatkeş - gossip; çilim – cigarette; çilimkeş- smoker, nas - chewing tobacco, naskeş- tobacco chewer.

-dar- The suffix, “-dar”can make personal nouns out of other nouns. It is not affected by vowel harmony.

e.g. bergi – debt, bergidar- debtor; tarap-side, tarapdar- supporter.

-ity - is a derivational suffix which changes the part of speech from adjective to noun as : (-lyk, -lik) noun+noun, noun+adjective.

e.g., actuality, reality (dogrulyk), individuality (şahsylyk), eventuality, electricity (elektrik), publicity (halk tarapyndan bilinen).

Nouns derived from other parts of speech

-lik/-lük/-lyk/-luk-in Turkmen; -hood,- ness,- ity-ance /ence , ship- in English . The nouns formed with mentioned suffixes are different from one another with respect to the root and meaning.

These suffixes function to create abstract nouns, like **-hood, -ness, or -ity** in English. They adhere to vowel harmony. The suffix “-ness” is one of the suffixes which makes nouns from adjectives. . It is used to make nouns from adjectives, although not every adjective can be modified in this way. Here are some common adjectives which become a noun when “-ness” is added. E.g. happy, sad, weak, good, ready, tidy, and forgetful.

e.g. Everybody deserves happiness in their life. To be happy is a basic human right.

There was a lot of sadness in the office when people learned of his illness.

His readiness to have a personal word with everybody at the funeral was much appreciated.

He is such a forgetful person. Such forgetfulness cannot be excused.

-ity- is another noun suffix that is used to change adjectives into nouns. Here are some adjectives whose noun forms are made in this way: possible, probable, responsible, complex, hilarious, scarce.

Note that the spelling changes in these conversions:

e.g. Everything was possible, but the probability, or even possibility, of Jason returning home unharmed was remote.

I was given a great deal of responsibility in my new job.

English “-ance / -ence” (form nouns from adjectives and verbs) - Turkmen “lyk, lik” : -ance and -ence are suffixes that are used to make nouns from adjectives and (sometimes from) verbs : absent, silent ,independent, important , admit, appear, exist

e.g.

Her absence was not noticed during the silence of prayer.

The importance of independence for teenagers should not be underestimated.

Admittance to the theatre is not permitted once the show has started.

His appearance did not permit him to be admitted.

Examples in Turkmen ; gözəl- beautiful, g \ddot{u} zellik – beauty, köp - much, many, çaga –child, çagalyk – childhood, mert - brave, mertlik- braveness.

Dost (friend) - dostluk (friendship)

Dogan (brother) - doganlyk (brotherhood)

Adam, ynsan (human) - ynsanlyk (humanity)

Kişi (man) - kişilik (personality)

Gül (a rose) - güllük (a rose garden)

Noun suffix - ment - e.g. achievement, embarrassment, equipment, engagement, arrangement, involvement.

a. suffixes **-lyk, lik**, forming nouns referring to **place, location, or area**.

Daş –stone, daşlyk- pebbling area

Agaç-tree, agaçlyk –wood+s.

Dag-mountain, daglyk -mountainous area

b. Forming new nouns from adjectives *with (lyk, lik, luk, lük)- ness, ity*; aklyk, inçelik (thinness), zorluk (difficulty), şorluk (saltiness), şirinlik (sweetness) uzyn-uzynlyk (length).

These suffixes can also make nouns and adjectives from numerical expressions.

bäş	Five	bäşlik	five-Dollar/ Manat note
bir ýyl	one year	bir ýyllyk	For a year
on üç	Thirteen	on üçlük	Bus number 13

The following suffixes make nouns and adjectives, which show purpose.

gün	Day	gündelik	diary
-----	-----	----------	-------

ýetmek	to suffice	ýeterli	enough
el	Hand	ellik	glove

c. We use “**lyk, lik, luk**” with pronouns to form new nouns: - **meaning “side”**, support

Men (I) – men+lik (up to me)

Sen (you)- sen+lik (up to you) (on your side)

Ol (he, she, it)-ol+luk (up to him) (supports him)

Biz+lik (up to us), öz+lük, olar+lyk, kim+lik (which side you support)

d. Suffixes “lyk, lik” are used with **-daş, deş-** “**ship**”: ýoldaş -ýoldaşlyk (to be a partner/partnership), watan (motherland) –watan+ daş (citizen) -watandaşlyk (citizenship)

-ly,li –in the same sense, suffixes come after a noun alone to make new noun forms and denote location:

Aşgabat-Aşgabatly (a person from Ashgabad)

Daşkent-Daşkentli (a person from Tashkent)

-dy, di, ildy, uldy: - ing: Nouns which express sounds of the nature or reflect the sounds of some actions in the environment: Çytyr + ty (crackling), iňňildi (groaning), horrul + dy (snoring), bazzyl + dy (buzzing).

Nouns from verbs

Verb + Noun: allow – allowance, act - actor / action, accommodate - accommodation, adore – adoration.

-çy, çî (in Turkmen, these suffixes are used as noun+noun maker affixes) – **er:** Help –helper, dance-dancer (tansçy), hit-hitter, direct- director,visit-visitor

Many nouns in Turkmen language are made from verbs with the help of derivational affixes. Examples of these derivational suffixes, which help to form new nouns from verbs, are shown below:

l -iş, uş, yş, üş –“tion / -sion”, “ment”, “ing” – are derivational because they change the part of speech from verb to noun in English. Sometimes they are translated as “-me, ma”, noun making suffixes.

The above suffixes make nouns from verbs in the following illustrations:

a) They denote action or position:

gül (to laugh)-gül+üş (laughing at)

bak (look)-bak+yş (looking process)

dog (to give birth) – dog+uş (giving birth)

ýyg (to mass)- ýyg+yş (gathering)

ek (to sow, to plant)- ek+iş (sowing,planting)

ýüz (to swim) –ýüz+üş (swimming as an action)

b) They can form abstract and ordinary nouns when these derivational suffixes come after other derivational suffixes. *tion / -sion* (noun suffixes create nouns from verbs)

-tion (or less frequently), -sion (both pronounced with a 'sh' sound on the initial letter) are noun suffixes that are used to make nouns from verbs. Here are some common verbs whose noun forms are made by adding -tion:

e.g., vacation, foundation, mission, conclusion, hibernation, delusion, humiliation, explosion, inspiration (tasir ediş / tasir etme)

admit + admission (kabul ediş), alternation (üytgediş), inform- information (bildiriş), decide – decision (karar beriş) , describe , multiply (köpeldiş).

Note that adjustments are necessary to the spelling in each case:

e.g. He admitted he had lied and this admission landed him in court.

The dress will have to be altered and I'm going to have the alteration done professionally.

“ment” (nouns from verbs and adjectives) - combination of -“iş, yş + me,ma” in Turkmen:

yalbar (to implore) - yalbaryş (begging)

yeň (to beat) - yeňiş (victory)

ut (win) - utuş (winning)

2 -yk, ik, uk, ük, ak, ek, k – don't have direct counterparts in English:

The nouns derived with these suffixes are in the following examples:

a-they denote instrument:

suwa (to plaster)- suwag (plaster)

dara (to comb)-darak (comb)

gaz (to dig) - gazyk (stake, pile)

tut (to catch)- tutuk (pale)

çiş (to skewer, to spit) - çişik (fat)

b- They form nouns from verbs referring to the root meaning: -k, -ek, -ak

gork (to fear, to be frightened) -gorkak (coward)

ürk (horse) to be frightened -ürkek (timid, shy, fearful)

ýat (to lie down) - ýatak, ýalta (lazy)

3 -yk, -ik - showing injury of the human body and the name of an action:

a)-asgyr, üsgür (to sneeze, to cough) – asgyryk, üsgürük (sneeze, cough)

b)-çap (to cut) –çap+ yk (cleaved) – “yk,-ik” the suffix equivalents may be “-ed” or the root form of a word in English.

çyk (to go out) –çyk + yk (dislocated)

bur (to wrench) -buruk (pucker)

ýan (to burn) –ýan+yk (burn)

4 -gy, gi -one of these derivational suffixes are added to some verbs with respect to the last vowel.

a). Abstract nouns:

söý (to love) -söýgi (love)

b). Nouns of things.

İç (to drink) -içgi (alcoholic drink)

bur (to wrench) -buruk (pucker)

yan (to burn) –yan+yk (burn)

4 -gy, gi -one of these derivational suffixes are added to some verbs with respect to the last vowel.

a). Abstract nouns:

söy (to love) -söygi (love)

b). Nouns of things.

İç (to drink) -içgi (alcoholic drink)

At (to throw) -atgy (scarf)

Other examples:

Al (take) -algy (money owed to one, loan)

Ber (give) - bergi (debt)

Ur (to beat) - urgy (to being effected from something /case psychological)

5 -iji, yjy, üji, uju = “- er, or”

The nouns derived with these suffixes are semantically different from each other as follows (they form also by the help of ‘y’ letter).

a). Nouns denoting status and quality. They have genitive function and they denote profession:

sat (to sell) – satyjy (salesman)

söndür (to extinguish) – söndüriji (extinguisher)

al (to buy, to take) –alyjy (buyer, customer)

ýaz (to write) – ýazyjy (writer)

bil (to know)- biliji (wise, scholar)

ýüz (to swim)- ýüzüji (swimmer)

sür (to drive)- sürüjü (driver)

b). -ýyjy, ýiji-sözle (to tell, to say something)-sözleýji (speaker), diňle (listen)-diňleýji (listener/the audience, ýasa (to make) -ýasaýjy (maker, producer)

When adding the -ist suffix to a word, you have the noun -- one who.

Example: conformist, copyist, cyclist, philologist, royalist, nonconformist, antagonist, apologist, archeologist, chronologist, economist, geologist, meteorologist, mineralogist, mythologist, zoologist, alchemist.

6-wuk, wük, waç - suffixes form nouns, which become names of instruments:

-oýun (game)- oýna (to play)-oýnawaç (a toy)

-ýel (the wind)-ýelpe (to wave)- ýelpewaç (fan)

7-im, ym, um, üm - suffixes form nouns that denote a process and situation:

ak(to flow) -akym (current, trend, movement)

bil (to know, to learn) -bilim (science)

böl (to divide) –bölüm (division, department)

öl (to die) -ölüm (death)

giý (to wear) -geým(clothing)

8 -gyç, giç, guç, güç - These derivational suffixes create new nouns from verbs and generally denote objects:

ýan (to burn)-ýangyç (fuel)

Süz (to strain)-süzgeç (strainer)

Tut (to hold)- tutguç (holder)

Poz (to clear, to undo)-pozguç (eraser)

Guý (to pour) -guýguç (metal cast)

English noun forming suffixes:

Suffix form/ General	Suffix Meanings	Example	Literal meaning
-ic	'a thing' 'a substance'	topic	'that which pertains to a subject or item of discussion'
-ment	'one that is related to'	segment	'a thing which is cut'
-s	'that which pertains to'	pathos	'the feeling'
Abstract			
-ence / -ance	'an act of' 'a state of'	prominence	'the result of jutting forth'
-ion	'the process of'	action	'the result of acting'

-ive	'the result of'	missive	'the result of sending' (or 'that which was sent')
-sis		genesis	'the process of birth' ('the beginning') - doguş
-y		biology	'the act of studying living things' (or 'the study of life forms')
-ism	'the belief' 'the practice'	baptism	'the practice of dipping'
-ity	[name of a quality]	verity	'the quality of being true'
Agent			
-ate –		advocate	'one who speaks toward (for) something'
-er / -or –	'one who' 'that which'	worker	'one who works'
-ent / -ant –		servant	'one who serves'
-ist –	'one who engages in a belief or practice'	communist	'one who practices communism'
Location			
-arium	'a place where'	aquarium	'a place where water is'
-ary / -ory		dormitory	'a place for sleeping'
Diminutive -le / -ole / -cle	'little'	muscle	'a little mouse'

3.1.5. The number of nouns

The plural of a noun is usually made generally by adding “s” to the singular in English while it is represented as “lar, ler” in Turkmen. An important point for English nouns is category of “number”.

Number, of course, refers to how many of the item we are talking about. There are three common numbers: Singular, meaning one; plural, meaning more than one; and somewhat rarer, the dual, meaning two. You can see the significance of the dual in our own use of words such as couple (jübüt), pair, and so on.

Thus, when it is a question of “windows” and “tables”; “ağaçlar” and “talyplar”, for example, we are more or less on solid ground. The plural suffixes are “-lar, ler” instantly follow the noun. We can form the plural of “beauty”, for example, but “beauties” are not so many different samples of “beauty”, but a number of “beautiful women”. With the same sense in Turkmen

language, we do not use abstract nouns with plural suffixes, e.g. not “insanlyklar” but “insanlyk (humanity), myhmansöýerlik (hospitality), azatlyk (freedom)”...

Nevertheless, some nouns that have plural meanings are regarded as singular nouns and can take the plural suffixes (lar, ler).e.g.

topar (group) - toparlar (groups)

halk (community) – halklar (communities)

goşun (troop) – goşunlar (troops)

We know when we added “lar, ler” after single nouns, they mean plural nouns in a normal way. However, when a noun describes a “pair/couple things/objects” name, it doesn’t need to get “lar, ler” plural suffixes as in English when we add the plural suffix “s” after a noun. We write and pronounce these words without changing their single forms: köwüş (shoes), el (hands), gaş (eyebrow), ellik (gloves), dodak (lips), yaňak (cheeks), erkek balağy (trousers).

Sometimes, uncountable nouns such as ‘suw’ (water) and ‘howa’ (air) are used in the plural sense in Turkmen: ‘suwlar, howwalar’. In different statements, we use “lar, ler”:

a-To make the meaning stronger and more effective, they can be added after singular nouns (where they are originally singular) : ýürek+ler, boý+lar, kelle+ler,

-“Billerim agyrdy”. - (I am so tired, “idiomatic”).

-“Könüller, ýürekler bir bolup başlar

Tartsa ýygyn erar topraklar, daşlar”. (“Türkmenin”, Magtymkuly)

b-To show family or to mention their whole members: - Muratlar, Cerenler, Ahmedowlar –

Plural suffixes are specific for nouns and this characteristic helps to identify and differentiate them from other parts of speech. By their meaning, nouns can have both a singular and a plural meaning;

Singular: kitap (a book), çaga (a child)

Plural: kitaplar (books), çagalar (children).

3.1.6. Category of Possessiveness (Possessive Suffixes): Değişlilik kategoriyasy

Unlike English, the Turkmen language also adds a suffix to the object of possession. This may at times be redundant (Meniň kakam geldi. = My father-(my) came.) But often the possessive participle is omitted (Kakam geldi. = Father-(my) came.) So the suffix alone shows possession.

Possessive forms: “-’s or of” in English; we normally use the genitive or possessive “ - ’s” structure when we are referring to ownership and possession, people and animals, personal and professional relationships, or the origin of something in a country or organization:

e.g.

Mark's uncle has just bought a Porsche.

Mark's Uncle Frank is Sheila's oldest brother.

Pig's liver is full of iron and vitamins.

He has strange tastes: he prefers goat's milk to cow's milk.

Possession endings in Turkmen mainly have the following function: it denotes the sort of the person (i.e. first, second, third) to whom it belongs. In other words, in Turkmen each of the first, second, and third persons have particular possessive suffixes peculiar to itself as follows:

They denote to whom or to which thing one object or something is belonging to. Thus, nouns get affixes to show this possessiveness.

Singular

Plural

First person: -m -im, ym, um, üm -myz, miz -imiz, ymyz, umuz, ümüz-

Second person: -ň -iň, yň, uň, üň -ňiz, ñyz -iňiz, yňyz, üňüz, uňuz

Third person: -y, i -sy, si -y, i -sy, si

Vowel ending	Consonant Ending	Vowel ending	Consonant Ending
My -m kakam, my father ejem, my mother	My -ym, -im (-um, üm) balygym, my fish itim, my dog	Our -myz, -miz kakamyz, our father ejemiz, our mother	Our -ymyz, -imiz (-umyz, ümiz) balygymyz, our fish itimiz, our dog
Your (sing, informal) -ň kakaň, your father	Your (sing, informal) -yň, -iň (-uň, üň) balygyň, your fish	Your (plural, formal) -ňyz, ñiz kakaňyz, your father	Your (plural, formal) -yňyz, -iňiz (-uňyz, üňiz) balygyňyz, your fish

ejeň, your mother	itiň, your dog	ejeňiz, your mother	itiňiz, your dog
His, her, its -sy, -si kakasy, her father ejesi, her mother	His, her, its -y, -i balygy, his fish iti, his dog	Their -sy, -si kakasy, their father ejesi, their mother	Their y, -i balygy, their fish iti, their dog

Note that the second noun is in its "possessed" form with the appropriate -i, -y, -si, or -sy ending.

E.g. **Singular** -1st watan + ym (my country), ata + m (my father)

2nd watan+ yň (your country), ata + ň (your father)

3rd watan + y (his, her, its country), ata + sy (his, her, its father)

Plural -1st watany+myz (our country), atamyz (our father/s)

2nd watanyňyz (your country), ata +ňyz/ ata + lar + yňyz (your father + s/father)

3rd watan+y (their country), ata+ lar + y/ata + sy (their father+s /father)

Nouns with possessive endings accept relational suffixes at the end of the word. Nouns with the first and second person possessive suffixes are declined normally.

e.g. Öyüm (my house) gülüň (your rose)

Baş-Nominative öyüm (my house) gülüň (your rose)

Eýelik -Genitive öyümiň (of my house) gülüniň (of your rose)

Ýöneliş-Dative öyüme (to my house) gülüňe (for your rose)

Ýeňiş -Accusative öyümi gülüni

Wagt-orun -Locative öyümde (in my house) gülüňde (on your rose)

Çykyş -Ablative öyümden (from my house) gülüňden (than your rose)

Nevertheless, with the third person possessive suffix a pronominal 'n' is inserted.

e.g. açary (his / her key), atlary (their horses)

Baş-Nominative: açary (his / her key), atlary (their horses)

Eýelik -Genitive: açarynyň (of his / her key), atlarynyň (of their horses)

Ýöneliş-Dative: açaryna (for/ to his / her key), atlaryna (for/to their horses)

Ýeňiş -Accusative: açaryny (his / her key), atlaryny (their horses)
 Wagt-orun –Locative: açarynda (on his / her key), atlarynda (on their horses)
 Çykyş-Ablative: açaryndan (than his / her key), atlaryndan (from/ than their horses)

The variations from the standard declension given in the declension of nouns above are encountered similarly when possessive suffixes are added to the noun.

The Absolute Possessiveness

meniňki	mine	biziňki	ours
seniňki	yours	siziňki	yours
onuňky	his/hers/its	olaryňky	theirs
kimiňki	whose?	Jereniňki	Jeren's

Bu meniň kitabym = this is my book

Bu kitap meniňki = this book is mine

Nouns in Direct Relation

Turkmen language contains certain pairs of nouns that are in "direct relation," or which together illustrate a concept and exist without the use of the possessive suffixes. For example, the general concept of "bus stop" is rendered as "awtobus duralgasy", whereas the possessive "awtobusyň duralgasy" would indicate "one bus's stop." In these direct relation pairs, the first noun, in its nominative form, acts more as an adjective than a noun, specifying the general meaning of the two-word concept.

Other examples are as such:

maşyn ýagy=motor oil (maşynyň ýagy=one car's oil)

miwe sogy=fruit juice (miweniň sogy=one fruit's juice)

ýylan derisi=snakeskin (ýylanyň deresi=that snake's skin)

mekdep howlysy=schoolyard (mekdebiň howlysy=a school's yard).

3.2. ADVERBS

Adverbs are a miscellaneous class of words which have diverse lexical meanings and differ from each other in their structure. Some of them are single words (e.g. fast, well, slowly, somehow, nowhere, sideways, southwards, etc.), others are phrases (e.g. at last, all along, at first, in front, the day after tomorrow, all of a sudden, etc.).

An adverb can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a phrase, or a clause. An adverb indicates manner, time, place, cause, or degree and answers questions such as "how," "when," "where," "how much". All adverbs are characterized by one common feature—they serve to modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

e.g. He spoke resolutely.

They are coming here tomorrow.

She has known it all along.

I was cruelly punished for it.

My father looked somewhat pale.

She knew him very well.

While some adverbs can be identified by their characteristic "ly" suffix, most of them must be identified by a sentence or clause as a whole. Unlike an adjective, an adverb can be found in various places within the sentence.

e.g. The seamstress quickly made the mourning clothes.

In this sentence, the adverb "quickly" modifies the verb "made" and indicates in what manner (or how fast) the clothing was constructed.

The midwives waited patiently through a long labor.

Similarly in this sentence, the adverb "patiently" modifies the verb "waited" and describes the manner in which the midwives waited.

The boldly-spoken words would return to haunt the rebel.

In this sentence the adverb "boldly" modifies the adjective "spoken."

We urged him to dial the number more expeditiously.

Here the adverb "more" modifies the adverb "expeditiously."

Unfortunately, the bank closed at three today.

In this example, the adverb "unfortunately" modifies the entire sentence.

Adverbs like adjectives are descriptive words, sometimes called modifiers because they restrict meaning. They add detail to statements. The difference between adverbs and adjectives is that adjectives modify only nouns, pronouns, and verb forms used as nouns; adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. The most common use of an adverb, of course, is to describe verbs: He ran quickly.

Adverbs differ from other parts of speech by their morphologic-grammatical difference. They do not get derivational affixes like others but they have specific affixes, which make adverbs. In Turkmen, they are "- yn, in, yna, ine, syna, sine, laýyn, leýin", whereas in English they are "-ly" or "ward", "wise".

Determination of the English adverbs and adjectives in a sentence is also a big problem for Turkmen learners of English. Because adjectives come before nouns or as connected to the verb, their role is again an adjective in a sentence. In these situations, a confusing problem is to determine whether the right word is an adverb or an adjective. There are often special endings that differentiate adverbs from similar adjectives. In Turkmen, there are "- yn, in, yna, ine, syna, sine, laýyn, leýin", whereas in English it is "-ly". Unlike an adjective, an adverb can be found in various places within the sentence. In English, many adverbs are formed by adding "-ly" to adjectives (quick, quickly; happy, happily), adverbs have no characteristic form. They must be identified by the function they perform in a sentence: "That is a fast car". "Fast" is an adjective. However, in "He ran fast", it is an adverb.

In Turkmen language, we solve this problem by asking "nahili, neneňisi, haçan" questions. Asking these questions about the word helps to find out a right answer in a given context.e.g.

-Oňat talyp oňat okaýar (Good educated student reads well) . "Nahili? Okayar- "onat" okayar. Here "onat" is an adverb.

-Sessiz ünsiz gelmek. (to come quietly)

-Sowatly okady.(he educated well) –"nenegsi /how". "sowatly" okady.

-Dün geldi. (he came yesterday)-“haçan” geldi. “Dün” is an adverb.

In Turkmen and in other Turkish dialects adverbs and adjectives have close relationship with each other. So determining adverbs in a sentence is a difficult problem. Students also confuse to determine adverbs or adjective from time to time while learning them. In Turkmen, since adverbs do not have very special suffixes, they may be confused with nouns, adjectives, and post-positions. However, usage of adverbs is different from their homonyms.

Mainly, in Turkmen, there are three kinds of adverbs recognized by their function in a sentence: modifying a verb (yitip gittin), modifying an adjective (yaman ettin), or modifying an other adverb. In English, they may occasionally, modify a noun or noun equivalent. Adverbs can modify adjectives, but an adjective cannot modify an adverb. Thus, we would say, in English; “My professor is really tall”, but not “He ran real fast.”

Some adverbs are single, indivisible words “yet” (heniz), “down” (aşak), “then” (sonra). Others are obviously formed from adjectives with the addition of a suffix “ly” (quickly, clearly), others are formed from two words “sometimes” (kawagt), “however” (yöne).

a). Such words as gije (night), gündiz (daylight), säherwagty (early morning), agşam (evening), ertir (tomorrow) can function both as a noun or an adverb.e.g. ‘Säher wagty (noun) şowhununda ýatyp bolmaz’ - (you can’t sleep because of sounds in the early morning)
“Säherde/säherçagy (adverb) geldiler”- they come in the early morning.

b). Such words as ýagşy, gowy, oňat (good), ýaramaz (bad), ýiti (sharp) can function both as an adjective or an adverb.

e.g. -“ýagşy iş” - good work (adjective + noun)

-“ýagşy ettiň bäräk gelmek bilen”.(Adverb +verb) (You did well by coming here)

c). Such words as ‘az, biraz, kan, birazajyk’ (few, little, much, more, a little, a few, a bit), etc.

When they precede a noun, function as indefinite numbers; but when they precede a verb, they function as adverbs.

-“Az işim galdy” - I have a little work to do. (Indefinite number + noun)

-“Az geple, köp iş et” - don’t talk much but work much. (Adverb + verb)

3.2.1. Kinds of Adverbs

Most adverbs of manner and some adverbs of degree are formed by adding “ly” to the corresponding adjectives: slow-slowly, grave-gravely.

Certain adverbs (how, when, where, why, whenever and wherever) are called relative adverbs because they introduce relative clauses in a sentence: e.g. The keys are upstairs where you left them. The clause “where you left them” modifies the adverb “upstairs”.

Other adverbs are called conjunctive adverbs because they join one clause with another. Some of these adverbs are: therefore, accordingly, besides, furthermore, instead, meanwhile, and nevertheless. e.g. He was tired, therefore he stayed home. The word “therefore” modifies the clause of which it is a part and connects that clause to the previous part of the sentence.

In Turkmen, adverbs are divided into six types by their meaning whereas in English there are eight possible types of adverbs (almost with the same equivalents). Adverbs can be classified according to their meaning, according to the way they answer specific questions for each one and asking “where”, “when”, “how” an action was done. In English, an adverb indicates manner, time, place, cause, or degree and answers questions such as "how," "when," "where," "how much". Most adverbs tell you how, where, or when something is done. In other words, they describe the manner, place, or time of an action.

They express manner (quickly, bravely, hard, fast), place (there, everywhere, up, down), of time (now, soon, today), of frequency (twice, often, never), degree (very, less, more, fairly), interrogative (when? where?), relative (when, why, where), affirmation or negation (certainly, not), cause and result (thus, consequently), qualification or doubt (however, probably).

According to their meaning adverbs fall into the following groups ;
(Kinds of adverbs in Turkmen and their English equivalents).

1. **Wagt hallary - Adverbs of Time:** answers of “näwagt, haçan?”-

Adverbs of frequency are also studied under this group. And their Turkmen equivalents have almost the same meaning; often (köplenç), seldom (kawagt), sometimes (kamahal), always (hemişe), hardly ever (kate), never (hiç), occasionally (wagtal wagtal), etc.

e.g. She takes the boat to the mainland every day.

She often goes by herself.

e.g. düýn (yesterday), elmydama (always), agşam, ilki (first), öten ýyl (last year), eýýäm (already), mahal-mahal (sometimes), yzysüre (as soon as), ilkibada (first time), at night (gije) now (hazir), then(sonra, şonda), lately (sonky wagtlarda), afterwards(sonundan), immediately (derrewjik), etc

e.g. Valves are usually tested before installation.

Men ilkibada ony tanamadym.

She tries to get back before dark. – Garanky düşmanka yzyna barmaga howlukdy.

It's starting to get dark now. – Howa hazirden gararmaga başlady

She finished her tea first. – Ol çayyny ilki bitirdi.

She left early – Ol irden gitdi.

Adverbs that express when an action takes place are adverbs of time. In English, adverbs are usually placed at the very beginning or at the very end of the clause. In English, there are time and frequency adverbs under different classification but in Turkmen, they are under the same group and show the time or frequency of the action.

2. Orun-tarap bildirýän hallar - Adverbs of Place (or direction): We also call them demonstrative adverbs:

e.g. here, there, everywhere, downstairs, below, ashore, abroad, inside, outside, where, backwards, etc.

e.g. aşak (down), ýokary (upright), ikiýana, gaýra (backward), ileri (forward), oýan-buýan, ikibaka (to both sides), eýläk, beýläk (to other side), onda-munda (here-there), saga (to the right), sola (to the left), daşary (out); here (barde), far (uzak), back(arka,yzyna) , northwards (demirgazyga), anywhere (haysydyr bir yer)...

e.g. She has lived on the island all her life.

She still lives there now.

Adverbs that express place of the action or direction are called *adverbs of place*;

The use of -somewhere, anywhere, and nowhere- in different kinds of sentences is similar to the use of the corresponding indefinite pronouns –some, any and no - .

3. Hal-ýagdaý bildirýän hallar- Adverbs of Manner: nähili, neneňsi?

In English, “manner adverbs” are generally formed with suffix “ly”. Sometimes suffix –ly has “bilen” counterpart in Turkmen (attentively- üns bilen, quietly- sissizje / sessizlik bilen)

e.g. well, badly, fast (tiz), quickly (çalt), clearly (arassaja), suddenly (bridenka), deeply, sincerely (hormatlamak bilen) , sideways (gapdallygyna), somehow (nahilide bolsa), etc.

Ýanyň, keseligine, sowuk-sala, ogrynça (silently), gezek-gezegine (orderly), ýüzünligine (face to face)...

e.g. He moved steadily and slowly over the soft snow.

Yumşak garyň üstü bilen yuwaşjadan öňe omzady.

She moved slowly and spoke quietly.

Adverbs, that express how the action is done, are adverbs of manner. In English, adverbs come after the verbs but in Turkmen adverbs mainly come before the verbs in a sentence.

In English, a considerable number of adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives by adding –ly , e.g. calm – calmly, slow-slowly, willing-willingly, happy-happily.

But we cannot form adverbs from adjectives, such as –manly friendly, silly, fatherly, lively, etc. An adverbial phrase is used in this case instead of an adverb, e.g. in a silly way, in a friendly manner, etc.

4. Mukdar bildirýän hallar- adverbs of degree

Adverbs that show the amount or the number of something are called adverbs of quantity. Below adverbs have almost the same meaning in English counterparts; Turkmen adverbs of degree; müňläp (thousands), köp (more), az (less), yekeme-yek (one by one), hetdenaşa (too),

nearly almost (boldukça, tas), azajyk (a bit), ölinçä (until his last breath), az-kem (little by little), tutuşlaýyn (as a whole) , enough (yeterli), nearly (yakın), quite (eslije).

–“Henry works very little. He has won the prize twice”.

e.g. very, awfully, terribly, highly, perfectly, completely, fully, much, a great deal, too, so, little, a little, sufficiently, utterly, etc.

5. Sebäp-maksat bildirýän hallar- Adverbs of Purpose

Answers of these questions in Turkmen are adverbs of purpose; “name üçin, name sebapden?”

e.g.-yörite (for special/specially), atanlykda, begenjine (with happy), gorkusyna (fear), tötäänden (suddenly)...e.g. She drives her boat slowly to avoid hitting the rocks.

She shops in several stores to get the best buys.

6. Comparative adverbs - Deňeşdirme bildirýän hallar: kimçe? nameçe? –

Mençe (in my opinion), Muratça (for him/for Murat), şolarça, sençe (for yourself), özüňizçe (for yourselves), gahrymanlarça (heroic), her kimçe (for anybody), bizimçe (for us)

Besides these adverbs, we have reduplicated adverbs, which can be made from the above adverbs by duplication:

Bir-bir (one by one), üç-üç (three by three), az-az (little), jübt-jübt (in pairs), deste-deste (in groups), agyr-agyr (slowly)...

In English, like adjectives, adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms to show degree.

e.g. Walk faster if you want to keep up with me.

The student who reads the fastest will finish first.

We often use more and most, less and least to show degree with adverbs:

With sneakers on, she could move more quickly among the patients.

The flowers were the most beautifully arranged creations I've ever seen.

She worked less confidently after her accident.

7. Adverbs of consequence and cause (conjunctive adverbs)

therefore, hence, accordingly, as a result, for this reason, for one thing, consequently, why, etc.

The adverbs –when, where, how, and why- belonging to the different groups mentioned above have one feature in common- they serve to form questions and to introduce some kinds of subordinate clauses. In the former case, owing to their auxiliary function, they are called interrogative adverbs. In the latter case, also owing to their auxiliary function, they are called conjunctive adverbs. In both cases they perform different adverbial functions in the sentence.

Conjunctive Adverbs

We use a conjunctive adverb to join two clauses together. Some of the most common conjunctive adverbs are "also," "consequently," "finally," "furthermore," "hence," "however," "incidentally," "indeed," "instead," "likewise," "meanwhile," "nevertheless," "next," "nonetheless," "otherwise," "still," "then," "therefore," and "thus." A conjunctive adverb is not strong enough to join two independent clauses without the aid of a semicolon.

e.g.

The government has cut university budgets; consequently, class sizes have been increased.

He did not have all the ingredients the recipe called for; therefore, he decided to make something else.

The report recommended several changes to the ways the corporation accounted for donations; furthermore, it suggested that a new auditor be appointed immediately.

The crowd waited patiently for three hours; finally, the doors to the stadium were opened.

Batman and Robin fruitlessly searched the building; indeed, the Joker had escaped through a secret door in the basement.

In Turkmen, all adverbs are based on the root form of the adverb; simple, complex, and derived adverbs are divided into the classifications below according to whether they are simple or complex.

3.2.2. Simple adverbs

Adverbs can be in complex, simple, and derived forms.

There are not many root form adverbs but there are a lot of derived adverbs in Turkmen. Simple adverbs are not as many as Turkmen derived adverbs. Simple adverbs are the adverbs which have only one stem: tiz (hurry), çalt (quickly), haýal (slowly), kân (more), köp (much), esli (a lot), indi (now), uzak (far), ýakyn (near), and so on.

Soon (sonra), fast (tiz), why (sebap), when (haçan), here (barde), there (ol yerde), then (şonda)

With the help of suffix “ly” adverbs can be created in English. Root forms of adverbs may be nouns or adjectives;

Bad – badly, usual – usually, hour-hourly, month-monthly, name- namely, part- partly.

e.g., rarely, fiercely, massively, enormously, sufficiently, sincerely, really, loyally, specially, actually, mercifully, lazily, happily, wearily, seedily, sloppily.

a- if an adjective ends in -y and then -y change to -i: easy- easily, noisy- noisily

b- if an adjective ends -e then the last letter -e should be dropped : simple-simply, single-singly

3.2.3. Complex adverbs

This type of adverb is formed in several different ways in the Turkmen language. We often call them as ‘tirkeş hallar’, because of their repetition. These adverbs change the last vowel or consonant to make vowel harmony when they are repeated. Through the repetition of adverbs, the meaning of a given context is emphasized.

Some adverbs do not take any affixes or they get some affixes when they join with each other. When they join together, one of those adverbs adds an affix.

In English, examples of complex adverbs are “sometimes” (kawagt), “meantime” (şol wagtyň özünde), “inside” (içinde), “anyway” (bolsun /name bolsa şol bolsun), “midway” (orta yolda), “overhead” (kelleaşyry).

Some adverbs in English form combinations with some function words: at length (aýkça), at first (ilkibaşda), in vain (peydasyz), at least (in azyndan, hiç bolmasa).

a) Reduplication of the words and a hyphen between them is used to form adverbs in Turkmen. Tiz-tiz (quickly), Bir-bir (one by one), Ýan-ýana (side by side), Üst-üste (to put over and over), İndi-indi (nowadays), gysym-gysym, penje-penje, gürpe-gürpe, gapy-gapy, kem-kem (slowly)

b) Some adverbs can be formed by the use of antonyms or words with a close meaning and use hyphen between them. They can be made from different parts of speech:

Az-köp (more or less), Owwal - ahyr (first and later), Zar- zor (might and hard), Kyn-aňsat (in difficulty and in easiness), Gije-gündiz, ertir-agşam (day and night)

Noun-noun: gije-gündiz (day and night), gapy-gapy (from house to house), oba-oba (from village to village).

Adjective-adjective: gaharly-gaharly, gaty-gaty - quickly, näzli-näzli

Adverb-adverb: “assa-assa ýorap geldi - slowly”, çalt-çalt - hurry

c) Some adverbs can be formed by the repetition of the same words but this time ‘ba’ or ‘ma’ connectors are used between them. Moreover, sometimes by adding “-a, e” affixes to those words makes new adverbs. Nevertheless, there are some other important suffixes, which form adverbs and have a role as connectors: “dan, den, da, de, ly, li”

e.g. gūnaşa, ýagty-gözin (before the night), günlerde bir gün (one day...)

Affixes for complex adverbs in Turkmen:

-ba-be : aýba-aý (monthly)

-ma-me : öýme-öý (house to house)

-dan-den: ýyl-ýyldan (year by year), gün-günden (day by day)

-e,a: boýdan-başa (from the beginning to the end), öýden-öýe(home to home)

-ly, da: ýerli-ýerinde (place to place)

-li, de: wagtly – wagtynda (at the time).

Some words come together to form complex adverbs by using related suffixes:

- Aýagynyň aldygyňa, bogazynyň sygdygyndan, eliniň ýetişdiginden, ilki bada, soňabaka.

3.2.4. Derived adverbs

Derived adverbs are made through the affixation of suffixes or joining together with other words from other parts of speech. Some kinds of adverbs, which are created in a morphologic or morphologic - semantic way, and their possible derivational affixes are as follows in Turkmen and in English.

Derived adverbs are formed by verbs, nouns, numerals, adjectives, pronouns, adverbs, and manner words. They are formed with the following suffixes:

-Able-ably: Adjective+ Adverb: allowable - allowably (rugsat edilen) , adorable – adorably (tertipli hereket)

-laýyn, leýin - aýlaýyn, wagtlayyn

-laý, leý - ýüzleý, bütünleý,

-larça, lerçe - mertlerçe

-lygyna, ligine, k - = by; çyglygyna, bäriligine, matalygyna, anryk, ilerik, gaýraky,

-çe, ça = - ic -mençe (in my opinion), gahrymanlarça (heroic), ogrynça (looking at somebody secretly).

In Turkmen, -lap, lep -form adverbs from numerals – onlap (ten by ten), ýüzläp (by hundreds), müňläp

-yn/in, n -form adverbs from verbs and nouns- gelişiň (when by coming), gaýdyşyn, öňňün, günin (that the same day ...), günortan, arkan-arkan, ogryn- ogryn

-yna, ine, syna, sine -gidişiňe, barşyňa, tomsuna, güyzüne, ertirlerine, keypine

- saýyn -sagatsaýyn, günsaýyn,

- boýy form from nouns – asyrlarboýy (for centuries), omürboýy (during a long life)

-dan, den, lenç, syna, sine -form from adjectives– dessine, gijesine (by the night),giňden (by widening), köplenç (often),

However, the important point for those suffixes is that they can create adverbs from both nouns and adjectives.

In addition, in Turkmen, some words when they join with verbs in a sentence create adverbs: “ine, halha, inha, beýle, şeýle, birbada, biraz”.

Some adverbs have homonyms as adjectives:

Long (uzyn) - long (uzak)

Loud, weekly, far, early, late, fast, hard, near... - these adverbs should be identified by their syntactic role and by their location in a sentence.

e.g. He stayed a long time with us (adj)- he stayed long with us (adv.).

He rode at a fast gallop (adj) – how fast you walk! (Adv.).

3.2.5. Degrees of adverbs

Adverbs also have degrees like adjectives; their characteristics are almost similar to each other. The degrees of adverbs and their role in a sentence are different from adjectives. Adjectives show the symbols of objects/nouns (akja kepderi / white bird) whereas adverb degrees notify actions in different statements (yanyja geldi/ he just came).

1. **Düýp dereje – Stem degree:** they do not have specific affixes. Moreover, these degrees of adverbs include other root forms of adverbs, derived adverbs, and complex adverbs and they have a central base role in making other degrees:

-ir (early), giç (late), az (less, little), köp (much), ýany (just), tiz (fast), derrew (hurry), ertirine (mournings), şindi (now)

2. **Intensiw dereje- Intensive degree** of adverbs (reduplication of adverbs): Adverbs often function as intensifiers, conveying a greater or lesser emphasis to something. Intensifiers are said to have three different functions in English: they can emphasize (güýçlendirme), amplify (artyklyk), or tone down - diminutive (kiçeltme). In Turkmen, they are studied under separate degree classifications of adverbs whereas in English, all of them are intensifiers.

e.g. tiz-tiz, çalt-çalt, şindi- şindi, yap-yany, bús-bütün , aç-açan, kem-kem, mese-malim...

They add perfectness to the meaning of the adverb and intensify it. Reduplication and affix 'p', form these adverbs: -tip' -tiz (very quickly), ýgy-ýgy (very often), ýap-ýaňy, basym-basym.

In their various degrees (like adjectives) they can be accompanied by premodifiers:
She runs very fast.

3. Güýçlendirme-Artyklyk derejesi – Intensifier / Strenghtener / Amplifier

Intensifiers come before the adverbs in English. They make the meaning stronger than before; intensifiers in English are: extremely, very, and really; in Turkmen, has (more), iň (the best), örän (very), gaty- really, iňňän, extremely (juda), where in English, such as 'rak, reak'- affixes are added after root form adverbs to create intensifiers: irräk (early that you do), çalt-çaltrak, assarak, basymrak (hurry), azrak (less), öýlänräk (by the afternoon), mençeräk (in my opinion), sençeräk (like you)

Amplifiers: The teacher completely rejected her proposal. I absolutely refuse to attend any more faculty meetings. They heartily endorsed the new restaurant. I so wanted to go with them.

We know this city well.

Emphasizers: I really don't believe him. He literally wrecked his mother's car. She simply ignored me. They're going to be late, for sure.

4. Söygilik-Kemlik derejesi of adverbs in Turkmen – Diminutives in English; they form by the help of suffixes like; – jyk/ jik, je/ja

-je, ja, -jyk, jik - not all adverbs get these suffixes; -pessayja, elinje, sähelçe, irdenjik

Diminutives: I kind of like this college. Joe sort of felt betrayed by his sister.

His mother mildly disapproved his actions. We can improve on this to some extent.

The boss almost quit after that. The school was all but ruined by the storm.

3.3. Verbs

Verbs are the words, which express actions or processes; they state something is in a change in that state, or an interaction. Like nouns, there are many variations of verbs.

The person is an aspect of verb forms in many languages. Most commonly, there is an ending or an affix that indicates something about the subject (such as the first, second, or third person, gender, and singular or plural).

In Turkmen, verbs are stems that may be inflected with tense suffixes. The tense and other verbal characteristics are added to the verb stem. The stem remains invariable except that with the verbs 'git' (go) and 'okat' (teach) and polysyllabic stems ending in '-t', the final '-t' of the stem is changed to 'd' whenever it is followed by a tense or modal suffix beginning with a vowel:

e.g. git + (-er) - gider (she/he goes)

okat + (-dy) – okady (he reads)

There are specific affixes that make verbs from other parts of speech. Morphologically, verbs have specific characteristics, which distinguish them from other parts of speech.

In Turkmen, verbs differ from other parts of speech by their participle, imperative, tense, and conditional forms and by their affixes: **-la, le, jar, jer, er, ar, maly, meli- ate, -en -ize'** (to cause to 'to make' -vocalize), **- sc / -esc** ("to become', 'to change' convalesce) (and others). The literal meanings of verbs should always begin with 'to', the infinitive marker. (The infinitive form of a verb is one that doesn't show any tense.). Counterparts of “-to” in Turkmen, are mak/mek: işlemek – to work, to speak – geplemek.

e.g. alýar, aljak, aldy,

gelse, gelmeli, gelip, gelen, gelip

“-ma, me” are specific affixes: gelerin-gelmerin. In Turkmen, the suffixes “ma, me” are used for negation but in English negation is formed by using “not”: I cannot, I won't, I don't, and I am not.

3.3.1. Tenses

Like English, Turkmen has a great variety of verb tenses. Verbs in Turkmen are conjugated in plural and singular for the first, second, and third persons. As in Romance languages and Russian, the subject of a sentence is often not spoken if it is obvious. The following is a selection of verb tenses and forms. All verbs are conjugated on the model of “ýazmak”- “to write”.

1 - Present Comprehensive, long form

Translates to the English Present Simple or Present Progressive

Verb Form	Translation	Form	w/ MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazýaryn	I write/I am writing.	Stem+ing	+(ýar)yn	+(ýär)in
Sen ýazýarysyn	You write/You are writing	stem	+(ýar)syn	+(ýär)siň
Ol ýazýar	He writes/He is writing	stem	+(ýar)	+(ýär)
Biz ýazýarys	We write/We are writing	stem	+(ýar)ys	+(ýär)is
Siz ýazýarysynyz	You write/You are writing	stem	+(ýar)synyz	+(ýär)siňiz
Olar ýazýarlar	They write/They are writing	stem	+(ýar)lar	+(ýär)ler

To form the negative, add “-ma or –me” after the stem:

Men ýazmaýaryn = I am not writing. I don't write.

Men içmeýärin = I am not eating. I don't eat.

2- Present Comprehensive, short form

This translates to the English Present Simple or Present Progressive:

Verb Form	Translation	Form	w/ MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazýan	I write/I am writing.	Stem+ing	+ýan/ -ing	+ýän/-ing
Sen ýazýañ	You write/You are writing	stem	+ýañ	+ýäň
Ol ýazýar	He writes/He is writing	stem	+ýar	+ýär
Biz ýazýas	We write/We are writing	stem	+ýas	+ýäs
Siz ýazýaňyz	You write/You are writing	stem	+ýaňyz	+ýäňiz
Olar ýazýarlar	They write/They are writing	stem	+ýarlar	+ýärler

To form the negative, add “-ma or –me” after the stem:

Men ýazmaýan = I am not writing. I don't write.

Men içmeýän = I am not drinking. I don't drink.

3 - Present Perfect

The perfect aspect tells us that the action is finished, completed, “perfected.” In English, it is represented by various forms of the word to “have”, followed by the past participle: I have said, I had said (present perfect), I will have said (future perfect). As the last one suggests, by the time we reach a particular point in the future, my saying something will be over and done with.

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazypdyryn	I have written.	stem	+(yp)dyrym	(ip)dirim
Sen ýazypsyň	You have written.	stem	+(yp)syň	(ip)siň
Ol ýazypdyr	He/she has written.	stem	+(yp)dyr	(ip)dir
Biz ýazypdyrys	We have written.	stem	+(yp)dyrys	(ip)diris
Siz ýazypsyňyz	You have written.	stem	+(yp)syňyz	(ip)siňiz
Olar ýazypdyrlar	They have written.	stem	+(yp)dyrlar	(ip)dirler

To form the negative, insert -man or -män in place of the -yp or -ip after the stem in the above endings:

Ol ýazmandyr = He/she has not written.

Olar gelmänderler = They have not come.

4 - Present Perfect (neg.) / Habitual Present (neg.)

Translates to the negative English Present Perfect (or to a negative form of a "Habitual Present Tense")*, as such:

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazamok	I have not written.	stem	+(a)mok	+(e)mok
Sen ýazaňok	You haven't written.	stem	+(a)ňok	+(e)ňok
Ol ýazanok	He hasn't written.	stem	+(a)nok	+(e)nok
Biz ýazamzok	We haven't written.	stem	+(a)mzok	+(e)mzok
Siz ýazaňzok	You haven't written.	stem	+(a)ňzok	+(e)ňzok
Olar ýazanoklar	They haven't written.	stem	+(a)noklar	+(e)noklar

--These forms can also indicate that the speaker does generally not perform a certain activity:

Men ýazamok = I don't write. (As a habit)

Men çilim çekemok = I don't smoke. (As a habit)

5 - Future Certain

This tense is translated to the English Future Simple with the tone of certainty.

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazjak	I will write.	stem	+jak	+jek
Sen ýazjak	You will write.	stem	+jak	+jek
Ol ýazjak	He will write.	stem	+jak	+jek
Biz ýazjak	We will write.	stem	+jak	+jek
Siz ýazjak	You will write.	stem	+jak	+jek
Olar ýazjak	They will write.	stem	+jak	+jek

To form the negative, add -däl after the verb:

Men ýazjak däl = I will not write.

Men gitjek däl = I will not go.

6 - Future Indefinite

This tense translates to English Future Simple with a tone of probability:

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazaryn	I (probably) will write.	stem	+(ar)yn	+(er)in
Sen ýazarsyň	You (probably) will write.	stem	+(ar)syň	+(er)siň
Ol ýazar	He (probably) will write.	stem	+(ar)	+(er)
Biz ýazarys	We (probably) will write.	stem	+(ar)ys	+(er)is
Siz ýazarsyňyz	You (probably) will write.	stem	+(ar)syňyz	+(er)siňiz
Olar ýazarlar	They (probably) will write.	stem	+(ar)lar	+(er)ler

To negate, add -m after the stem, except in the third person, where -maz is used.

Men ýazmaryn = I (probably) won't write. Ol ýazmaz = He (probably) won't write.

Sen gitmersiň = You (probably) won't go. Olar gitmezler = They (probably) won't go.

7 - Past Definite

This tense translates to the English Past Simple. In English, past tense verbs are formed by the help of the –ed -suffix, in Turkmen, -dy,-di suffixes form them. From regular verbs we make past tense verbs ; to work (işlemek) –worked (işledi), to = mak, mek ; iş – work , ed-dy,di ; to stay (galmak)- stayed (galdy), to travel- traveled, to repel- repelled , to push- pushed, to want – wanted...

Irregular verbs add : + d, + t to the end of stem verb; to burn – burnt, to send- sent, to sleep- slept, to tell – told. + “-e (n)” to write – wrote - written, to give- gave- given.

e.g. Declension of an irregular verb:

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazdym	I wrote.	stem	+(dy)m	+(di)m
Sen ýazdyň	You wrote.	stem	+(dy)ň	+(di)ň
Ol ýazdy	He wrote.	stem	+(dy)	+(di)
Biz ýazdyk	We wrote.	stem	+(dy)k	+(di)k
Siz ýazdyňyz	You wrote.	stem	+(dy)ňyz	+(di)ňiz
Olar ýazdylar	They wrote.	stem	+(dy)lar	+(di)ler

To form the negative, add -ma or -me after the stem.

Men ýazmadym = I didn't write.

Men gitmedim = I didn't go.

8 - Obligatory Form

This form translates to English modal "must," "should," or "ought to" with a verb.

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazmaly	I must write.	Stem	+maly	+meli
Sen ýazmaly	You must write.	Stem	+maly	+meli
Ol ýazmaly	He must write.	Stem	+maly	+meli
Biz ýazmaly	We must write.	Stem	+maly	+meli
Siz ýazmaly	You must write.	Stem	+maly	+meli
Olar ýazmaly	They must write.	Stem	+maly	+meli

To form the negative, add -däl after the verb.

Men ýazmaly däl = I must (should) not write.

Men gitmeli däl = I must (should) not go.

3.3.2. Suffixes (Goşulmalar)

The following suffixes in Turkmen are added to verbs to change their function.

1- Passive -yl/-il; -ul/-ül; -l

Adding these goşulmalar (suffixes) changes the verb to the passive voice where the doer of the action is unspoken.

e.g. Meniň ejem uly halyny dokady-My mother made/wove a big carpet.

Şu haly ýünden dokaldy-This carpet was made /woven from wool.

Şu ýyl iki ýazyjy täze hekaýalary dörediler-This year two writers created new stories.

Ýaňy-ýakynda şäherimiz hakynda täze goşgy döredildi-A new poem was written about our city.

Expressing Needs and Desires

Although in Turkmen there is a way to express a wish to do something that parallels the English use of infinitives, such as “Men çay içmek isleýärim” (I want to drink tea), a far more common way to express desires involves a construction unlike any in English, utilizing the verb “gelmek” as a helping verb: “Meniň çay içesim gelýär”(My-tea-drinking-comes). This would roughly translate as "I want to drink tea." or "I feel like drinking tea." The main verb “içmek” has the personal ending “-esim” added to the stem, with “gelmek” in the 3rd person singular, “gelýär”. Note the use of possessive pronouns rather than personal pronouns in the following charts:

-mak verbs

Meniň	ýaz-asym	gelýär	I 'd like to write
Seniň	ýaz-asyň	gelýär	You 'd like to write
Onuň	ýaz-asy	gelýär	S/he 'd like to write
Biziň	ýaz-asymyz	gelýär	We 'd like to write
Siziň	ýaz-asyňyz	gelýär	You 'd like to write
Olaryň	ýaz-asy	gelýär	They 'd like to write

-mek verbs

Meniň	gel-esim	gelyär	I 'd like to come
Seniň	gel-esiň	gelyär	You' 'd like to come
Onuň	gel-esi	gelyär	S/he 'd like to come
Biziň	gel-esimiz	gelyär	We 'd like to come
Siziň	gel-esiňiz	gelyär	You 'd like to come
Olaryň	gel-esi	gelyär	They 'd like to come

Changing the “gelyär” to “gelmeýär” or “gelenok” forms the negative:

Meniň hiç zady iýesim gelenok.-I don't feel like eating anything.

The past tense is also possible, as such:

Meniň bir zady bilesim geldi. I wanted to know something.

Indicating Possibility: mümkin

The word mümkin (English equivalents: may, might) is used to indicate possibility or to ask permission for an action, using infinitive verbs, such as:

Çilim çekmek mümkinmi? Is it possible to smoke? (May I smoke?)

Girmek mümkinmi? May I come in?

Jaň etmek mümkinmi? May I make a call?

Grammatically, it can be used to signify "**may**" or "**might**," as in:

Men ertir siziň mekdebiňize geläýmegim mümkin-I might come to your school tomorrow.

Men hat ýazaýmagym mümkin-I might write a letter.

-mak verbs

Men	ýaz-aýmagym	mümkün	I might write
Sen	ýaz-aýmagyň	mümkün	You might write
Ol	ýaz-aýmagy	mümkün	S/he might write
Biz	ýaz-aýmagymyz	mümkün	We might write
Siz	ýaz-aýmagyňyz	mümkün	You might write
Olar	ýaz-aýmagy	mümkün	They might write

-mek verbs

Men	gel- äýmegim	mümkün	I might come
Sen	gel-äýmegiň	mümkün	You' might come
Ol	gel-äýmegi	mümkün	S/he might come
Biz	gel- äýmegimiz	mümkün	We might come
Siz	gel- äýmegiňiz	mümkün	You might come
Olar	gel-äýmegi	mümkün	They might come

The negative is formed as : may +not; might+ not

Men ertir mekdebiňize gelmezligim mümkin -I might not come to your school tomorrow.

Men hat ýazmazlygym mümkin -I might not write a letter.

-mak verbs

Men	ýaz-mazlygym	mümkün	I might not write
Sen	ýaz-mazlygyň	mümkün	You might not write
Ol	ýaz-mazlygy	mümkün	S/he might not write
Biz	ýaz- mazlygymyz	mümkün	We might not write
Siz	ýaz- mazlygyňyz	mümkün	You might not write
Olar	ýaz-mazlygy	mümkün	They might not write

-mek verbs

Men	gel-mezligim	mümkün	I might not come
Sen	gel-mezligiň	mümkün	You' might not come
Ol	gel-mezligi	mümkün	S/he might not come
Biz	gel-mezligimiz	mümkün	We might not come
Siz	gel-mezligiňiz	mümkün	You might not come
Olar	gel-mezligi	mümkün	They might not come

-dygy/ digi :

There is the simple (or indefinite) aspect. This includes the usual tenses used as Reported Speech: I said, I say, I will say.

E.g.

Men oňa alty-da geljekdigimi aýtdym-I told him I would come at 6:00.
 Siz maňa näme isleýändigizi aýdyň-Tell me what you want.
 Ol maňa köp zat öwrenýändigini aýtdy- He told me he is learning a lot.
 Ol maňa seniň gelendigiňi aýtdy-She told me that you came (had come).
 Köwüşň bahasynyň näççdigini aýdyp biljekmi? -Can you tell me how much your shoes cost?
 Mugallymyň nirededigini bilýärsiňmi? -Do you know where the teacher is?
 Men ol gyzyň menden ulydygyny bilýärim-I know that girl is taller than me.
 Men seniň kitabyň meniňkiden gowdydygyny bilýärim-I know your book is better than mine is.
 Biz şu kitabyň sözlükdigini bilýäris -We know that book is a dictionary.

Double Verbs

In English we conjugate all verbs and place “and” between them when two actions are done at once or at relatively the same time, whereas Turkmen employs a structure that puts the two verbs together. The first verb is reduced to its stem and the participial ending -yp or -ip, according to vowel harmony, is added. The ending of the second verb determines the doer of the action indicated, as below.

Biz iýip gelýäris -We ate before coming. (lit. We-eat-come)

Nahar iýip okuwa gidiň! - Eat before going to school. (lit. Food-eat-to-school-go)

Swedi öçürüp gaýt - Go and turn off the light. (lit. Light-turn off-come back)

The participial **-ip and -yp** endings have negative counterparts, **-män and -man**, also added to the stem of the first verb.

Çagalar iýmän okuwa gitdiler -The children went to school without eating.

Okuwçylar okaman sapaga gelýärler -The pupils come to the lesson without studying.

Expressing Ability: -p/-yp/-ip bilmek

The equivalents of the modal verbs like “**must**”, “**can**”, “**may**”, “**ought**”, “**need**” show different meaning aspects in Turkmen. –“**mali, meli**” in Turkmen show obligatory forms, “– **yp,- ip, -p - bilmek**” in Turkmen shows ability – “**etmlisin**” shows “**etmegin gerek**”.

In Turkmen, a modal structure involving “bilmek” is used to convey the idea of being able to do something.

Men Türkmençe okap bilýärim = I can read Turkmen.

Ol Rusça ýazyp bilenok = He can't write Russian.

Biz bazara gidip biljek däl = We won't be able to go to the bazaar.

Doing an Action for someone: -p/-yp/-ip bermek

In Turkmen, a modal structure involving “bermek” is used to express someone’s doing an action:

Men size jaýy salyp berdim = I built a house for you.

Şol gapyny ýapyp bermesene = Don't close that door.

Şol käsäni saňa alyp bererin = I'll give you that teacup.

According to vowel harmony the main verb's stem is followed by the participial ending -yp or -ip, and “bermek” appears according to the doer of the action and the tense.

Attempted Action: -p/-yp/-ip görmek

A modal structure involving “görmek” is used to express the idea of trying to do something, or the idea of “doing-and-seeing”:

Bu nahary datyp gör = Try this food.

Men pikir edip göreýin = Let me think about it (and see).

Şol köýnegi geýip gördi = She tried on that dress.

Anticipated Action: -jak/-jek bolmak

A modal structure involving the future tense and “bolmak” is used to indicate the idea of being about to do something: bolmak – want to do.

Sen ýatjak bolýaňmy? = Are you going to sleep? / Do you want to sleep?

Olar saňa jaň etjek bolýarlar = They are going to call you.

Garaşyň, men iýjek bolýaryn = Wait, I'm going to (about to) eat.

The subjunctive mood is used when there is some doubt or uncertainty about the event. Many languages have entire conjugations of subjunctive, in various tenses and aspects.

3.3.3. Verb types

In Turkmen, like in most languages, verbs are morphologically classified into three main groups:

a) Simple Verbs, b) Complex Verbs and c) Derived Verbs.

a) Simple Verbs

Simple verbs are formed by a one-morpheme stem and the verbal suffix [mak\ mek].

In English; to write, to go

e.g. ýat+ mak = ýatmak- to sleep

at atmak- to shoot

sat satmak - to sell

al almak – to buy

gel gelmek- to come

iý iýmek- to eat

b) Complex verbs

In Turkmen language, as we see in most languages, complex verbs are formed by two or more morphemes. In the first word of the combination, there can be grammatical changes. The combination can be as follows:

In English, complex verbs are formed by two stem degree words: e.g. to fulfil – yerine yetirmek; whereas in Turkmen, sometimes this combination contains two different words separately, and sometimes one word.

e.g. to whitewash – aklamak

to sightsee- gözden geçirmek.

Compounds are used with affixation to produce larger words:

Noun

/ \

Verb -er

/ \

Verb Verb

| |

Sleep walk

Meaning: Someone who walks and sleeps at the same time

Noun

/ \

Noun Noun

| / \

Window Verb -er

|painter

Meaning: Someone who paints windows.

In Turkmen, compound verbs are made by two different words whereas in English their counterparts are made with the help of prepositions.

1). **Adjective /N oun+ Verb** - durmuş gurmak (to marry);

Compound verbs in Turkmen:

Adjective / Noun + etmek, eýlemek, bolmak

Harap eýlemek (to ruin).

Teklip etmek (to offer).

Agza bolmak (to be a member).

2) . **Verbal conj + Verb**

(-yp,-ip,-p) bezenip-durmak (to dress-up).

ysnyşyp gitmek (to be acquainted with).

aslyşyp galmak (draw back somebody /want to stop somebody).

3). **V+ (i,y,e)** :gelebilmek (to be able to come),yazabilmek (to be able to write),duşuşabilmek (to be able to meet),okuýabilmek (to be able to read), iýedurmak(continuing to eat).

4). **Repetition of the same verbs:**

Aýda-aýda (by telling), diýe-diýe (saying and saying), işleý-işleý (by working).

5). **Noun + Case + Verb:** ýatdan çykarmak (forget), ýüregi awamak (to be grieved), ýadasalmak (remember something).

c) Derived Verbs

There are many new forms of verbs, which are made with or through the help of specific affixes. They are called derived verbs when they are used some affixes.

It is not possible to make new forms of verbs only from the stem form of the verb. Therefore, verbs also can be form from other parts of speech by joining together or with the help of verb making affixes, which are added the end of the stem.

Verbs can be made from derivational affixes or from noun adjectives, numbers, and verbs or from other parts of speech. When they are formed as derivative affixes, they are called derivative verbs.

There are five degrees of verbs in Turkmen and various kinds of these verbs. Moreover, each has different affixes that make different verbs from before. These suffixes are peculiar to that specific verb type or verb degree.

Verb degrees in Turkmen:

1. Duýp dereje (stem form of a verb): oýna (play) otur (sit), yaz (write)

2. -Şäriklik dereje (unity/cooperation/reciprocal): görüş (opinion), alyş (help to pick up), çekiş
Adding these goşulmalar, makes the verb exchanged between the two people or groups, or given and recieved in return.

-yş /-iş; -uş /üş; -ş

Maral jigisini gyjaklady-Maral hugged her little brother/sister.

Dostlar gyjaklaşdylar we ogşaşdylar-The friends hugged and kissed each other.

Sen Selbini gördüňmi? -Did you see Selbi?

Biz görşüp salamlaşdyk-We met and greeted each other.

3. Ýükletme dereje (causative): (make, have somebody do something) çekdir, ördür, getirt (make him get). The causative is a voice used when the subject causes the object to perform an action, as in -He made me do it-.When the causative is combined with the reflexive, it is called the dynamic: They married themselves!

Adding these “goşulmalar”-affixes makes the subject of the verb to also become the cause of an action or state.

-dyr/-dir; -dur/-dür; -yr/-ir; -ur/-ür; -uz,-üz; -ar/-er; -der/-dar; -t

Men şu kitap bilen gyzyklanamok-I am not interested in this book.

Mugallymym maňa Türkmen goşgularyny öwrenmäge gyzyklandyrdy-My teacher got me interested in Turkmen poetry.

E.g. Mergen öýe gelip derrewjik yatdy-Mergen came home and went to sleep right away.

Gülşat çagalaryny giç ýatyrdy-Gulshat put her children to bed late.

Men Aýnabady görenimde güldüm-When I saw Ainabat, I laughed.

Ol gülkünçli degişme aýdanynda dostlaryny güldirerdi-He made his friends laugh when he told a funny joke.

Men ýere çöküp güllerini çöpledin-I knelt on the ground and picked flowers.

Çopan düýäni çökerdi-The shepherd made the camel kneel down.

Tomsuna hemmeler ir turýar-Everyone gets up/wakes up early in the summer.

Meni sagat onda turuzsana! -Wake me up at 10 o'clock!

Ol işini etdi-He did the work.

Meni howluda işletdi-He made me work in the yard.

4. Özlük dereje (reflexive degree): bezendi (make up), geyindi (get dressed)

Adding -yn/-in; -un/-ün; -n suffixes makes the verb reflexive where the action of the sentence has its effect on the person or thing that does the action.

Men (meniň) joramy günde görýärim-I see my friend everyday.

Ol işe gidip görnüp gaýtdy-He went to work, showed himself and left.

Kakam paltany maşyna söýedi-My father leaned the axe against the car.

Men arkamy diwara söýendim/ söyedim-I leaned my back against the wall.

5. Gaýdym dereje: orulýar, sürülýar, alynýar. It is the counterpart of the passive voice in English.

In addition, there are five forms of the derived verbs:

1. -Şert şekli (conditional forms): okasa, bilsek, öwrense

The conditional mood is used when the realization of one event depends on the realization of another: I will go if you go.

This tense expresses hypothetical situations and is used like the English "if", usually followed by a statement in the Future Indefinite tense.

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazsam	If I write...	stem	+(sa)m	+(se)m
Sen ýazsaň	If you write...	stem	+(sa)ň	+(se)ň
Ol ýazsa	If he writes...	stem	+(sa)	+(se)
Biz ýazsak	If we write...	stem	+(sa)k	+(se)k
Siz ýazsaňyz	If you write...	stem	+(sa)ňyz	+(se)ňiz
Olar ýazsalar	If they write...	stem	+(sa)lar	+(se)ler

To form the negative, add -ma or -me after the verb stem.

Men ýazmasam = If I do not write...

Men gitmesem = If I do not go.

2. Hyýallanma şekli (to denote a wish Intentional Form): okamakçy, öwrenmekçi, bilmekçi.

The counterpart in English is "intend to."

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Men ýazmakçy	I intend to write.	stem	+makçy	mekçi
Sen ýazmakçy	You intend to write.	stem	+makçy	mekçi
Ol ýazmakçy	S/he intends to write.	stem	+makçy	mekçi
Biz ýazmakçy	We intend to write.	stem	+makçy	mekçi
Siz ýazmakçy	You intend to write.	stem	+makçy	mekçi
Olar ýazmakçy	They intend to write.	stem	+makçy	mekçi

To form the negative, add "däl" after the verb.

Men ýazmakçy däl = I do not intend to write.

Men gitmekçi däl = I do not intend to go.

3. Buýruk şekili (Imperative mood of the verb.): Oka, böl, bil, okaý, okagyn

Moreover, many languages have the imperative: Do this! In English, this is expressed by leaving out the subject (you) which is understood.

- Imperative Forms

In Turkmen, in the singular and plural "you" forms, the verbs are simply used as commands, with the register of politeness level as noted below. Note that the personal pronouns are parenthetical, indicating that they are not spoken as part of the command form, but indicate to whom the command is being delivered.

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
(Sen) ýaz!	Write!	stem		
(Sen) ýazsana!	Write, please! (polite)	stem	+sana	+sene
(Siz) ýazyň	Write!	stem	+yň	+iň
(Siz) ýazsaňizlaň	Write, please! (polite)	stem	+saňizlaň	+seňizläň

The first person singular and plural forms translate not as commands, but more as expressions of "I'm going to," "may I," "let me," or "let us." The personal pronouns are necessary here.

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
(Men) ýazaýyn.	May I write.(Let me write.)	stem	+aýyn	+eýin
(Men) geçeýin.	Let me pass.	stem		
(Biz) ýazalyň	Let's write!.	stem	+alyň*	+eliň*
(Biz) gideliň	Let's go!	stem		

*In colloquial speech, the endings are sometimes shortened to -aly and -ely.

To form the plural negative, add -ma or -mä after the stem:

Hat ýazmalyň = Let's not write a letter.

Bazara gitmäliň - Let's not go to the bazaar.

The third person forms are not commands as much as they are urges or wishes, translated roughly as "let..." or "would that..."

Verb Form	Translation	Form w/	MAK verbs	MEK verbs
Ol ýazsyn	Let him write.	stem		
Ol geçsin	Let him pass.	stem	+syn	+sin
Olar ýazsynlar	Let them write!	stem		
Olar geçsinler	Let them pass!	stem	+synlar	+sinler

To form the negatives of all the above forms, add -ma or -me after the stems, according to vowel harmony: Ol ýazmasyn = May he not write. Olar gitmesinler = May they not go.

4. Hökmanlyk (necessitative form): okamaly, öwrenmeli, bilmeli

English forms "must, may, have to" assist in forming these modal auxiliaries. He must study. She may know.

5. *İsleg* (request/wish): *okasady, bilayşedi, öwrenaşedi*.

The optative indicates a desire or wish for something to happen. In English, this is usually expressed with the auxiliary (helper) verbs such as *should* or *would*, as well as with expressions such as *I wish*.

3.3.4. Verb formation in Turkmen and their counterparts in English

Derived verbs are classified in two groups through their way of forming new verbs:

- A. Verbs derived from nouns, numerals, adjectives, and adverbs.
- B. Verbs derived from verbs

A. Verbs derived from other parts of speech

The same affixes can make verbs both from adjectives, nouns and from other parts of speech. The following affixes are given in groups according to their way of forming verbs, and given with possible examples. Verbs have four suffixes: *-ed, -s, -ing, -en*. Their main function is to distinguish the tense of the verb. Notice that verbs also have a suffix *-s*, although in this case it indicates that the verb is present tense and being used with a third-person subject, i.e. a subject something other than "I" or "you."

In English verbs are formed by specific affixes; to realize, to magnify, to strengthen, to surpass, to foresee...

to surpass- *üstün çykmak*

to magnify – *bolşundan ulaldyp görkezmek*

1). Verbs from nouns in Turkmen:

- a, e - *oýna, ýaşa, dişe*
- yk, ik, uk, ök - *ugruk, otuk, gözük*

-la, le, lan, len -their equivalent in English is “- en” .The verb –“ en” suffix frequently means "to make." for example, *brighten* means to make bright.

Deepen means to make deep.

e.g., tapawutlan, gaharlan, yüzlen, ýagla, ýazla, okla, daşla;
brighten, broken, deepen, earthen, fasten, golden, happen

2). Verbs from adjectives:

In English; - ing - e.g. verb + verb: running, eating

-ar, er -la, le: counterparts of these suffixes, sometimes could be - en – in the imperative form; -
akla (to paint) düzle (to flat), tämizle (to clean), agar (to turn white), göger

e.g., brighten, deepen, fasten, golden

-yk, ik, uk, ük – being, turn into, mood change imperative form - daryk, gijik, gönük

-umsyra, ümsüre—meaning to resemble /to behave like ; bilimsire (showing yourself like
educated person), akyllysyra ,ulumysyra

- ate – is a verb suffix ; the counterparts in Turkmen are to do; etmek , to be; bolmak , or –
suffixes : mak , mek

e.g., recuperate (keselden gutulmak), dictate (dolandyrmak), discriminate (ayrym etmek),
reinstate, eliminate (elemek), prostrate (dyza çökmek), decorate (bezemek), dominate, nominate.

Verb maker suffixes and their characteristics

-la, - le: This suffix forms verbs from nouns, adjectives, adverbs, numerals, modal words, and
manner words in modern Turkmen. This suffix has a very important role in making verbs not
only in Turkmen but also in all Turkish dialects.

1. To state the medium or the object with which the action was performed:

kesek (stone)- kesekle – (to throw a stone)

tüpeň (gun) - tüpeňle - (shoot with the gun)

palta (axe) – paltala (to cut down with an axe)

biz (awl) – bizle (to pierce with an awl)

pyçak (knife) – pyçakla (to kill somebody with a knife/to stab)

2. To denote a resultant verb and to denote a process:

dag (hot) – dagla (to brand)

çapak (applause) – çapakla (to scratch)

hor (thin) – horla (to suffer from pain)

azar (scolding) – azarla (to scold)

arzuw (wish) – arzuwla (to wish)

3. To denote how the action happened:

hatar (line) – hatarla (to put in order)

tekiz (flat place) – tekizle (to flatten/to smooth somewhere)

maýda (little piece) – maýdala (to cut in piece)

arassa (clear) - arassala (to clear)

suw (water) – suwla (to water)

renk (colour) – reňkle (to paint)

4. To denote time:

gije (night) – gijele (to spend the night at)

ir (early)- irle (to move somewhere early)

giç (late) – giçle (to be late)

5. To denote quantities/measure:

iki (two) – ikile (to divide into two pieces/ to divide in pairs)

jübüt (pair) – jübütle (to divide in pairs)

müň (thousand) – müňle (to count in thousands)

çanak (bowl) –çanakla (to put in a bowl)

stakan (a cup) – stakanla (to pour with a cup)

6. To denote manner and resemblance:

şow (sound of the wind) – şowla (to blow)

Türkçe (Turkish language) – Türkçe (to speak in Turkish)

Türkmen (as a nation) – Türkmençe (to do something like they do)

- **lan, len-** :This suffix is added to some nouns and adjectives, and their last letter 'n' may be added to the end of these affixes originally because of cooperation (cooperation / unity degree of the verbs) of the action as a meaning.

1. To denote a resultant verb: Alow (flame)-alowlan (to inflame), Akyl (wise) – akyllan (to get wise),At (horse) – atlan (to ride),Gahar (nerve) – gaharlan (to get nervous), Nahar (a meal) – naharlan (to eat the meal)

2. To denote 'to behave like': suw (water) – suwlan (to become watery),horaz (cock) – horazlan (to behave like a cock)

3. To denote a process: gyzyklan (to get interested),öý (house) – öýlen (to marry), öylenme (marriage),nikalan (to get married),gaýgy (sorrow) – gaýgylan (to become sorrowful)

-laş, leş – these are reciprocal suffixes in Turkmen ; to do something with somebody: means “each other”- e.g. dertleş, syrtlaş

The verbs having these suffixes are used:

1. To denote 'mood changes':

başga (other) – başgalaş (to become different)

goltgy (support) – goltgylaş (to give support to each other)

halsyz(exhausted) – halsyzlaş (to become exhausted)

2. To denote the result:

daş (stone/far) – daşlaş (to stone/to go away)

wahşi (wild) – wahşylaş (to become wild)

dawa (argue) – dawalaş (to argue with)

wada (promise) – wadalaş (to promise somebody)

3. To denote location and direction: ýer (place) – ýerleş (to settle down), daş (far) – daşlaş (to go away)

4. To denote the process of a speech: sagbol (goodbye) – sagbollaş (to make one's greeting/farewell), baýram (Bairam) – baýramlaş (to celebrate/to exchange bairam greetings), salam (hello) – salamlaş (to greet), söz (word) – sözleş (to word)

-ar,-er,-r - To make verbs from adjectives and nouns these suffixes are used actively:

1. To denote a process of change; ak (white) –agarmak (to turn white), gyzar (to turn red)

bozar (to turn pale),köz (embers) – közer (to grill)

2. To form transitive verbs: suw (water) – suwar (to water), ot (grass) – otar (to graze), öý (home) – öýer (to help someone to make a wedding)

-a,-e- : This suffix denotes the action of 'being, rendering, getting, and performing'. The meaning may be wishful or in the imperative form: Dil (tongue) - dile (to beg), Ýaş (age/young) –ýaşa (to live), gan (blood) –gana (to bleed), dürs (right) – dürse (to give support), san (numeral) – sana! (to count), baý (rich) –baýa (to be rich).

-al, el, l- reflexive suffixes: Most of the words, which have this suffix, mean 'to become, get, or grow...' Sometimes they can indicate causative statements.

Boş (empty) – boşal (to run out)

Sag (healthy) – sagal (to become healthy)

Uly (old) –ulal (grow up)

Gara (black) – garal (to look after)

B.Verbs derived from Verbs

-yl, il, ul, ül, l-are passive voice suffixes in Turkmen: baryl, gidil, dokal

There are many derivational suffixes to form verbs from verbs. There are two main important specific categories in making verbs from verbs. They are the kinds of verbs and degrees of verbs. They are divided into some groups according to their meaning:

1. The following suffixes denote that the action is performed mutually or together as a form of cooperation. Verbs which are made by some of these affixes show continuity: “-yş, -iş, -yşdyr,- işdir, -je, -ale,- akla,- ekle, ”- are used to form verbs.

Some affixes derive causative verbs with “-dyr, dir” affixes and these suffixes can also be added to the words having the suffixes “-laş” and “-yş –iş”:

e.g. Ýaz (write) – ýaz-yş-dyr (to cause to write)

Ver (to give) - ver-iş-dir (to cause to give)

Íý (to eat) –iý-iş-dir (to keep eating)

Gel (to come) – gelişdir (to do something well -dress up/to come again and again)

Gez (to walk around) – gezmele, gezmeleşdir (to wander about)

Dertleş (to have a heart-to-heart talk with somebody)
Dit (to scrap) - didişdir (to cause to scrap)
Kanunlaş (to become a law) –kanunlaşdyr (cause to create a law)
Towus (jump) – towsakla (keep jumping)
It (to push) – itekle (keep pushing)
Silk (to shake) - silkele (shake off)
Bök (jump) – bökjele (keep jumping)
Bak (to look) - bakjakla (looking without interest)
Ýol (to cut off) – ýolmala (cutting in pieces)

2. Some affixes show the degree of the verb or denote that derived verbs are not as strong as the previous meaning; action related to the previous one: -myjra, umtura, ümsüre, ynjyra-;
agla (to cry)- aglamjyra (seems crying),gül (to smile) -gülümjire (to pretend cheery),ardyn (to cough) – ardynjyra (to pretend to cough),ýäýdan (wants to stop doing something) – ýäýdanjyra (pretending not to do something)

3. There are some suffixes, which denote that the action is almost going to finish, or the meaning of the action is strengthened from before -“ala, ele” -are composed of two suffixes “-a” and “-la”. The verbs having these suffixes denote continuity: -añkyrla, eňkirle, enle, aňla, arla, erlegutar (to finish) – gutaraňkyrla (is going to finish)
duraňkyrla (almost to stop)
alarlanda (to turn pale with anger)

3.4. Adjectives

An adjective modifies a noun or a pronoun by describing, identifying, or quantifying words.
An adjective usually precedes a noun or pronoun, which it modifies.
e.g. The truck-shaped balloon floated over the treetops.
Mrs. Morrison papered her kitchen walls with hideous wallpaper.
The small boat foundered in the wine dark sea.

An adjective can be modified by an adverb, or by a phrase or clause functioning as an adverb.

E.g.

My husband knits intricately patterned mittens.

for example, the adverb "intricately" modifies the adjective "patterned."

In English, some nouns, many pronouns, and many participle phrases can also act as adjectives.

Adjectives are words expressing properties of objects (e.g. large, blue, simple, clever, economic, progressive, productive, etc.) and, hence, qualifying nouns.

Adjectives in English do not change according to number or case. The only grammatical characteristic they have is degrees of comparison. They are also categorized by their functions in the sentence.

Adjectives cannot show the concrete meaning when they stand-alone. Therefore, in almost every instance they precede nouns. In both languages, they differ from other parts of speech by the morphologically: In Turkmen, they have specific "-ymtil, mtyl, imtil, mtil" (-ish; diminutives in English) affixes which make adjectival degrees: "sarymtyl, agymtyl ...".

If there were no adjectives in our speech, it would be very difficult to identify the objects. Therefore, adjectives have an important role like nouns in speech. Adjectives modify nouns by coming before them generally and they do not take any inflectional affixes (case, numeral and possessive affixes). These inflectional affixes are not added to the adjectives, they are added to the nouns, which are modified by the adjectives.

The traditional definition of an adjective is a word used to describe or give more information about a noun, a word that qualifies a noun, adds something to its meaning but limits its application. An example will make this latter definition clearer. The noun "house" can be used to signify any house but limits the application. The "big new house" tells still more, but narrows the field still further. The description the "big, new, white house" applies to only a very few "houses"; it gives the fullest picture and the most limited application.

Generally, in Turkmen adjectives are made morphologically by using affixes. They differ morphologically from other parts of speech with their specific affixes in Turkmen “syz, siz, y, i, ki, ky, ik, yk”. English uses, are -able, less, ic, ous, ive, ful, er-est, y, al, ous (and others).

Adjectives in Turkmen are categorized in three groups according to structure. These are simple, complex, and derived adjectives.

3.4.1. Simple adjectives

Simple adjectives are those which consist of only one morpheme and are not historically new. These adjectives can occur phonetically in three different forms:

One-syllable, two-syllables, and three syllables as shown in the following chart:

one-syllable	two-syllables	three syllables
gök (blue), dar, gin, düz (flat), çal (grey), al-pale,	Ajy (hot), uly (large), gara, sary (yellow), yaşyl (green), nâzik, Garry, kiçi (young), pessaý (low)	Owadan (beautiful), akıllı (educated), medeniyetli, Gyrgyzy (red), göreldeli (well-behaved)

As it can be seen in the above chart, the forms of monosyllabic adjectives are composed of both “vowel + consonant” and “consonant + vowel + consonant”.

3.4.2. Complex adjectives

In modern Turkmen, adjectives are formed in the morphologic manner with affixes added or in syntactic way where words are added to each other or with the repetition of words occurs and they come after each other:

-ak yürekli adam (kind- hearted), uzyn boýly adam, bagly-bakjaly öý.

Complex adjectives are made generally in a syntactic way. More than one word comes together to show the quality of the modified thing. These adjectives are more complex than simple ones. They strengthen the meaning of the combination.

Two adjectives come together; first the root form the adjective + the derived form of the adjective:

- Suýji dilli aýal (sweet word), gara gözli gyz (black eyed girl).

1. Noun + adjective: demirgaply sagat, agzy ýelli adam, eli ýeňil tebib, gulagy kesik sygyr.

An adjective without an affix + noun: Gymmat baha kitap (expensive book), bet gylyk kişi, garagöz gelin (beautiful girl), ak sakgally adam.

2. A numeral + adjective, number + noun: two-door (iki gapyly), twenty-page (yigrimi sahypalyk), forty-mile (kyrk kilometrlik).

iki dilli adam (liar), iki ýuzli adam (two faced) , ýüz ýaşly garry (a hundred year old woman), ikiagyzyly ajdarha (double mouth creature).

3. An adjective / adverb + past participle (in English).

An adjective or adverb plus a past participle is one of the most common patterns for forming compound adjectives. Some common examples would include:

cold-blooded – sowuk ganly (don yürekli), kind-hearted – (hoş gylykly), old-fashioned (köne modaly) , open-minded - aýyk düşünjeli , deeply-rooted (asylyly) , densely-populated , well-behaved (terbiyeli).

e.g. Most animals are warm-blooded but all reptiles are cold-blooded.

He was a cold-blooded murderer and showed no emotion of any kind.

She lived in an old-fashioned house, but was kind-hearted and open-minded.

There are many possible combinations, e.g. broad-minded, narrow-minded, absent-minded, strong-minded, as well as open-minded. It is partly a matter of knowing which adjectives or adverbs collocate or go with which participles and nouns. We have brightly-lit streets, but also brightly colored dresses or swimsuits or sweets.

4- In English ; an adjective / adverb / noun + present participle

Here are some common examples: good-looking (owadan), hard-wearing (tertipsiz geynüwli), free-standing (özbaşdak/ yeke başyna), never-ending (tükeniksiz), far-reaching, long-lasting (gutarnyksyz), mouth-watering (agzy suwardyjy), labour-saving, record-breaking (rekord geçen).

e.g. The good-looking chef was dressed in hard-wearing clothing and sitting in front of a free-standing cooker.

The dishes he had prepared with all the labour-saving devices at his disposal were all mouth-watering.

We signed a long-lasting agreement for his services which we hoped would be never-ending.

Other common patterns of English compound adjectives include:

a- Noun + past participle: shop-soiled (zayalanan), tongue-tied (agzyna berk), sun-dried (güne kakadylan),

b- Noun + adjective: trouble-free (kynçylyksyz), world-famous (tananan/ dünýa belli),

c- Adjective + noun: deep-sea (çunnur deniz), full-length (hemmesi/tamamy/tümi), last-minute (sonkyja minutda),

e.g. When they refused to exchange the shop-soiled item, I was tongue-tied and didn't know what to say.

If you want trouble-free motoring, make sure you use only lead-free petrol.

The sun-dried tomatoes that we sell are world-famous.

She was wearing a full-length dress, quite unsuitable for deep-sea diving.

The forty-mile journey in the two-door, open-top convertible was ill - advised in such inclement weather.

Characteristics of the complex adjectives in Turkmen:

A. In a broad sense, complex adjectives are another kind of derived adjectives. In complex adjectives the following peculiarities can be realized:

a. Although each adjective has its own sense, when used with another adjective it forms a new meaning with the adjective when used together.

“Gül-jajekli baýyrlar” (an orchard full of flowers)

b. The components of the combination can function by themselves.

e.g.uzyn-saçly (long-haired); uzyn (long),saçly (haired)

However, there are some that cannot function similarly: çartaraply (square), zähmetsöýer (work-addict)

B. Complex adjectives that are formed through recurring simple or derived adjectives:

a. synonym roots : uzyn-uzyn (for a long time)

b. roots with close meanings: açyk-pikirli (open-minded),

c. antonym roots:- bolar-bolmaz (not well behaved), ýagşy –yaman (good and bad), wagtly-wagtsyz (not the right moment), gerekli- gereksiz (at necessary-or unnecessary time)

C. Those whose first elements are adjectives and their latter parts are either nouns or adjectives.

Simple adjective + derived adjective: gysgatolkunly- low frequency, açyk pikirli – broad-minded

Derived adjective + derived adjective: akly garaly (black and white)

Simple adjective + noun: gökgöz (blue-eyed), aksaç (white-haired)

Derived adjective + noun: egribil (crooked), güleryüz (cheerful)

D. An adjective whose first part is a noun and whose second part is either an adjective or a noun.

Noun + noun: çünnekburun (big-nosed), gyzýöreýiş (walking like a woman)

Noun + derived adjective: daşýürekli (stone - hearted), aýýüzli (moon- faced)

Noun + number: ikidoganoglan (cousin), enebir (with the same mother)

Noun + case suffix + adjective/noun: başyboş (idle / not under control), eliegri (thief), agzyhapa (the person who uses slang words)

E. Adjectives, which are composed of nouns, verbs or verbs only. Moreover, they can be formed from numbers, nouns, and adjectives.

Noun + Verb: italmaz (unwanted), guşgonmaz (deserted)

Verb + Verb: iýip-doýmaz oglan (greedy child)

Number + Noun: başburç (pentagon), altyburç (hexagon)

Number + derived adjective: dörtgözli (four-eyed), başýyldyzly (five-star)

3.4.3. Derived adjectives

In Turkmen language, like in other Turkish dialects, derived adjectives are formed by some derivational suffixes. Some of these suffixes can form both derived adjectives and nouns.

Adjectives are mainly formed by nouns and verbs in Turkmen.

3.4.3.1. The formation of adjectives in Turkmen and in English

1. Adjectives from nouns (Noun + Adjective): England – English, Peru - Peruvian

-al - baptism-al, biblic-al, circumstanti-al, coloss-al, comic-al.

-ial – national, residential;

-ful- = ly, li (in Turkmen)

e.g., doubtful (şüpheli); painful, powerful (kuwwatly), useful (peydaly), pitiful, merciful, grateful, faithful (hormatly), joyful, meaningful (manyly), resentful

-y – dusty. (-ly, li; Turkmen counterparts)- When adding a - y to a noun, it frequently forms an adjective.

storm –stormy(şemally), rain (yagyş) - rainy (yagyşly) , dirt – dirty(kirli) , snow snowy (garly), luck – lucky, risk – risky(riskli).

-ana = ly : merdana, dostana (friendly)

-jañ, jeñ- ous - adjective suffix: gahar- nerve, gahar + jañ (nervous), söweşjeñ (warrior)

e.g., various (tapawut+ly), ferocious, enormous (gojaman), obvious (üytgeşik), conscious (aklynda bolan)

= ed: ylymly (educated),

-çi, çy – : zarpçy, demirçi (black+smith)

-bi: bimahal (late); this prefix means “without” or “- un, - in” in English that are used in a negative sense.

- ing -adjective suffix ; e.g. running, (very) humbling

-ça, çe - diminutives or mean “little” - köynek+çe (little shirt)

-y,i - ic- (ical, al) -instead of “at, et”—millet (nation), milli (national), syýasat (politics),syýasy (political) , syýasy (politics),

-ýat, ýet - al --medeniýet (cultural), medeni (civilized), edebiýat (literature) –edebi (literary), matematik (math)-matematiki (mathematical), fizik-fiziki (physical)

-siz/-suz/-syz -less (without): The suffixes -siz, -suz, or -syz, according to vowel harmony, mean “without” or “un”: tasteless, colorless.

e.g., painless (ajysyz), merciless (amansyz), faithless (hormatsyz), careless (ünssüz), hairless (saçsyz), lawless (kanunsyz), thoughtless (düşünjesiz), needless (gereksiz), comfortless.

-daky/-däki – “that one”, in, on.

These suffixes adhere to the rules of vowel harmony and act as adjective clauses do in English, as in the following examples:

Men şol kinodaky gyzy halamok - I don't like the girl in that film.

Tejendäki mugallymlar biziň ýygnağmyza gelýärler -The teachers from Tejen are coming to our meeting.

Aşgabatdaky mekdep biziňkiden gowy -The school in Ashgabat is better than ours.

Öýüňizdakilere köp salam aýt! - Say "hi" to those at your house.

10njy "A" klasdaky okuwçylaryň tertibi gowy däl -The pupils of the 10th "A" class are not well behaved.

Eliňdäkini aýyr! - Get rid of what's in your hand!

Parkyň içindäki gazly suw şäherimiziň iň gowysy -The juice in the park is the best in our city.

Mekdebiň ýanyndaky howlyda toý bar -There's a party in the yard next to the school.

Men şu köýnekdäki ýakany gowy görýärin - I like the yoke (collar) of this dress.

Öten ýyldaky hasyl bu ýylydakydan köpdi -Last year's harvest was more than this year's.

2. Derivational suffixes (of Verb+ Adjective):

Form verbs – **ive** –progressive; **-able** – understandable

-ç, k = adjective suffix - ic -

e.g., terrific (korkunç), fantastic (fantastik), magic, tragic, public, scientific, enthusiastic

-ive –jy,ji ; adjective suffix

e.g., creative (yaradyjy), appreciative (gadyr biliji /gadyrly), inventive (oylap tapyjy), protective (gorayjy), active, attractive (çekiji)

-jañ, jeñ -utanjañ (shy)

-ak, ek, k -gorkak (coward)

-mazak, mezek -(-ness) ;uselessness, oýanmazak, eşitmezek

-gy, gi -sanalgy (counted), edilgi (readymade, ready, made)

-able -adjective suffix

e.g., breakable, acceptable, excusable, endurable, lovable, reliable, enjoyable, laughable.

Another adjective suffix with a special meaning is -able / ible 'able to'. Here are some examples: able / -ible- 'able to' – adorable - 'able to be adored' ; worthy of , able to be honorable, likable

-ful ; full of, having qualities of : (Adjectives + adjectives) helpful, beautiful

3.4.4. Types of Adjectives

1) Possessive Adjectives

A possessive adjective ("my," "your," "his," "her," "its," "our," "their") is similar or identical to a possessive pronoun; however, it is used as an adjective and modifies a noun or a noun phrase, as in the following sentences:

What is your phone number?

After many years, she returned to her homeland.

Here the possessive adjective "her" modifies the noun "homeland" and the noun phrase "her homeland" is the object of the preposition "to." Note also that the form "hers" is not used to modify nouns or noun phrases.

We have lost our way in this wood.

In this sentence, the possessive adjective "our" modifies "way" and the noun phrase "our way" is the direct object of the compound verb "have lost". Note that the possessive pronoun form "ours" is not used to modify nouns or noun phrases.

The cat chased its ball down the stairs and into the backyard.

In this sentence, the possessive adjective "its" modifies "ball" and the noun phrase "its ball" is the object of the verb "chased." Note that "its" is the possessive adjective and "it's" is a contraction for "it is."

2) Demonstrative adjectives

"bu" (this) şu /ol (that), "bular" –these, "şular/olar" (those)

The demonstrative adjectives "this," "these," "that," "those," and "what" are identical to the demonstrative pronouns, but are used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrases, as in the following sentences:

When the librarian tripped over that cord, she dropped a pile of books.

In this sentence, the demonstrative adjective "that" modifies the noun "cord".

Even though my friend preferred those plates, I bought these.

In the subordinate clause, "those" modifies "plates" and the noun phrase "those plates" is the object of the verb "preferred." In the independent clause, "these" is the direct object of the verb "bought."

Note that the relationship between a demonstrative adjective and a demonstrative pronoun is similar to the relationship between a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun, or to that between an interrogative adjective and an interrogative pronoun.

3). Interrogative adjectives

Common interrogative adjectives include: Năçe (how many/how much), name (what), nătüysli, neneñ, nahili, and haysy? An interrogative adjective ("which" or "what") is like an interrogative pronoun, except that it modifies a noun or noun phrase rather than standing on its own (see also demonstrative adjectives and possessive adjectives section):

Which plants should be watered twice a week?

Like other adjectives, "which" can be used to modify a noun or a noun phrase. In this example, "which" modifies "plants" and the noun phrase "which plants" is the subject of the compound verb "should be watered":

What book are you reading?

In this sentence, "what" modifies "book" and the noun phrase "what book" is the direct object of the compound verb "are reading."

4). Indefinite adjectives

Common indefinite adjectives include: Her, Herhäsy, Häsydyrbir, Herbiri, Bütün, Hernäçe (some), and Hiçbir. An indefinite adjective is similar to an indefinite pronoun, except that it modifies a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase, as in the following sentences:

Many people believe that corporations are under-taxed.

The indefinite adjective "many" modifies the noun "people" and the noun phrase "many people" is the subject of the sentence.

I will send you any mail that arrives after you have moved to Sudbury.

The indefinite adjective "any" modifies the noun "mail" and the noun phrase "any mail" is the direct object of the compound verb "will send."

They found a few goldfish floating belly up in the swan pond.

Adjectives take some affixes to show the nouns' characteristics and their various states, which they modified in a sentence. They change the original meaning of a word. In addition, they show different meaning themselves than their previous meaning by modifying nouns; they show the noun's general state whether they are diminutives or not. Degrees of adjectives are a specific form of adjectives.

Adjective degrees are as follows in Turkmen:

1. Stem form - Düyöp dereje. They are adjectives, which do not take derivational degree affixes. They are as root and derivated adjectives.e.g.

-ak (white) , sary (yellow), ylymly (educated), gorkak (cowardly), ýaranjaň, ösgün , açyk (opened), eýmenç (horrific).

2. Kemlik - Söýgülik dereje (diminutives): -ymtyl, mtyl, umtyl, ymtyrak, yl, ilt, sov (- ish); -ja, je -jak, jek (little, -ine)- saryja, gökje:
agyymtyl (whitish), sarymtyl (yellowish), gyzylyt (reddish/ like a red), altynsow (golden), uzynsow (tallish), dorumtyl at, melemtil.

3. Artyklyk (perfectness /Intensifiers) - they come before adjectives as prefixes: -iň, örän, çuw, şar (very, most, too, so, such)- and they change of root adjectives first syllable with these letters “m, p, s” to make perfectness degree of adjectives. -ap-ak, göm-gök, dos-dogru, çym-gyzyl, şar-gara, çuw-ak, sap -sary, gömgök.:

We didn't go swimming because it was very cold out.

We didn't go swimming because it was such cold out.

It was too cold to go swimming

It was so cold that we did n't go swimming.

4. Deňeşdirme (Degrees of comparison) : er, est, more, most, (-rak, räk-)

One peculiar feature of adjectives in many languages is comparison. There are three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The positive form is the plain stem of an adjective (e.g. heavy, slow, extravagant, etc.).

There may be special forms of the adjective when you are using it to say that a noun is more or less of whatever quality the adjective expresses (the comparative form), or that is is the most or least of that quality (the superlative form).

In English, we still see special words like good/better/best, regular endings such as big/bigger/biggest, and synthetic forms such as significant/more significant/most significant. Certain adjectives have irregular forms in the comparative and superlative degrees: Irregular

Comparative and Superlative Forms: good-better–best, bad-worse–worst, little-less-least , much /many / some -more –most.

e.g. Gladys is a rich woman, and Josie is richer than Gladys, but Sadie is the richest woman in town.

Comparison degree of adjectives in Turkmen mainly obtained by “rak, räk” suffixes.

The preceding ablative is the only one which can express a comparative degree.

Has (more) Az (less): with preceding ablative (-dan).

To form the comparative, the -dan/den suffix (than) is added to the noun being compared; and the suffix -rak or -räk is then added to the adjective, they have equal meaning with “-more, -er, less” in English. As in the following examples, the -rak/räk ending is not mandatory. The inflected suffixes -er and -est form most comparatives and superlatives, although we need -ier and -iest when a two-syllable adjective ends in y (happier and happiest); otherwise we use more and most when an adjective has more than one syllable.

The adjective suffixes -er and -est are also considered inflectional. They are used when comparing two things (-er) or more than two things (-est). Be sure to distinguish the -er suffix from a derivational suffix with the same form.

e.g. Bu üzümler şol üzümlerden süýji,

Bu üzümler şol üzümlerden süýjiräk -These grapes are sweeter than those grapes

The **-rak/räk (-er, more, than)** ending can be used to indicate a comparative idea without the actual comparative structure:

Olaryň köýnekleri kelteräk - Their dresses are (generally) shorter.

To form the superlative, the words iň or has (most) are added before the adjective:

Maral meniň iň gowy okuwçym - Maral is my best pupil.

Bu maşynlardan seniňki has owadan - Of all these cars yours is the most beautiful.

Sekizinji klaslaryň iň ökde okuwçylaryny saýla = Choose the most talented pupils of the eighth grade.

They compare adjectives and make the meaning stronger than the stem form meaning.
There are two methods of forming the comparative and the superlative degrees in English:
adjective suffixes:

1. By adding the suffixes – er- and – est- ;
e.g., taller, shorter, smarter, richer, sweeter, wiser, friendlier
e.g., tallest, shortest, smartest, richest, sweetest, wisest, friendliest
- a) For monosyllabic adjectives,
New-newer- newest, bright-brighter- brightest,
- b) Disyllabic adjectives ending in –er, -ow, -y, or –le,
tender-tenderer-tenderest, narrow-narrower-narrowest.

2. By using “more” and “most” before the adjective. This method is used for:
Most disyllabic adjectives are; careful, more careful, and most careful. Private-more private-most private

A few adjectives have irregular forms for the degrees of comparison.

They are: Good-better-best, Bad-worse-worst, Far-farther-farthest (for distance), far-further-furthest (for time and distance), Late-later-latest (for time), late- later- last (for order).

Notice the following sentence patterns in which comparison is expressed:

- a) The as — as construction is used to create a comparison expressing equality:

e.g. She is as bright as her mother.

-Your hat is as expensive as hers -Seniň şlýapaň hem onuňky ýaly gymmat.

*Your hat and hers as expensive.

Your dog is as big as his. -Seniň itiň hem onuňky ýaly uly.

*Your dog and his as big.

Their students are as good as ours. -Onuň owkuwçylar hem biziňki ýaly gowy.

*Their students and ours as good.

- b) Comparison of inequality (not so...as, not as...as),

His skin was not as bronzed as a Tahiti Native's.

You are not as nice as people think.

c) Comparison of inferiority (less...than)

John is less musical than his sister.

3.5. Pronouns

Pronouns include a various group of words which function in the sentence as pronouns or as adjective pronouns. They are words that serve as placeholders for nouns. Instead of referring to a person by his or her name, we use pronouns; instead of naming something repeatedly, we refer to use them. The first refers to the person speaking or his/her group (I, me; we, us); the second person refers to the person spoken to or his/her group (you); and the third person refers to other person outside the conversation or to things (he, him, she, her, it, they, and them).

It is difficult to define the meaning of pronouns. Unlike nouns and adjectives, they refer to the object or person previously mentioned, but only point to them. They have a generalized meaning instead, which becomes clear only in the context or situation.

Various individual pronouns may have different grammatical categories. Some of them have the category of number (e.g. this-these, that – those), others have the category of case (e.g. I-me, somebody- somebody`s), still others are invariable (e.g. each, such, all, what and some others).

It should be pointed out that although pronouns function as nouns or adjectives in the sentence, they do not cover all the functions of nouns and adjectives, but can only have some of them.

Pronouns are divided into eight groups in Turkmen according to their meaning and grammatical differences whereas in English they are divided into nine classes by their meaning and role in a sentence. But again they have almost the same meaning as the Turkmen counterparts. In Turkmen, we have reciprocal pronouns but they are studied under reflexive pronouns.

Pronouns can be divided into the following classes:

Type of pronoun	Purpose	Examples in Turkmen(English)
Subject	Simply replaces the subject of a sentence	men (I), sen (you), ol (he), (she), ol (it), olar (they)
Demonstrative	Replaces a noun while also pointing to it	bu (this one), şu (that one),şo, şol (that one), those- bular (these), şular (those ones)
Object	Functions as the object of a verb or preposition	Ona (him), ona (her), mana (me), sana (you), olara (them), bize (us)
Reflexive	Used when the direct object and indirect object of a verb refer to the same person. These are used much more in Turkmen (öz) than in English.	özüm (myself), özüň (yourself), özi (himself, herself), özleri (themselves)
Possessive	Refers to something owned or possessed by someone.	menin, meninki (mine), özüňminki (mine), seninki (yours), onunky (his, hers), olaryňky (theirs)
Indefinite	Refer to nonspecific people or things	Kabir, kabiri (something), kimse, hiçkim, hiçkimse (nobody), hiçkim, kimdirbir, kimdir biri (anybody), hemme (all), hemmesi, tümi (all),biri, bir, birisi (one), birnäçe (some),hiç, hiçbir (none)
Relative	Introduces a clause that gives more information about a noun or pronoun	(that, which, who, whom), (who, whom), (whose), (whose), (where), (which, that which)
Interrogative	Used in questions	Name (what), nedir (what), haçan (when)

In Turkmen, many of the pronouns can have more than one translation, and not all are listed in the examples. Note also that many of the pronouns, particularly the indefinite and relative pronouns, can serve as other parts of speech:

1. personal pronouns- At çalyşmasy
2. interrogative - Sorag çalyşmasy
3. reflexive pronouns - Gaýdym çalyşmasy
4. demonstrative - Görkezme çalyşmasy
5. indefinite- Nämälim çalyşmasy
6. possessive –their counterparts are affixes of genitive case and specific suffix “ky”.
7. relative-/conjunctive pronouns - have not the same counterparts inTurkmen
8. emphatic - have not the same counterparts inTurkmen.
9. reciprocal - has different Turkmen counterparts.

In Turkmen we have some other classification of pronouns where they don't have direct counterparts in English. They are as follows:

1. San çalyşmasy - (quantity / numeral pronouns)
2. Namalim-Ýokluk çalyşmasy - ("none / zero" pronoun or pronouns which mean rejecting of something)
3. Namalim – jemleyji çalyşmasy

3.5.1.Kinds of pronouns

1. Personal Pronouns.

They are used instead of nouns and they can be used as any part of a sentence. They can be changed in cases (mine, him, his, to you) but they cannot be used or changed by numeral or possessive affixes. They are as follows: Men (I), Siz (you), Sen (you), Ol (he /she/ it), Biz (we), Olar (they).

Personal pronouns can also be declined like nouns, but the declension of these pronouns is a little different from the declension of nouns; men (I), sen (you), ol (he/she/it) pronouns are changing their forms when they get dative case affixes. We distinguish singular and plural personal pronouns. Singular personal pronouns refer to one person or thing and plural personal pronouns refer to more than one person or thing.

Name of the cases	Relational suffixes for singular and plural pronouns	First person	Second person	Third person
Baş	--	Men, biz	Sen, siz	Ol, olar
Eýelik	in/un/yn	Meniň(my), biziň(our)	Seniň(your), siziň	Onuň(his), olaryň (their)
Ýöneliş	a/e	Maňa(to me), bize(to us)	Saña (to you),size	Oňa(to him), Olara(to them)
Ýeňiş	i/y	Meni(me),bizi(us)	Seni(you),sizi	Ony(him),olary(them)
Wagt - orun	da/de	Mende (on me),bizde(on/at us)	Sende,sizde (on you)	Onda(on him),olarda (on/at them)
Çykys	dan/den	Menden(from me),bizden (from us)	Senden (from you), sizden	Ondan(from him), olardan(from them)

In English, a personal pronoun refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender, and case.

The pronouns "I, we, you, he and she" are mainly used for persons. "I", "we" and "you" are indifferent to gender, while "he" is masculine and "she" is feminine. The pronoun "it" is used for animals, concrete things and abstract notions, i.e. it refers to neutral nouns. The pronoun "they" is used for persons, animals and things and is indifferent to gender.

The personal pronouns are used as nouns in the sentence. The personal pronouns have the category of case. There are two cases for personal pronouns – the nominative case and the objective case. The other name of the nominative case is subjective personal pronoun; the objective case is known as the objective personal pronoun. In Turkmen language both subjective and objective pronouns are given under personal pronouns.

a). A subjective personal pronoun indicates that the pronoun is acting as the subject of the sentence. The subjective personal pronouns are "I," "you," "she," "he," "it," "we," "you," "they."

In the following sentences, the subjective personal pronoun acts as the subject of the sentence:

I was glad to find the bus pass in the bottom of the green knapsack.

You are surely the strangest child I have ever met.

When she was a young woman, she earned her living as a coal miner.

After many years, they returned to their homeland.

We will meet at the library at 3:30 p.m.

It is on the counter.

b). An objective personal pronoun indicates that the pronoun is acting as an object of a verb, compound verb, preposition, or infinitive phrase. The objective personal pronouns are: "me (mana)," "you (sana)," "her (ona)," "him," "it," "us (bize)," "you (size)," and "them (olara)."

e.g. After reading the pamphlet, Judy threw it into the garbage can. The pronoun "it" is the direct object of the verb "threw".

The agitated assistant stood up, faced the angry delegates and said, "Our leader will address you in five minutes." In this sentence, the pronoun "you" is the direct object of the verb "address."

Deborah and Roberta will meet us at the newest café in the market. Here the objective personal pronoun "us" is the direct object of the compound verb "will meet."

Give the list to me. Here the objective personal pronoun "me" is the object of the preposition "to".

2. Possessive Pronouns; they are studied under personal pronoun classification.

These are the following possessive pronouns in English: singular; my (menin), your (senin), his (onun), her, it, plural; our (bizin), your (sizin), their (olaryn).

Possessive pronouns serve to modify nouns in the sentence, i.e. they function as adjectives.

e.g. The doctor usually came to his office at three o'clock- Lukman onun iş yerine köplenç saat 3 'de geldi.

Do you think you are losing your popularity? -

From my place I could watch the people eating their lunch- men duran yerimden naharyny iyyan adamlary görüp bilyardim.

A possessive pronoun indicates that the pronoun is acting as a marker of possession and defines who owns a particular object or person. The possessive pronouns may function as nouns as well. Then they are used in their so-called absolute forms: "mine (meninki)," "yours (seninki)," "hers (onunki)," "his," "its," "ours (bizinki)," and "theirs (olarynky)."

Abstract possessiveness: -ky- they come after genitive case affixes; Gandym+yñky (Gandym's), Oraz+yñky (Oraz's), men+ iñ + ki (mine, seninki-yours, onunki-his/hers, bizinki-ours) . In English, this possessiveness "ky" , is possible with "s" . Note that possessive pronouns are very similar to possessive adjectives like "my," "her," and "their" . e.g.

The smallest gift is mine. Here the possessive pronoun "mine" functions as a subject complement.

This is yours. -Here too the possessive pronoun "yours" functions as a subject complement.

Theirs will be delivered tomorrow. -In this sentence, the possessive pronoun "theirs" is the subject of the sentence.

3. Demonstrative Pronouns: those- that –these-this (bu, şu, ol, hol, şo, şol, bular, şular)

A demonstrative pronoun points to and identifies a noun or a pronoun. "This" and "these" refer to things that are nearby either in space or in time, while "that" and "those" refer to things that are farther away in space or time. Turkmen demonstrative pronouns also have almost the same meaning with their English equivalents. The demonstrative pronouns are "this (bu)," "that (şu)," "these (bular)," and "those (şular)." "This" and "that" are used to refer to singular nouns or noun phrases and "these" and "those" are used to refer to plural nouns and noun phrases.

We use them to show something or to imply view in speech. When they are used alone in a sentence, they can be changed by numeral and case affixes in Turkmen. The demonstrative pronoun "bu" changes its form as "munym" when it acquires case affixes.

Name of the cases	Relational suffixes for pronouns	Singular form, without numeral suffixes	Plural form when they get numeral suffixes
Baş	--	Bu, şu	Bular, şular
Eyelik	in/un/yn	Munyň, şunyň	Bularyn, şularyn
Ýöneliş	a/e	Muňa, şuňa	Bulara, şulara
Ýeňiş	i/y	Muny, şuny	Bulary, şulary
Wagt -orun	da/de	Munda, şunda	Bularda, şularda
Çykyş	dan/den	Mundan, şundan	Bulardan, şulardan

When they acquire possessive suffixes and are declined in cases:

Name of the cases	Relational suffixes for singular pronouns	First person	Second person	Third person
Baş	--	munym, şunym	munyň, şunyň	munusy, şunusy
Eyelik	in/un/yn	munymyň, şunymyň	munynyn, şunyňyň	munusyňyň, şunusyňyň
Ýöneliş	a/e	munyma, şunyma	munyňa, şunyňa	munusyna, şunusyna
Ýeňiş	i/y	munymy, şunymy	munyňy, şunyňy	munusyňy, şunusyňy
Wagt -orun	da/de	munymda, şunymda	munyňda, şunyňda	munusynda, şunusynda
Çykyş	dan/den	munymdan, şunymdan	munyňdan, şunyňdan	munusyndan, şunusyndan

Note that the demonstrative pronouns are identical to demonstrative adjectives, though, obviously, you use them differently. It is also important to note that "that" can also be used as a relative pronoun.

The pronouns 'this' and 'that' have the category of number. Their corresponding plural forms are: these and those; This must not continue.-Here "this" is used as the subject of the compound verb "must not continue."

Three customers wanted these. Here "these" is the direct object of the verb "wanted".

4. Interrogative Pronouns – Sorag çalyşmalary

An interrogative pronoun is used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns are "how much", "how many", "who," "whom," "which," "what" and the compounds formed with the suffix "ever" in English ("whoever," "whomever," "whichever," and "whatever").

Interrogative pronouns are used instead of question forms of nouns, adjectives and numbers.

Kim, näme - who, what - instead of nouns

Nire -where - showing direction or instead of direction words

Haçan, näwägt – when - instead of time relation words

Nähili, nätüysli, neneňsi, niçik - how instead of adjectives

Näçenji, näçe, haýsy - how, how many, how much are used instead of numerals/quantities

Hasy, haçan, hany - which

Generally "kim (who), nira (where), haýsy (which one) pronouns used and changed in cases and possessives.

e.g. -'Nämäňiz bar?' (What do you have?)

-'Aşyr aga nira gitdigini aýtmady'. (Ashyr aga did not say anything about where he had gone).

After "neneň" and "niçik" any affixes should not be added when they are used in cases in Turkmen language.

Declension;

Baş (Nominative) kim (who)	näme (what)
Eyelik (Genitive) kimiň (of whom)	nämäniň (of what)
Ýöneliş (Dative) kime (to whom)	nämä (to what)
Ýeňiş (Accusative) kimi (whom)	nämäni (what)
W.Orun (Locative) kimde (in/on whom)	nämäde (in/on/at what)
Çykyş (Ablative) kimden (from whom)	nämäden (from what)

As it can be seen above, when the pronoun ends with a vowel "e" in genitive, dative, and accusative forms it is changed to 'ä' vowel with respect to the harmony rule. Note that either "which" or "what" can also be used as an interrogative adjective, and that "who," "whom," or "which" can also be used as a relative pronoun.

We will find "who," "whom," and occasionally "which" used to refer to people, and "which" and "what" used to refer to things and to animals.

"Who" acts as the subject of a verb, while "whom" acts as the object of a verb, preposition, or a verbal.

E.g. Which one wants to see the dentist first? - "Which" is the subject of the sentence.

Who wrote the novel Rockbound? - Similarly "who" is the subject of the sentence.

Whom do you think we should invite? - In this sentence, "whom" is the object of the verb "invite."

To whom do you wish to speak? - here the interrogative pronoun "whom" is the object of the preposition "to."

To whom did you give the paper? - in this example the interrogative pronoun "whom" is the object of the preposition "to."

What did she say? - Here the interrogative pronoun "what" is the direct object of the verb "say."

How many did you find?, How much money do you need?

5. Relative/ conjunctive Pronouns in English

Relative pronouns are used to connect a noun with a phrase that gives more detail about the noun: He is the one whom you saw yesterday.

In English, we use a relative pronoun to link one phrase or clause to another phrase or clause. The relative pronouns are "who," "whom," "that," and "which." The compounds "whoever," "whomever," and "whichever" are also relative pronouns; "how much", "how many", "that" are also conjunctive pronouns. These pronouns serve to connect subordinate clauses with the principal clause. Owing to their auxiliary function they are called conjunctive pronouns. You can

use the relative pronouns "who" and "whoever" to refer to the subject of a clause or sentence, and "whom" and "whomever" to refer to the objects of a verb or a preposition.

As we can see, in English, they are often the same as Turkmen counterparts as interrogative pronouns. There are no different classifications of pronouns in Turkmen as relative or conjunctive pronouns. Interrogative pronouns get some affixes to connect clauses or phrases in Turkmen. Therefore, we do not have any different classification like relative pronouns.

e.g. You may invite whomever you like to the party.

The relative pronoun "whomever" is the direct object of the compound verb "may invite".

The candidate who wins the greatest popular vote is not always elected.

In this sentence, the relative pronoun is the subject of the verb "wins" and introduces the subordinate clause "who wins the greatest popular vote". This subordinate clause acts as an adjective modifying "candidate."

Whoever broke the window will have to replace it. -Here "whoever" functions as the subject of the verb "broke".

I will read whichever manuscript arrives first -Here "whichever" modifies the noun "manuscript" and introduces the subordinate clause "whichever manuscript arrives first." The subordinate clause functions as the direct object of the compound verb "will read."

6. Indefinite Pronouns

These pronouns refer to indefinite persons or things. In most cases, they are used in place of nouns. Indefinite pronouns include words such as someone, anyone, many, and so on. Like the indefinite article, they do not indicate precisely about "whom" we are talking. An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun referring to an identifiable but not specified person or thing. An indefinite pronoun conveys the idea of all, any, none, or some.

The most common indefinite pronouns in English are "all," "another," "any," "anybody," "anyone," "anything," "each," "everybody," "everyone," "everything," "few," "many," "nobody," "none," "one," "several," "some," "somebody," and "someone." They have almost the same counterparts in Turkmen.

Common indefinite pronouns in Turkmen: pylanı (-), neme (-), kimdir (someone), namedir (somewhat/something), haýsydyr (whichever), birisi (the one/ any), her zat (everything), her kes (everybody), kimse (whoever), biri (one/some one), her kim (anyone), birentek (many), bir tüýsli, bir hili).

As their structure, indefinite pronouns can also be classified in terms of simple, derived, and complex forms as follows.

Simple: herkes, käbir, neme, kim

Derived: biri (one), birisi (some one), kimde...kim, ençeme, ençe, pylan, kabir

Complex: bir tüýsli, bir hili, her zat (everything), her kim, her bir, her naçe, bir wagt

We use indefinite pronouns in a speech when we forgot name of something or we do not know the name of thing that we are faced with. They are used actively when preceding nouns. These pronouns have both simple and complex forms. We can use them with cases and numerals (hernäçe, herhaýsy, her biri, herhili).

-‘Her’ pronoun doesn’t accept case and numeral affixes alone in Turkmen : Herýan ýangyn, her reňkde.

In Turkmen language, we have another classification of the indefinite pronouns as namalim-yokluk and namalim- jemleyji. But in English their counterparts are studied under indefinite pronouns. Beside that quantative pronouns also are studied under indefinite pronouns as their subgroups, whereas in Turkmen they are given separate classification as San/ Mukdar Çalyşmasy.

We find the following subgroups among them:

1) Indefinite pronouns proper:

a) some , any , no

b) someone, somebody, anybody, anyone, nobody, no one, something, anything, nothing,

c) one, none.- namalim- ýokluk çalyşmasy : “none” pronoun

This pronoun is also called ‘hiçlik’ pronoun in Turkmen, which means “none” in English. It is used instead of indefinite things in English. However, in Turkmen, indefinite pronouns are divided into three groups.

The “none” pronoun is a noun pronoun. It has negative meaning indicating not one or not any and can be used for persons as well as of things, countable and uncountable. The verb following it may be singular or plural, according to the sense required.

e.g. None of us knows where he is going to work. None of them really know how ill she is. None of them are any use to me.

It is a complex pronoun by its formation. In Turkmen, this pronoun is used independently as ‘yokluk’ çalyşmasy, which means, this pronoun shows ‘none of mentioned things (it may be a view or object...)’ or used instead of indefinite things. As a structure, it is a complex pronoun, which comes into with other words; like ‘tüýsli, hili, bir, wagt, and bir zat’ they, comes after ‘hiç’ and the structure creates complex words. In addition, it forms the full meaning of a pronoun when it comes with words that mean thing, person, time, or one place:

- (hiç haçan, hiç wagt, hiç yerde, hiç kim, hiç kimse, hiçimiz, hiçiňiz, hiçisi, hiçisine, hiçimize, hiçisiniň,)

They do not take numeral affixes but they only take the plural form of possessive affixes. They can be changed by case suffixes but ‘wagt, haçan’ words when they come with ‘hiç’ do not accept possessive and case suffixes. When “hiç” comes alone, it does not take case affixes:- hiç kim (nobody), hiç biri (no one), hiç wagt (never), hiç haçan (never), hiç zat (nothing)-

2) Distributive pronouns:

a) all , every, each, other, either, neither, both

b) everybody, everyone, everything

3) Quantity pronouns- mukdar çalyşmasy and Namalim – jemleyji çalyşmalary –

all hemme, ahli, bar, bary, bütin, külli, tamam, jümle, barça, pylança, käbir, bary, birnäçe, ýary, , tutuş, birneme, birentek, , -much, many, little, few, a little, a few, a lot of, lots of , a great deal (birgiden), a great many (ençeme).

Among them, the “bary” pronoun cannot take (lar, ler) plural affixes, but with other pronouns we can use plural affixes. Pronouns except ‘bütün’ get possessive suffixes like nouns just in plural forms. They can be used with case suffixes.

The pronoun “all” is used as a noun pronoun and as an adjective pronoun. “All” used as a noun pronoun is singular when it means everything, the whole of a thing. “All” used as a noun pronoun is plural when it means everybody, the total number of persons, animals or things. e.g. All are welcome. All agree that he has behaved splendidly. All of us think so.

“Each” as an adjective pronoun is synonym of “every” but there is some difference in meaning between them. “Every” tends to gather the separate items into a whole; each focuses attention on them individually and so tends to disperse the unity, it takes the members of a definite group one by one, without adding them up. In other words, “every” refers to a number of individuals or things, considered as a group; each refers to a number of individuals or things, considered separately.

e.g. Every orange in the crate was wrapped in tissue paper. He carefully unwrapped each orange before putting it on the scales.

Hemme zat, hemme kişi, sahel wagtda üytgeyar. Öyünün bar işini edyan Ejegüldi. Bu gije bütün ak baydaklaryn yerine gyzyl baydaklar dikildi.

-Many were invited to the lunch but only twelve showed up. - Here "many" acts as the subject of the compound verb "were invited".

The office had been searched and everything was thrown onto the floor. - In this example, “everything” acts as a subject of the compound verb "was thrown."

Give a registration package to each. - Here "each" is the object of the preposition "to."

7. Reflexive Pronouns

There are also pronouns that reflect the action back onto the subject -- appropriately named reflexive pronouns. These pronouns are used as noun pronouns in the sentence. They are called

reflexive pronouns because they serve to show that the action is performed by the person which is indicated by the subject of the sentence passes back again to the same person. In other words, the subject of the sentence and its object indicate the same person. In English, they are often nicely marked with -self (myself, yourself, himself, etc.).

Reflexive pronouns are formed in Turkmen by the combination of ‘öz’ (own) with possessive suffixes ‘-üm, ümüz, ün, ünüz, ü, leri-’

They get affixes of cases and numerals to make a sentence more effective and fluent. They change with the addition of possessive affixes. Nevertheless, they acquire case affixes just after they accept possessive affixes.

Özüm, özüň, özümiz, özüňiz are declined as normal nouns, and the third person forms ‘özi and özleri’ have a pronominal ‘n’ inserted.

Name of the cases	First person (singular and plural)	Second person	Third person
Baş/nominative	Özüm(myself) Özümiz(ourselves)	Özüň(yourself)	Özi (herself)
Eyelik/genitive	Özümiň (of myself) Özümiziň (of ourselves)	Özüniň(of yourself)	Özüniň (of herself)
Ýöneliş/dative	Özüme (to myself) Özüme (to/for ourselves)	Özüňe(to yourself)	Özüne (to/for herself)
Ýeňiş/accusative	Özümi (myself) Özümi (ourselves)	Özüni (yourself)	Özüni (herself)
Wagt-orun/locative	Özümdä (on myself) Özümizde (at/on ourselves)	Özüňde(on yourself)	Özünde (on herself)
Çykys/ablative	Özümden (from myself) Özümden (from ourselves)	Özüňden(from yourself)	Özünden (on themselves)

When reflexive pronouns used after personal pronouns, personal pronouns accept possessive suffixes while they agree with relational suffixes as follows: men özüm (I myself), onuň özüniň (of he himself), senin özüňden (from you yourself), biz özümiziň (of we ourselves) , siziň özüňizde (at you yourselves).

A reflexive pronoun is repeated when the action is reflected back to the same actor : Öz-özüne (I by myself), öz-özüne (he by himself)

We use a reflexive pronoun to refer back to the subject of the clause or sentence.

The reflexive pronouns are "myself," "yourself," "herself," "himself," "itself," "ourselves," "yourselves," and "themselves." Note each of these can also act as an intensive pronoun.

Diabetics give themselves insulin shots several times a day.

After the party, I asked myself why I had faxed invitations to everyone in my office building.

Richard usually remembered to send a copy of his e-mail to himself.

Although the landlord promised to paint the apartment, we ended up doing it ourselves

8. Intensive / emphatic Pronouns

An intensive pronoun is a pronoun used to emphasise its antecedent. Intensive pronouns are identical in form to reflexive pronouns.

E.g.

I myself believe that aliens should abduct my sister.

The Prime Minister himself said that he would lower taxes.

They themselves promised to come to the party even though they had a final exam at the same time.

These pronouns are strongly stressed, but nevertheless they can be omitted without destroying the sense of the sentence.

9. Reciprocal pronouns

There are two reciprocal pronouns in English: each other and one another. They show that something is done mutually. Both pronouns are mainly used in the function of an object (direct, indirect or prepositional) in the sentence.

e.g. I knew that my aunts bitterly disliked each other.

Unlike poles attract each other and like poles repel each other.

The streets were so like one another that you might have easily lost your way.

All gases diffuse into each other.

3.5.1. Cases of Pronouns

These follow fairly straightforwardly from the regular case endings. The only unusual exceptions have a mutation of “ol” to “on” in all cases, and the dative pronouns “maňa, saňa, and oňa”.

Nomnative	men I	sen you (singular informal)	ol he, she, it	biz we	siz you (plural or formal)	olar they
Poss.	meniň my	seniň your	onyň his, her, its	biziň our	siziň your	olaryň their
Dative	maňa ~to me	saňa ~to you	oňa ~to him, her, it	bize ~to us	size ~to you	olara ~to them
Accus.	meni ~ me	seni ~ you	ony ~ him, her, it	bizi ~ us	sizi ~ you	olary ~ them
T/Place	mende ~ upon me	sende ~ upon you	onda ~ upon him, her, it	bizde ~ upon us	sizde ~ upon you	olarda ~ upon them
Instrum.	menden ~ from me	senden ~ from you	ondan ~ from him, her, it	bizden ~ from us	sizden ~ from you	olardan ~ from them

3.6. Numerals

Numerals differ from other parts of speech in morphological, syntactic and lexical-semantic ways. They show the qualities and order of the objects or other things in life. Moreover, as a morphological symbol they have specific affixes like: “nji, njy, unjy, ünji” in Turkmen, where in English their counterparts are “st” for one, “nd” for (second), three, and “th” for all other numbers.

They generally come before the nouns in a sentence in Turkmen language. Moreover, another difference is they can be written with letters or by their symbols.

In Turkmen, numerals are not various. However, their role in language is very important, thus they are an independent group as a member of main parts of speech in Turkmen. They can be used with other parts of speech to make new numerals.

Originally, numerals were not more than twenty words in Turkmen. They are as singular numerals:

-from “one” to “nine” (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)

-as plural, or we call them in Turkmen as “onluklar” (ten by ten): 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90,

-and “yüz we müňlükler” - ‘hundreds and thousands’.

-In Turkmen, there are also “millions” and “billions” as loan words.

A. In modern Turkmen, numerals may be divided into three groups according to their morphological structure.

1. Simple numerals: üç (three), baş (five), alty (six)

e.g.-60 ýaşan 70 ýylky sopular,

Az galypdyr aý günüňiz batmaga (in a poem)

2. Complex numerals: they are formed from simple numbers by coming after each other in the right order: 540 (five hundred and forty), 230, 305, 1988, 465

3. Repetition of numbers (to guess something / for estimation of the speaker about something):

“Bu ýere 5-10 yigit toplanan ekeni”.

“30-40 talyp bu jaýa sygjak”.

B. In Modern Turkmen, semantically simple and complex numerals are divided as “mukdar” (cardinal), “tertup” (ordinal), “bölek” (fraction), “bütin (complete)”, “çen-takmyn” numerals.

Numerals include mainly two classes of words in English– cardinal numerals and ordinal numerals .

The simple form of numerals is the cardinal number, which indicates a certain quantity of something. There is also the ordinal number, which indicates the position of something in a sequence: He was the third man.

Cardinal numerals indicate number: one, two, three, four, ten, twelve, eighteen, twenty, thirty-three, seventy-five, a hundred, one hundred and forty-six, two hundred and twenty-eight, a thousand, seven thousand three hundred and seventeen.

Ordinal numerals indicate order: first, second, third, fourth, tenth, twelfth, twentieth, forty-seventh, two hundred and thirty-ninth, etc.

1. Bütün mukdar sanlar (whole numbers): baş (five), yüz (hundred), mün (thousand)

2. Bölek sanlar- fractions- ondan üç (2/3), altydan dört (4/6), baş bütün ikiden bir

Common fractions are read in the following way:

$1/2$ = one half, $1/4$ = one quarter.

If a dividend number is more than one we add -'s to the end of the number below; $2/3$ = two thirds; $3/8$ = three eights; $5/12$ = five twelfths.

Decimal fractions are read as: 3.5 = three point five; 4,76 = four point seventy-six ; 8.03 = eight point zero three.

3.Çen-takmyn sanlar (estimation): onlarça, birlan-ikilan (one by one and two two), münlerçe (thousands)

4. Cardinal numerals (mukdar): 1 one, 9 nine, 10 ten, 11 eleven, 100 hundred, bir (one), iki (two) , üç (three) , dört (four), baş (five), alty (six), yedi (seven), sekiz (eight), dokuz (nine), on (ten), ondört (fourteen), yigirmi (twenty), otuz (thirty), kyrk (fourty), elli (fifty), mün (thousand)...

5. Ordinal numerals (tertip): first, second, fifth, sixth, hundredth, and millionth.

The numerals - hundred, thousand, and million are always preceded by the indefinite article "a" or the numeral `one` in English. The latter is generally used when these numerals are followed by some other numerals , e.g. a hundred but one hundred and twenty - three ; a thousand but one thousand seven hundred and thirty.

e.g. Five hundred books. Three thousand cars . Two million workers.

- the exact number of persons or things is given;

- but in the examples below where hundred, thousand and million do not indicate any exact number but only a great multitude of persons or things: Hundreds of books, thousands of cars, millions of workers.

The suffix [-inji, ynjy] is added to the cardinals to form ordinals as in the following example:

cardinal ordinal

alty (six) altynjy (sixth)

Numerals used as nouns can be declined and can bear possessive suffixes as required:

e.g. bir (one)-biriniň (one's), birinjiniň (of the first)

Dates are read in the following way:

e.g. 1st September, 1944 - the first of September (September the first), nineteen (hundred and) forty - four;

5 th January, 1807- the fifth of January (January the fifth), eighteen hundred and seven.

Both cardinal and ordinal numerals can function as nouns or adjectives in the sentence.

e.g. (noun)

1) Three of the schoolboys fell ill with scarlet fever.

There were four of us there.

"Will you have another cup of tea?" "No, thank you. I've had two."

There were three questions in the test. The second was particularly difficult.

Jane was the first to wake up.

"Which exercise would you like to do first?" "I think I will begin with the third."

2) We had three visitors that day. The first visitor to arrive was my aunt Milly.

For cardinal numbers from 12 to 20 we add suffix `teen` as morphological structure ; from 20 to 100 suffix `ty`, and for ordinal numbers suffix `th` adds to all of them beginning with number five.

In modern Turkmen numerals sometimes come into use like nouns in a sentence. In that situation, like nouns, they get affixes of numerals (plural form: lar, ler), possessives and cases.

e.g.-Teke, ýomut, gökleň, ýazyr, alili,

Bir döwlete gulluk etsek başimiz (Magtymkuly).

Ahmet gel ikimiz sazak ýygaly.

- Meň çöregimi üçüsi paýlaşdy.

3.7. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are structural words that serve to connect words or phrases as well as clauses or sentences. They are words that connect two parts of a sentence.

They may be single words (e.g. and-we ,but -emma, or – ya , as, while, because - çünki, though, etc.), complex ; they are conjunctions which had combinations with the adverb of `ever` or combinations of two conjunctions (however, whereas) (in Turkmen, emma weli, yöne weli, yogsam bolmasa, bardy-geldi...), phrases consisting of more than one word (e.g. in order that – munyn yerine, on condition (that) – şu sebapden , in case – bu yagdayda , as soon as, as long as , for fear (that) , as if – beyle bolsa, as though, etc.) and also correlative conjunctions, i.e. conjunctions that are always used in pairs (e.g. both...and, either...or- ya-ya-da, not only... but also, as...as, etc.).

Some `ing` - forms and participles are also used as conjunctions (e.g. supposing , seeing, given (=on condition ,if) , providing or provided).

Conjunctions don't use any specific derivational or inflectional affixes. In English, they may have lexical meaning of their own.

e.g. He came to see me because he felt happy.

He came to see me though he felt happy.

He came to see me when he felt happy.

He came to see me if he felt happy.

Conjunctions, in Turkmen, `we, emma, yagny` (originally arabic words), and `hem, ya, eger` (Persian words originally) are loan words . There are other words besides conjunctions that serve as connectors in sentences. The relative pronouns “who” and “which” are often used similarly whereas in Turkmen 'diyip, sebabi, bolsa'.

Conjunction words when used as subordinating conjunctions are pronouns and adverbs; who, whose, what, which, that, adverbs; when, where, how, why.

They are the members of a subordinating clause.

1. Real conjunctions; we, emma, hem, weli, a, çünki , eger,ya, ya...ya, ka...ka.

- a) They don't have an independent lexical meaning.
- b) They connect words, phrases or sentences, and cannot be member of a sentence.
- c) They don't get derivational or inflectional affixes.

2- Helping words as conjunctions : yöne, bardy-geldi, bir, sebabi, bolup, bolsa, diyip

- a) they have a material meaning out of context.
- b) many of them use a derivational or inflectional affixes
- c) they can be a member of a sentence if they used in their lexical meaning.

e.g. In December 1922, when the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was formed, Moscow became its capital.

William Sydney Porter, who is known under his penname O. Henry, is one of the best-known writers in America.

Shakespeare is the greatest writer whom England has ever known.

According to their role in the sentence , conjunctions fall into two groups: coordinating conjunctions (e.g. and, but, or, either...or, besides, moreover, likewise, both... and, yet, still, nevertheless, hence, therefore, accordingly, etc.) and subordinating conjunctions (e.g. that, if, whether, as, though, since, when, until, as long as, before, after, because, unless, so that, than, as....as, etc.).

3.7.1. Coordinating conjunctions -Düzmeli baglaýjylar.

They connect words, phrases, clauses or sentences which are independent of each other. In other words, they join elements that are grammatically the same: two or more words, two equivalent phrases, or two equivalent clauses. The most common coordinate conjunctions in English are: "and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," or "yet".

e.g. John and Mary went to the store. Edward is tall and handsome. John went to the store, but Mary stayed at home. Neither red nor black is my favorite color. His light-brown hair was fine and thick. She looked scornful but she was secretly pleased.

e.g. This movie is particularly interesting to feminist film theorists, for the screenplay was written by Mae West. In this example, the co-ordinating conjunction "for" is used to link two independent clauses.

Daniel's uncle claimed that he spent most of his youth dancing on rooftops and swallowing goldfish. - Here the co-ordinating conjunction "and" links two participle phrases ("dancing on rooftops" and "swallowing goldfish") which act as adverbs describing the verb "spent."

A correlative conjunction is a special kind of coordinate conjunction. It connects equivalent elements, but it works in pairs of words. They always appear in pairs - we use them to link equivalent sentence elements. The most common correlative conjunctions are "both...and," "either...or," "neither...nor," "not only...but also," "so...as" and "whether...or." (Technically correlative conjunctions consist simply of a coordinating conjunction linked to an adjective or adverb.)

In Turkmen, coordinating conjunctions (also correlative conjunctions are studied as their subgroups) are divided mainly into three subgroups: *ugurdaşlygy bildiryanler* -conjunctions of sequence, conjunctions denoting contrast – *garşylygy*, and *bölünişligi bildiryanler*- conjunctions denoting alternatives. e.g. He wants both money and power.

Neither money nor power matters.

-Ne aldy, ne alana gezek berdi.

-Onun pikirine ne sen düşündüň ne-de men

Either she will go, or she will stay.

Kinds of coordinating conjunctions:

1-ugurdaşlygy bildiryanler -conjunctions of sequence ; and, as well as, nor, neither...nor, not only... but also, both...and. we, hem/hem-de, weli/welin, yagny

e.g. Both my grandfather and my father worked in the steel plant.

In this sentence, the correlative conjunction "both...and" is used to link the two noun phrases that act as the compound subject of the sentence: "my grandfather" and "my father".

The explosion destroyed not only the school but also the neighboring pub.

In this example the correlative conjunction "not only ... but also" links the two noun phrases ("the school" and "neighboring pub") that act as direct objects.

-“Men hem okayaryn, hem işleyarin”.

- “Biz tebigaty soýýäris we goräýarys”.

2-garşylygy- conjunctions denoting contrast; (real conjunction words), emma, yöne,weli/welin, yogsam; (helping words forming conjunctions); bolsa, bolmasa, gaytam. In English; and, but, still, nevertheless, yet, however. They show the reason of the case if it happens or not: e.g.

-Sen öň geläydin, yogsam / bolmasa bu kitaby men aljakdym

“Men okadym, yöne düşünmedim”.“Oraz geldi weli, seni tapmady”.“Biz kino görduk, emma muzeýi gezmedik”.

e.g.He would not listen to me , and I wanted to warn him.

Insulators in reality conduct a current , but their resistance is very high.

The Fahrenheit scale is quite inconvenient, still (nevertheless) is used in England and the USA.

The waters of the lake were deep, yet clear.

e.g. Bu synag birnäçe gezek gaytalandy, emma kömek bermedi.

Yigitler şunça kowdular welin, ol yetdirman, gözlerinden gayyp boldy.

Ona erte görersin... yöne agzyna berk bol.

3-bölünişligi-conjunctions denoting alternatives; ya (ya-da, ya...ya.../ ya-da), reciprocal conjunctions; ka (ka...ka/ ka...ka-te, kate ... kate bolsa) or, either...or

e.g. Bring either a Jello salad or a potato scallop.

Here the correlative conjunction "either...or" links two noun phrases: "a Jello salad" and "a potato scallop."Electrical energy may be changed into radiant energy, or it can be changed into mechanical energy. Harry up or you will be late! We can use the same rotating machine either as a generator or as a motor.

Solmaz öyde oturmagyn yerine ka doganyna giderdi ka gonşularyna.

Hormatly adamlar yarazy bolun ya-darazy boljaklara böwet bolman.

Kate men okuwa gitmayesim gelyardi.

3.7. 2. Subordinating Conjunctions

A subordinating conjunction introduces a dependent clause and indicates the nature of the relationship between the independent clause(s) and the dependent clause(s).

The most common subordinating conjunctions in English are "after," "although," "as," "because," "before," "how," "if," "once," "since," "than," "that," "though," "till," "until," "when," "where," "whether," and "while."

e.g. After she had learned to drive, Alice felt more independent.

The subordinating conjunction "after" introduces the dependent clause "After she had learned to drive."

If the paperwork arrives on time, your cheque will be mailed on Tuesday.

Similarly, the subordinating conjunction "if" introduces the dependent clause "If the paperwork arrives on time."

Gerald had to begin his thesis over again when his computer crashed.

The subordinating conjunction "when" introduces the dependent clause "when his computer crashed."

Midwifery advocates argue that home births are safer because the mother and baby are exposed to fewer people and fewer germs.

In this sentence, the dependent clause "because the mother and baby are exposed to fewer people and fewer germs" is introduced by the subordinating conjunction "because."

While coordinate conjunctions connect equal grammatical elements, subordinate conjunctions introduce dependent or conditional clauses. e.g.,

Although she has money, she buys few luxuries.

Because he was late, he missed the train.

After the movie is over, we shall have dinner.

Subordinating conjunctions may occasionally introduce a word or a phrase within a simple sentence.

e.g. His father was sharp with his children, while at home.

He promised to sell the car if necessary.

He looked happy though somewhat tired.

When a child, he often had to run errands for his elders.

Kinds of subordinating conjunctions :

1-**Şert baglaýjylary-conditional conjunctions** ; (in Turkmen) *hergiz , eger, bardy-geldi, egerle.*

In English; if, unless, provided (that), providing (that), supposing, once
e.g. The intensity of the current in a circuit decreases if the resistance of the circuit is increased.
Gases are characterized by extreme lightness unless they are highly compressed.
Supposing two equal and opposite forces are applied to the body, will it remain in equilibrium?
e.g. Eger kabul etseniz men sizin yumşunyzy bitireyin.
Bardy- geldi bolmaz iş bolaysa, mana eglenman habar etgin!

2- **Sebäp baglaýjylary-** conjunctions denoting reason connect parts of a complex sentence. -
çünki, sebabi - as , because, since, seeing, because of conjunctions that show the purpose of the sentence = that, in order that, so that, lest.

e.g. In order that an inflammable gas may burn in air, it must first be raised to the ignition temperature.

He wrote down the number lest he should forget it.

e.g. As the day was clear, they decided to climb the mountain.

A copper wire became red-hot because an electric current was passed through it.

Since rubber is a non-conductor of electricity, it is used for insulation.

e.g. Men ol habary sana wagtynda aýtmadym çünki seni tapyp bilmedim.

Howsalaly adamlar az salymdan dargadylar, çünki olary köşeşdiren habar berilipdi.

Men gitmedim sebabi ol yerde menin ornuny tutjak kişi gyt daldi.

3 - **Başganyň sözünüň** we **gepleşigiň baglaýjylary: reporting words** -*diýip, diýen; – told, said;*

Allajan özün goldaweri - diyip yola düşdüler.

Bir suprada tayyar kylynsa aşlar- diyen Magtymguly Türkmenleri agzibirlige, doganlyga çagyrypdyr.

4 - **Anyklamagy görkezýän baglaýjylar-conjunctions denoting explanation:**

-*meselem (for example), yagny (in other words), mysal üçin (for example)*

5 -**Time** ; *as soon as , as long as, till, until, before, after, since, directly, when, while*

e.g. Gases and liquids return to their original volume as soon as the applied force is removed.

A liquid does not become hotter, as it continues to boil.

The tourists did not make camp till it grew dark.

What have you been doing since you left our town?

He was still asleep when the snow began to fall.

The ball possesses a definite store of potential energy while it is in the elevated position.

6-Comparative ; as, as if, as though, so...as, as...as, not so... as, than, the...the.

They serve to join a subordinate clause to the principal clause.

e.g. Maggie had not understood the appearance of this stranger as Tom had.

Flowers frozen in liquid air can be broken with a hammer as if they were made of glass.

The molecules of hydrogen hit as hard as the molecules of chlorine.

When the play was over he asked her if she would let him see her home.

The two girls were silent till he left the room.

He winked at me as he passed.

He felt marvellously happy as though everything he did were a marvel.

It should be pointed out that a number of conjunctions have (a) homonyms among prepositions (b) and adverbs (c).

e.g. a) He had not heard himself called that name since his mother died.

b) Everything has gone wrong since that night.

c) He had his last meal in the restaurant car and hasn't had anything to eat since.

In English language, some conjunctions resemble by their form to the prepositions and adverbs in their form. We must check them in a given sentence to be able to distinguish them.

e.g. I met him in 1970 and have not seen him since. (adverb)

He realized that the old life he had lived since boy-hood was ended. (preposition)

What have you been doing since you left our town? - (conjunction)

All gases liquefy before reaching absolute zero. (preposition)

A tested specimen elongates before a rupture takes place. (conjunction)

We have met before. (adverb)

Before they leave, let us have dinner. (conjunction)

I wanted to do it but I couldn't. (conjunction). I met nobody there but him. (preposition) .

3.8. Prepositions

Prepositions are structural words which are used with a noun (or a noun-equivalent-a pronoun or an `ing` form) to show its relation to some other word in the sentence- a verb, another noun, an adjective and occasionally an adverb. They link nouns, pronouns and phrases with other words in a sentence. The word or phrase that the preposition introduces is called the object of the preposition in English.

A preposition usually indicates the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of its object to the rest of the sentence as in the following examples:

The book is on the table. The book is beneath the table. The book is leaning against the table. The book is beside the table. She held the book over the table. She read the book during class.

In each of the preceding sentences, a preposition locates the noun "book" in space or in time.

Prepositions may have a lexical meaning of their own.

e.g. Her sister appeared, carrying a wine – glass in which there was a raw egg, with a little sherry on it.

The path felt springy beneath his feet.

He dropped into a chair beside his mother.

She arrived before lunch.

The most common prepositions in English are "about," "above," "across," "after," "against," "along," "among," "around," "at," "before," "behind," "below," "beneath," "beside," "between," "beyond," "but," "by," "despite," "down," "during," "except," "for," "from," "in," "inside," "into," "like," "near," "of," "off," "on," "onto," "out," "outside," "over," "past," "since," "through," "throughout," "till," "to," "toward," "under," "underneath," "until," "up," "upon," "with," "within," and "without."

e.g.

The children climbed the mountain without fear. -In this sentence, the preposition "without" introduces the noun "fear." The prepositional phrase "without fear" functions as an adverb describing how the children climbed.

There was rejoicing throughout the land when the government was defeated. Here, the preposition "throughout" introduces the noun phrase "the land." The prepositional phrase acts as an adverb describing the location of the rejoicing.

The spider crawled slowly along the banister. The preposition "along" introduces the noun phrase "the banister" and the prepositional phrase "along the banister" acts as an adverb, describing where the spider crawled.

The screenwriter searched for the manuscript he was certain was somewhere in his office. Similarly in this sentence, the preposition "in" introduces a prepositional phrase "in his office," and acts as an adverb describing the location of the missing papers.

Prepositions may be simple, complex, and prepositional phrases; e.g. in, on, for, below, behind, across, inside, within, etc., and also phrases consisting of more than one word, e.g. because of, thanks to, due to, in front of, owing to, but for, etc. Besides, there are a large number of combinations in English based on the pattern `preposition+ noun + preposition (e.g. in addition to, on top of, on account of, in view of, in accordance with, in contrast with, with respect to, etc.). They are functioning as prepositions.

A prepositional phrase is made up of the preposition, its object and any associated adjectives or adverbs. A prepositional phrase can function as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. The word group beginning with the preposition and ending with a noun is called a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase includes the preposition, the object of the preposition, and any modifiers of the object. The noun or pronoun is called the object of the preposition.

Complex : inside ('içinde'), outside (daşynda), throughout (üstü bilen/ depesinden), upon (üstüne), into (içine).

Prepositional phrases: because of (sebabi), instead of (yerine), as far as (çenli), by force of (kömegi bilen...), in front of (önünde), contrary to (garşy/garşysynda), opposite to (tersi/tersine), as compared with (deneşdirende),etc.

Prepositions may indicate position in space or direction (e.g. on, in, under, over, at, near, to, into, out of, from, towards, etc.), time (e.g. after, before, during, for, in, on, at, etc.), various abstract relations (e.g. by, with, at, on, for, against, because of, instead of, owing to, according to, etc.).

In contrast, in Turkmen language, we have postpositions (sözsoňy kömekçiler) instead of prepositions, but they serve the same purpose. Noun cases are often a substitute for prepositions or postpositions, and may in fact have developed out of them.

Prepositions, like other function words, do not have special morphological symbols. In Turkmen we have post positions and a case system. When we want to translate something related to prepositions in English to Turkmen, we do that through case affixes. In Turkmen we do not have the direct equivalent of prepositions but we have case affixes as their counterparts. In English, "of, by, to, with" prepositions actively substitute for case affixes in Turkmen language.
e.g. to sit by the window - penjere de otyrmak;
He was invited by his friend - ol dosty tarapyn dan çagyryldy.

Prepositions change the semantic meaning of the word which come together; for example;
to look after - bakmak, seretmek, to look at something - bir zada seretmek, to look for something - bir zady gozlemek, to take after - menzemek, yerini almak, to take for - yerini çalyşmak, yerine görmek,
I took to her at once - gyzyklanmak, bagly galmak, to wait for – garaşmak, to serve on - hyzmat etmek.

Prepositions look like adverbs and postpositions by their form. But they have difference; adverb and postpositive words have got intonation in the sentence where prepositions do not have:

e.g. they made up/ their quarrel - "up"postposition

Up in the mountains the air is clear and bracing - adverb

We went/ up the hill - preposition

Postpositions in English depend on to the lexical meaning of the verb which they join together in sentences. They clarify their meaning only with their partner words.

At last- in sonunda. At first- başynda. At home- öyde. At night - agşam/ agşama

On foot – pyyada. For good - hemişelik gowulyga.

By no means - hiçbir sebapden

As we see the above prepositional phrases sometimes do not give an exact meaning when they are translated to the Turkmen.

Prepositions show time, purpose, direction and etc... . For these purpose in English we use "of, by, for, to, with" prepositions with the help of the nouns. They are used in case declension in English. In contrast, in Turkmen language, there is no use of prepositions in declension, instead we use specific case affixes. They cannot be translated to the Turkmen language alone from their lexical meaning , when they come with the nouns in cases.

In addition, the words which precede postpositions must be in nominative, dative or ablative form. In Turkmen, many of the nouns are used with possessive endings and in the dative, locative and the ablative cases to indicate space or other relationships: Aşagynda (under), aşagyndan (from bottom), aşagyna (underneath), üstünden (over), üstünde (on), üstüne (over/upon), arasynda (in), hakynda (about), arkaly (by/via), tarapyndan (by somebody), zerarly (because of), barada (regarding/concerning)...

There are some postpositions listed below that can be used with other words, or which belong to different parts of speech.

1. *of - yn, in , eyelik düşüm – in a genitive case*

e.g. All the doors of the laboratories and classrooms were closed and locked - Bütün synplaryn we barlag otaglarynyn gapylary yapyk we gulplanypdy.

e.g. Bilen, bile, ýaly, üçin, sebäpli, zerarly, hakda, babatda, barada, dogruda, boýunça, arkaly, bäri, tarapyndan, hökmünde, çemesi, töweregi, taýdan, mynasybetli –

Bilen, bile, ýaly: when these come after demonstrative pronouns and nouns, words which came before these postpositions must be in the genitive form:

Bahar kino biziň bilen gitdi.

Men bu kitaby seniň üçin aldym

Seniň ýaly yürekdeş dosty tapmadym.

2. **by, with - da, de= dan den** wagt-orun we çykyş düşüm- locative case. E.g. The base of all modern developments in Turkmenistan were laid with the directions of Turkmenbashi.

Postpositions governing the ablative form of the case: öň (before), öňinça, owal (first), ozal, son (after), arka (back), ileri (ahead), soňra, başga (else), gaýra, özge (other), bári (along/to this side), aňryk (to the other side), beýläk, artyk (more), beter, daşary (out), zyýada, içeri (in) - these postpositions come with the words which are in the ablative form of the case.

3. to - a,e yöneliş düşüm- dative case :

The name of Neptunium was given to the new chemical element No. 93.

Common postpositions governing the dative form; the following examples of postpositions come with the words that are in the dative form:Çenli (till), çen (by), deňiç (as far as), deň (until), görä (for), tarap (about/toward), baka, sary (toward), garşy (opposite), golay (about), yakyn (near/almost), garaman, bakan, seretman, garamazdan, bakmazdan, seretmezden, laýyklykda : e.g. oňa çenli – until that; bize görä – for us/ up to us - dative case suffix.

Sometimes some simple prepositions in English have a different meaning in a context. They can be translated to Turkmen language using different words or may have different equivalents. And sometimes we cannot translate them.

For example, preposition "in";

1) Place: where? ;

He is in the room = Ol otagda

2) Time

in winter= gýşda, in August= Alp Arslan ayynda, in an hour= bir sagatdan , bir sagadyn içinde

3) Statement

He was in great difficulty- ol gaty kyn yagdaydady.

Our ship was caught in the storm - Bizin gamimiz tupana sezewar boldy.

In contrast, some Turkmen postpositions also may have different equivalents when they are translated into English. Some preposition equivalents, which come with a verb, in Turkmen are `mak/mek` as an infinitive of the verb. They are translated into Turkmen without prepositions.

e.g.

To wait for – garaşmak, to ask for - soramak, hayyş etmek, to look for – gözlemek, to listen to – dinlemek, to belong to - degişli bolmak, to aim at - maksat edinmek, to care for - gyzyklanmak, aşygy bolmak, to explain to – düşündürmek.

Every eye was turned upon Bossinney; all waited for his answer. - hemmanin ünsi Bossinneydedi; hemmeler onun jogabyna garaşdy.

In Turkmen, postpositions look like case affixes because of their function in a sentence; they combine words or phrases in their meaning. They do not add themselves to the end of the word but they come alone as a word after the word, which is joined together. Again, they do not have a concrete full meaning themselves. They can be understandable only in partnership with other words. Postpositions follow after independent, full meaning words, which receive one case suffixes. Sometimes some of them work alone and have a concrete meaning. In this sense, they can be a member of a sentence; their meaning can be clear in a context where they are used. Generally they join in partnership with other words. In Turkmen language they may be divided into three groups depending on where they are used. This is because they come after words which receive specific affixes from one of the cases. Postpositions themselves do not accept case suffixes because they do not have an independent lexical meaning by themselves. Postpositions have a role to connect words with each other in sentences that have independent meanings.

Postpositions come after words that have nominative case and possessive case affixes. These words are generally nouns and pronouns : bilen, yaly, dek, kimin, üçin (synonyms ; seapli, jahtli, zerurly), seapli, boyunça, arkaly, bari, boyy, tarapyn, mynasybetli, taydan, hökmünde, çemesi, möçberi, töweregi, art, iç , yan, orta, orun, üst, ast, ara, arka, boy.

e.g. Sülgün mylayymlyk bilen sözüni dowam etdi.

Dursun hemişekisi yaly yekan yekan elleşdi.

Borjak Güljan üçin hem köyneklik mata almagy unutmady.

Nouns and pronouns come before postpositions in the possessive case.

e.g. Senin şu görünlerin menin üçin erteki dinlandenem gyzykly.

Obanyzdaky senin yaly gyzlardan onlarçasý haly dokamagy şondan öwrendi.

1. With the words in dative case: çenli (çen, den, deniç), baka, sary, garşy, garaman, oakmazdan, garamazdan, golay, seredende, garanda, layyklykda.
2. After the words which have ablative case suffixes : ön, ozal,owal, öniñça , son, sonra, başga, özge, gayry, anryk, beylak, yana, ötri, beter, artyk, zyyat.

3.8.1. Kinds of the Postpositions in Turkmen

The counterparts of postpositions in English should be noted by each different prepositions in the relationship of context.

1-Sebäp-maksady aňladýan sözsoňylar - (denoting reason/purpose) – because of, because, for, in, than: sebapli, üçin, görä, ugrunda, zerurly, ötri

2-Deňeşdirmegi - (comparison postpositions): “than”, “for” - garaňda, seredeňde, görä, deňeşdirende, yaly, kimin, dek, dey, şekilli

3-Kim, näme dogrusunda sözleyändigini bildirýän -(about): hakynda, dogrusunda, barada

4-Ugry - (direction)- to - garşy, baka, tarap

5-Wagt (dowamlylygy) - (time and duration): ön, son, owal, ozal, bäri, deniç, çenli

6-Bilelikdeligi - (cooperation/unity): bilen, bile

Aşgabada çenli uçarda gitdik.

Mowzuk boýunça okayarays.

Arslan kimin yaşlar bar bizin Türkmentsitanda. (Durdy Gylyç)

“Barmagym galamdyr, syýadyr ganym,

Azatyk ugrynda gurbandyr janym”. (Şaly Kekilow)

3.9. Modal words

Modal words serve to express the relation between the statements made in the sentence and the reality as established by the speaker. With the help of these words the speaker expresses various degrees of certainty, supposition, desirability or undesirability of the action indicated in the sentence.

Modal words are an invariable part of speech. They cannot be a part of a sentence . But some of them can serve as a word – sentence independently in a given context ; of course, certainly, no doubt, perhaps and `yes or no` as an answer of a sentence in a dialogue.

e.g.

- He taught you to speak, I couldn't have done that.
- Of course.

Perhaps, may be (belki), of course (elbetde), surely (elbetde), no doubt (hiç şüphe yok) , in fact- dogrusy, in truth- hakikatynda... etc.

Some of the modals look like adverbs in their structure, because of having `ly` at the end: probably, naturally, happily, obviously, evidently, possibly.

They come at the beginning , in the middle and sometimes at the end of a sentence.

e.g. The airplane will evidently be late due to a bad weather forecast.

Evidently when there are no forces acting on a body, that body is in equilibrium.

Modal words originally come from adverbs although they change their classification with the relationship of their function in a sentence. In following sentences we can understand their differences where adverbs show verb characteristic, and modal words show a speaker`s intention in the relationship to the all sentence.

Modals come with the words or are used in a sentence to make the meaning stronger. Generally, they come at the beginning of sentence. They come before verbs, adverbs, adjectives and nouns.

Certainly, you cannot interfere - Elbetde, sana gosulmak bolmayar.

(certainly- modal word)

The penetrating of slow neutrons into the nucleus is easily effected. (easily- adverb)

The second day was exactly like the first. (Exactly-adverb)

Modal words have no syntactic function in the sentence . They are used as parenthesis. Besides , some modal words can make up sentences by themselves when they are used in answer to or comment on a previous question or statement.

e.g. “Is the whole family agreeable?” “Certainly.”

“Are you glad ?” “Yes, indeed.”

“ I have an ideal I`m trying to realize .” “Really?”

In Turkmen language modal words haven` t got specific affixes and we cannot make new words from modal words. Like other helping words modal words originally come from concrete meaning words. Some of them are loan words. Modal words come into use in a sentence before adjectives and adverbs. Semantically, modal words may be divided into the following groups in English:

- 1) those expressing certainty : Hökman, elbetde, gürrüñsiz, hakykatdan da-
in English , (e.g. certainly, of course, undoubtedly, no doubt, surely, decidedly, definitely, really, in fact, indeed, naturally and some others).

They add a stronger meaning to the idea of what has been mentioned.

e.g. Bular yaly yurtyykan adam üçin , elbetde, jeza bolmalydyr.

Hokman, bizin guyrugy ala köpegimizem bardyr.

e.g. “ What was the interview about? “ “Surely you know.”

“Really she scarcely felt capable of driving this morning.”

It was indeed an unusual situation for him to find himself in.

She was certainly a beautiful girl.

In fact, I hope he`s not guilty.

- 2) those expressing suppositon (çak etmek, şüphelenme).

e.g. maybe, perhaps, possibly, presumably, probably, evidently, obviously, apparently, etc.

In Turkmen ; belki, meger, megerem, ahtimal, ahmal, mümkin, dagy, çemeli,gerek.

e.g. İne, şular hakynda, megerem, gürlarsiniz.

Men-a bilmedim, arçyn, daşaryk dagy çykandyr-da,

Bu işin sony şeyle gutarsa gerek.

Belki, dernewin gidişi hayaldyr.

Ahmal, sen bu diyelene –de dogry diyersin.

e.g. The old man was travelling with a young girl. She might perhaps be his niece.

Possibly he was mistaken in his suspicions.

The woman was carrying a basket of provisons, presumably a loaf of bread and a couple of hard-boiled eggs.

3) those expressing (un)desirability (e.g. (un)luckily, (un)fortunately, happily),
e.g. Fortunately, the men were genuine patriots and did not betray me.
Luckily, I found the man in his office and we quickly settled the difficulty.

In Turkmen language, modal words may be divided by the groups below according to their meaning and function in a sentence.

There are eight groups, three of them have similar words and classifications in English.

1).güýçlendirmegi we nygtamagy (to intensify) ;

has, hut, juda, edil, tüys, gaty, hergiz..

e.g. ‘İndi Akjagülün şüphesi has-da artdy’.

e.g. -‘Tüys yerine düşaydi...’ Gülendamy Arabyn alyp gitmegi olar üçin juda yaman boldy.
(‘Görogly’)

“İnnan,öran, juda” come before adjectives. “Duw, şar, çym, sang” do not have independent meaning and come before adjectives.

e.g İkisinin hem yüzü çym gyzył boldy.(H.Ysmaïlow)

Gije sowugunda sang gaty bolup donup galyptyrlar. (Powestler)

Mürzanin yüzi duw ak bolup, gany gaçyp, dodaklary biri-birine degman,titrap başlady .(Görogly)

2) görkezme bildiryanler (demonstrative modal words) : “İne, holha,ynha, ana” come before adjectives, numerals and pronouns in a demonstrative role.

Honha, Nurjemal eje dagam işleşip yörler (B.Kerbabayew).

Ynha, garadan gaytmaz yüwrük atlar ayagymyzyn teyinde.

Oglum, ana, şonda senin başyna gaysar diyen bir dert yolugypdyr. (Görogly)

3) modal words which are used to attract the interest of the listener : bakaly, yeri bakaly, hany, me , ha, yeri.

e.g. Şu wagt obana bir seret bakaly.

Yeri-yeri indi edaran öz öyünden ileri boldumy.

syntactic function in the sentence. In Turkmen language, particles look like affixes from their syntactic forms. Usually they come into use after words in a sentence. But in English we do not have like this restriction. Therefore, in Turkmen, particles can be divided into two groups by their usage in sentences;

a- particles that come after a word , a phrase or a sentence: -a/-e; -ha/-he; -da/-de; -ay/-ey, -ayt/-eyt; -la/-le;- haw...

b- particles which come before a word, a phrase or a sentence: hi, hiy, ne, in , hiç, ta...

A particle is a term, which is sometimes used for a word that cannot readily be identified with any of the main parts of speech (like nouns, or verb).

e.g. Sapar ayna uçün kitap aldy.

Aşkabatdan goktepa çenli esli yol bar.

Particles help to strengthen the meaning of the sentence and to make the sentence fluent. They make the meaning more effective than before. In Turkmen, particles are formed with one or two syllables, but no more than two. Many of them have multi-meanings.

There are several types of particles in Turkmen language.

According to the purpose they serve, particles may be divided into the following groups in English and in Turkmen:

1) **limiting particles** (e.g. only, solely, merely, but, alone, barely)

Aýratynlamagy: - diňe, ýeke, ýalňyz

e.g. She was barely nine when the war broke out.

I told him that I was a military officer merely doing my duty.

There was a terrible silence, broken only by the sound of thumping feet.

e.g. The address is to be written only on this side. (adres dineje bu tarapyna yazylmalydyr.)

2) **intensifying particles** (e.g. simply, just, even , still , never)

Güçlendirmegi: - iň, duw, şar, sap, çym, has, hut, juda, iňňan

e.g. What he wanted done was just the job for me.

The night grew still colder.

Ha, Derdeser, öydemedin bi?

Hany , Gudrat, şu gün bir hezil ber. (S.Örayew. Oba Oglany)

4) modal words of affirmation – tassyklamagy bildiryanler : Hawa ; dogrusy, ha, ahyry.

-Howa, dogry, haa- they have approval role.

e.g. Hawa, Orazsoltan, myhmany-na habaryny eşitdin?

Dogry, gyz bizinkidir.(G.Muhtarow, Kümüş gapyrjak)

Ha, indi mana düşnükli . (Ykbal, H. Deryayew)

5) modal words of negation and affirmation : Yok, tas, dal —these put the meaning of the sentence in a negative form. `YES AND `NO` are to be treated as a special class of words. They have a peculiar meaning, different from all other parts of speech. Syntactically they are independent elements – they either precede a sentence or function as sentence-words themselves.

e.g. “Have you read the book?” “No, I haven` t got it. (No)”

“Did you know about it?” “Yes, I did. (Yes.)”

e.g.Garyagdy gorkak daldi.

Senin işini yeke men dal, bütün ülkamız bilyar.

Ol meni öldürjek boldymyka diyip tasdan pikir edipdim.

6) modal words of generalization and consequence : umumlaşdyrma, jemleme, netije çykarma bildiryanler: garaz, umuman, şeylelikde, diymek.

e.g. Umuman, bu habar beyleki talyplar üçinem tazleik daldi.

Garaz , çaga diyenin diylene düşünse ne yagşy.

Şeylelikde, mesele bizin endiklerimize syrykyar.

Diymek, siz Owadanyn aşygy.

3.10. Particles

Particles have no independent lexical meaning of their own. Nor do they perform an independent syntactic function in a sentence. They only serve to emphasize, in some way or another, a word, a phrase or a clause in the sentence. According to their role, they are function words in a given context. But their grammatical meaning can be understood through other words`

“Let`s simply drop the subject for a while ,” he said with irritation.

I just stood there while the flood of angry words rolled over my head.

Fur, copper, gold and even water yield electrons.

3) connecting particles (e.g. also, too) –da, de (O- da muny bilyar), (biz hem gelipbileriz belki)

e.g. He meekly walked out of the room. He too knew when he was beaten.

They had also been told that they would have to wait for further orders.

4) negative particle (not)- Ýoklugy bildirýän ownuk bölekler: - dal, ne

e.g. I have not given up hope.

I wanted to see the telegram, not the letter.

It was difficult for Roger not to agree.

Not liking to leave him at the club, I offered to take him home.

This subclass includes numbers, exclamations, and function words but no concrete content words. Note: it should be pointed out that a number of particles have homonyms among other parts of speech.

For example, they look like adverbs (just, still, never, precisely) , adjectives (right, even, only) and pronouns (all, either) from their form and structure.

e.g. This is just the thing I want. (particle)

I`ve just seen him. (adverb)

I have only two letters to answer (particle)

She was the only daughter . (adjective)

He is lazy , too.(particle)

He is too lazy .(adverb)

There are some other particles in Turkmen:

-Leňner bermekligi bildirýän ownuk bölekler- *comparison*: -a/ä, ha/ä

-Görkezmäni bildiriýänler – *demonstrative particles*: - ine, ynha, holha, haw, how- (*that, those*)

-Gaýtalanmagy – *showing repetition*: -ýene, ýene-de (*again, even*)

-Geňgalmagy - *astonishment*: - a/ä , äy -eý, äyt, eýt (*infm: ye, yap, yes*)

-Garaşylmadyk ýagdaýy –*showing a surprising statement* - *da, de, dä, la, le* (with, even, together, also, and)

e.g. - **le,la, da/de,**

Ol meni gapdalda goydu-da çagany yokaryk göterdi

Sen meni çagyrypsyň-la

Maşynyň guratdyr-la

e.g. The control mechanism was quite simply made . (‘simply’ adverb)

The noise was simply terrible. (“Simply” – particle, with the relationship “terrible”, it emphasizes the meaning of this word in a given sentence.) - Ses has gorkunç eşidildi.

On breaking the magnet into still shorter pieces, we still get complete magnets.

(the first ‘still’ is a particle, emphasizing the comparison form of the adjective ‘shorter’, and the latter one is an adverb related to the verb ‘get’).

I can perform the experiment alone. (alone- pronoun) – Men bu barlagy eke özümem geçirip bilerin.

The increase of industrial output during the ten year development plan alone was 153 milliard manats. (alone – particle, related with ‘the ten year development plan’)

He has just left – Ol indi gitdi = Ol yanyja gitdi.

The class of particles does contain a large number of words with adverbial and adjectival meaning, that is, they describe aspects of nouns and verbs. They function as groups or as clusters in context. For example: hemme –de ‘all’, belki –de ‘maybe’, ‘still’ - henizem. Although particles do not inflect, they have complexities of their own. And can be morphologically complex.

-my/mi,- ka/kä, myka, mikä --sorag goşulmaları. They have an interrogative (affixes) role and they make an interrogative sentence.

e.g. Bu sende barmy?, Aman geldimika?, Oraz barmyka?

-ha/he, -ba/be, -ma/me : they make repetition adverbs; alternately, by turns

e.g. Onun ýanyna barmak-ha zerur. Ol şu toýa gelse-ha. Ol hakyny aýba-aý töleýar. Öyme -öy girdiler. Ýagdaýa şeýle

-my, mi, da, de, a, aý, eý, laý, leý : they have different meanings and create different meanings in a sentence when they are attached to other words.

e.g.-Nirden gelýan,

-Ay okuwdan -laý.

Aýagymy basdyn-leý!

3.11. Interjections

Interjections are words expressing emotions, such as surprise, anger, pleasure, regret, indignation, encouragement, and triumph. They are used as exclamations.

They are expressions of emotion - not true words but rather vocal noises that reflect the feelings of the speaker: Oh! Huh? Hey! An interjection is included in a sentence in order to communicate strong emotion or surprise. Since an interjection has little or no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, punctuation is used to separate an interjection from the rest of the sentence.

Well, it's not very important.

Oh, no! The boat's leaking.

They are not grammatically related to any other part of the sentence. We usually follow an interjection with an exclamation mark. Interjections are uncommon in formal academic prose, except in direct quotations.

Interjections are non-inflected syllables, or groups of syllables and words, which directly express feelings, will or desire. The sound and tone are very important to pronounce interjections. Often the same interjections may be used to express different feelings. At the same time different interjections can be used to express same feelings.

In Turkmen language, derived interjections are originally loan words. Their number of is not many: Arma! Sag bolun! Yagşy! Yatak! Yit! Tüweleme! Ura! Marş! Dat-bidat! Ya – walla! Toba-toba!..

e.g.

1- Berekalla, yigit, gowy iş bitirdin!

2- Hayyr, onda, men bolsa gitdim , yoldaş başlyk. (R.Gelenow. Ganatly Aydymlar)

3-Allo! Allo! Naçe present diyyan? (“Türkmentsitan”)

Interjections may be divided semantically into the following groups in English and in Turkmen:

Happiness and Joy: oh, aa - yaşa, hopba, hoop, haa, ha...

Sadness:, oh, uh, ohwell- wah, eh, ah, wiy...

Praise and Approval: good done, good work, yee, yes - berekella, yaşa...

Regret: eh, ah, alas, damn – e, ee, wah-wah, wiyay...

Hatred: uu - puh, pu, bayba, baybuw, wayey...

Surprise: hih, hii, wah...

Calling Up, Appeal: ha, bol, hm,ehm...

Wish: if only - ah...

Some interjections are special words which are not associated with any other parts of speech in English, e.g. oh, ah, eh, aha, alas, fie [faɪ], humph [mm, hmf], hum, phew, pshaw, pooh, tush, bravo, hurrah, etc.

Their role in a speech is also very important because they show the speaker's happiness, grief, sorrow, astonishment, anxiety, hate...

In Turkmen, interjections have a simple and complex formation:

Simple interjections: a, eý, aý, aýt, baý, uf, ah, humm

Complex interjections: weý -weý, eý -waý, bay -ba, wah -wah -ey,

Some of these interjections serve to express quite definite feelings. Thus `alas` is a cry of sorrow or anxiety; `bravo` is a cry of approval, meaning `well done`, `excellent`; `hurrah` is a cry of expressing joy, welcome; `fie`, `pooh` and `psaw` express contempt; `aha` expresses triumph.

e.g. Ouch, that hurt!

Oh no, I forgot that the exam was today.

Hey! Put that down!

I heard one guy say to another guy, "He has a new car, eh?"

I don't know about you but, good lord, I think taxes are too high!

Other interjections, according to the tone of the voice, may express emotions of different character; e.g. ah (in Turkmen "wah!"); may show sorrow, surprise, pity, pleasure, etc.

(pity)-Wah, ony obadan bireyyam yok etmeli ekenim. (N. Saryhanow, Saylanan Eserler)

(pleasure)- Wah, senin yaly bize yesir düşse bizin armanymyz yok.

"oh" is an exclamation of surprise, fear, pain, etc.;

"phew" may express relief, astonishment or contempt; "eh"- surprise or doubt; "tush"- contempt;

"humph" – doubt, disbelief or dissatisfaction.

Ah-ah-ow! Hay, adamlar, haw!.. Garagan obasyna bagşy gelendir-le, haw!.. (R. Gelenow. Ganatly aydymlar)

Pahey, Polluk sen-a çaga yaly ekenin!

There are a number of words which belong to other different parts of speech but which are also used as interjections, e.g. bother; come; damn; hear, hear; now; there, there; well; why, etc. We even find phrases used as interjections, e.g. dear me; dear, dear; goodness gracious; confound it; hang it; for shame; well, I never, etc.

In Turkmen language, interjections are divided into two groups according to their meaning:

1-Emotional:

a) positive

ura, bo-o! Be-e! Ey-how, bah-ow , bay-ba, pah- pah!

Pleasure: bay, bay-bay-ow! Bah!jan- jan! Yaşa !arma!

Hüm-m ! a-ha! Ha! Ha-hüm!

b) *negative –showing nervousness*, hate - gahar gazaby, yigrenmegi :

ah, tüf, hey! Wah! Pahay! Atana nalet! Haram! Öyün köysün! Gözün çyksyn!

-Tüf bigayratlar! -Hay binamys! -Pahay sizden adam bolmaz! -Uruş gurap galsyn, ilahym! (H. İsmailow, Powestler)

Sorrow - Gaygy, gam gussa: wah-h-h! Ah! Way! Way, balam! Ah, dünýe, dünýe!

Disagreement - narazylyk: toba-toba! Hym, pahey!

Regret- Arman, puşman:- juk-juk!wayey! Wey-wey

Doubt, disbelief / supposition - Şübhelenmegi: goya, ay- goya

Inkar etmek: (rejecting)- bay-ba, ba

2- Showing impulsiveness- isleg impulslaryny bildiryanler:

ahaw! Ah-ah-ow! Ey! Haw! How! Hay! hey!

Allo!

Calling animals- Haywanlary çagyрма da: geç-geç! Piş piş! How-how! Kür-kür! Küç, yit! Tok!

Hyh-kür! Çom- çom! Horp-horp! Durr! Çöş!

3-Greetings, celebration, regards, farewell; which everybody uses the same words in these statements (hormat goymagy, salamlaşmagy, gutlamagy, hoşlaşmagy): e.g. Yagşy! Giç yagşy! Hayyr! Salamaleyküm! Waleyküm esselam! Ömrün uzak bolsun! Buyrun! Hoş! Sag bol! ... Omyň! Sükürler bolsun! Estagpyrylla! Enşalla! Bile yalkasyn!

Some interjections, serve to express quite definite feelings. For example, bother; oh, bother are exclamations of impatience; goodness gracious, goodness me are exclamations of surprise; damn, damn it all, damn you, confound you and hang it are used to express anger, annoyance; for shame serves as a reproof for not being ashamed of one's actions, behavior; well, I never expresses surprise and indignation at the same time; hear, hear is used as a form of cheering, usually to express approval, but it may also be used ironically; there, there is used to soothe a person (e.g. There, there you haven't really hurt yourself).

Other interjections of this kind may express quite different feelings, according to the tone of the voice or the context.

Thus dear, dear or dear me or oh , dear express sorrow, wonder; why may be an expression of surprise or protest, as in: Why, it's quite easy!

e.g. "Now, Marilyn, you don't know what you are doing."

"Well", depending on the sentence in which it is used, may express a variety of emotions. In "Well, who would have thought it?" it serves as an expression of surprise. In "Well, here we are at last!" -it expresses relief. "Well" serves to express expectations in "Well then?", "Well, what about it?" resignation in "Well, it can't be helped", concession in "Well, it may be true", etc.

Besides interjections (ümlükler), these words function as other parts of speech (ses we obraz anladyan sözler).

3.11.1. Manner and sound words - Ses we obrz aňladýan sözler.

Ses we obraz sözleri, they are the words that show the meaning of sounds of nature/ environment or the state of motion. In Turkmen, these words form an independent part of speech.

Their meanings are not stable because every person expresses these ideas differently from what they hear from nature and what they see as a shape or a symbol from the environment.

Their meaning can be explained clearly in a context. In some grammar books they studied under interjections, but they are confused with interjections because of their formation.

They divided into three groups according to their structure and formation.

1. Gaýtalanýan – reduplication: gur -gur
2. Sada – simple : tkyrt, şarpyk, jyzyk, jak -jaky
3. Tirkeş -by repetition of words: takyr –tukur

e.g.

Duşman maşynlary wazyrtda- wazyrt , desse granatlar dazyrtda- dazyrt.- the sound of moving cars and exploding of bombs.

Tempiraturasy yokary bolanson endamy lars-lars edip durdy. – by the high temperature ; sound of pulse.

Jykyr-jykyr gülüşüp garşydan gyzlar gelyardi.- laughing as “jykyr-jykyr”

Ayagyny pyşyldatman yöresene! – sounds as a result of walking “pyşyldatman”.

Sapakda kikirdeşman oturyn!

CHAPTER IV

DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES OF MORPHOLOGICAL PATTERNS

4.1. Suggestions for Teachers of English in Turkmen Classes

Words are combined into phrases, clauses, and sentences to create meanings. Sentences consist of words used in specific ways. These specific ways are known as the parts of speech. English has eleven and Turkmen has twelve parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, conjunctions, prepositions, and interjections. Learning to identify the parts of speech in sentences helps students to develop an understanding of how words work together in sentences. Knowing parts of speech, a student can analyze their own writing, identify and eliminate many grammatical errors, and build sentences that express exact meaning.

1) Nouns contrasted in Turkmen and English

Similarities and differences in plural formation

Plural morphemes can be problematic when forming nouns. Turkmen students make errors due to the differences between Turkmen and English in terms of plurality; lar, ler – “-s”; öyler (houses).

Demonstrative adjectives precede plural nouns in Turkmen do not get plural suffixes after themselves:

Şu maşynlar – that – şu, maşyn (car)-lar (-s), *that cars (should be those cars)

In Turkmen, demonstrative adjectives come with plural suffixes when they function as pronouns in a sentence. They are used as pronouns without a noun;

şunlar- those, şolar, those; these- bular

In Turkmen language, when we use nouns with numerals, we are faced some of errors such as; singular nouns do not get any pluralization after numerals. This problem should be arise when

Turkmen students learn the pluralization of nouns with numerals because of translation of structures from native language to English structure using with nouns; bir talyp (a student), on talyp (ten students).

Students may try to pluralize uncountable nouns in English because in Turkmen they can be pluralized:

Suwlar tamizdir, içip bilersiniz! - * Waters are clean you may drink! – Where it should be written as – Water is clean, you may drink!

Howa gaty sowuk, suwlar donjaga menzayar, aga bol! – *Be careful, the weather is very cold; it seems waters will freeze! - Be careful, the weather is very cold; it seems water will freeze!

We have some similarities in plural affixes and plural morphemes where in English the “-s” has three morpheme types (the morph types –s, -z, -iz; churches, maps, dishes) whereas in Turkmen the plural morpheme has two allomorphs (-ler, -lar); adamlar, işçiler.

Like their morphological differences, there are some differences in the structure of countable and non-countable nouns. In Turkmen, both types of nouns get plural suffixes, whereas in English only regular count nouns are pluralized.

There is no irregularity in Turkmen normally in terms of plurality of nouns, but regular and irregular plural formations take place in English. For instance: car-cars, man-men (* not mans).

As mentioned before, demonstrative adjectives do not get plural affixes when plural nouns precede them: şu talyplar (*that students – those students), şu işçiler (*that workers – those workers).

According to the differences given above, learners tend to transfer their Turkmen pattern to English and following problems occur; * mens – instead of men in irregular nouns, because in Turkmen there are no irregular nouns, and in mass nouns plural affixes may be used by the students as in their native language formation, -* ten student-instead of ten students, and demonstrative adjectives; -*that cars, *this tables– should be -those cars, these tables.

The teacher of English should try to reduce the errors of students in plurality where students make mistakes because of differences between two languages. Plurality problems may appear in learning the English plurality.

Simple nouns are the nouns, which cannot be divided into affixes in either language. They may be either monosyllabic or polysyllabic. The syllables in polysyllabic words do not stand alone that is, they have meaning when they are attached to the other syllables.

e.g. Gapy - door, Maşyn - car, Şkaf - cupboard

In English, the nouns are inflected for plurality and the genitive case whereas in Turkmen, nouns are inflected for a variety of relational cases (dative, genitive, accusative, locative, and ablative). For this reason, most of the inflected nouns in Turkmen correspond to phrases in English.

For instance:

Turkmen	English
Öy+üm	my house
Öy+üm+de	in my house
Öy+ümdä+ "ki"	"the one" in my house

The formations of complex nouns do not exhibit considerable differences. In both languages adjectives, pronouns and quantifiers may be used before nouns, but the difference is that when the plural number is used before the noun, a plural suffix is added to the noun in English. However, in Turkmen, if a plural number comes before the noun plural suffixes "lar/ler" will not be added after the noun. For example:

Turkmen	English
Alty at	six horses
On adam	<u>ten men</u>
Elli ýyl	<u>fifty years</u>

Another difference is that in complex nouns both elements of the combination can take relational endings while in English only genitive and plural suffixes can be used. For example:

<u>Turkmen</u>	<u>English</u>
Öyün eýesi	the owner of the house

Maşynyň sürüjisine to/ for the driver of the car

Gapynyň açary door key

In both languages, different derivational suffixes are used to derive nouns from nouns and nouns from verbs.

<u>Turkmen</u>	<u>English</u>
Garaş+syz+lyk	<u>in+dependence</u>
Bi + tarap+lyk	<u>neutrality</u>
Azat+lyk	<u>free+dom</u>
Demir+çi	<u>ironwork+er</u>
Süzgeç	<u>strain+er</u>
Ölüm	death

As can be seen in the above examples, some of the derived nouns in Turkmen have non-derived corresponding in English and vice versa.

Another difference that is troublesome for Turkmen learners of English is that the mass (uncountable) nouns do not have plural suffixes whereas in Turkmen almost all the nouns have these suffixes. Nevertheless, at the same time in Turkmen we can find samples of mass nouns.

For example: su -water, saç -hair, howa -air, şeker –sugar

In English, possessive constructions may be formed in two ways: either by a -'s phrase before the noun, or by an "of" phrase after it; e.g. the man's hat, - the hat of the man". In Turkmen there is only one possessive construction coming before the noun with a possessive case suffix.

2) Verbs contrasted in Turkmen and English

In the simple form of the verb, there is no ending attached to the verb stem in both Turkmen and English. The only difference is that the infinitive ending is located at the end of the verb stem in Turkmen while it is located before the verb stem in English. Yat-mak- to sleep. Bil-mek - to know. Many simple English grammatical structures (such as "to have", "to need", or "to be able to") are handled differently in Turkmen.

The formation of complex verbs in Turkmen is similar as the formation of some complex English verbs in English. Nouns are used in forming these complex verbs. For instance:

Özüne gelmek - come to oneself

Dile getirmek - to mention, to talk about

Habar tutmak - to take care of

However, the situation is not always the same, that is, there is no one-to-one correspondence. It is possible to give many examples for the complex verbs that have a noun (sometimes with a case ending in the first part of the combination in Turkmen while their English correspondent do not have a noun in the combination);

Gulak asmak - to listen up

Ýigitlik görkezmek - to show courage

Durmuş sürmek - to have a good life

Sometimes the actions are expressed with the complex verbs in Turkmen are expressed by a single verb in English. E.g. Teklip etmek – to offer. Basyp almak - to invade. Kömek bermek – to support.

Some complex verbs are formed with participle suffixes (-yp, ip, p) in Turkmen while their English correspondents are formed with the use of a coordinating conjunction “and” or without any conjunction. For instance:

Gelip-gitmek come and go

Dövüp-ýençmek to break, to ground

Ýatyp-turmak sleep and wake –up, stay

Uçyp gitmek to fly away

As can be seen in the above examples, it would be misleading for Turkmen learners of English to attempt to find an English equivalent of complex verbs, which have a one-to-one correspondence to those in their own language, because such verbs are mostly idiomatic. It would be more advantageous to teach them separately in context.

In both Turkmen and English, it is possible to make verbs by adding some derivational suffixes to the end of nouns, adjectives and verbs. The formation of derived verbs in Turkmen is more common than in English. Being an agglutinative language makes it easier to form derived verbs. For example:

Giňeltmek – to broaden, Millileştirmek – to nationalize, Gaýgylanmak - to get sorrowful

As can be understood from the examples above, in some cases the derivational suffixes are not used in the English equivalents. Therefore, teachers should teach the learners of English such differences of when and of which derivational suffixes they are going to use to obtain a verb.

Another example has been concerned mostly with differences in the order of items. We turn now to differences of form, and first to the tense system, a common cause of errors for Turkmen learners of English. English and Turkmen are the same in that they both have progressive and non-progressive tenses (I am walking – I walk). They differ, however, in that the form of the present progressive tense in English is the same as that of the simple present tense in Turkmen, except for the order (English present progressive: aux. + present participle; Turkmen simple present: present participle+ aux.). Present progressive in Turkmen is formed with: verb root + progressive particle “-yar” +, thus having some similarities with the English present progressive form, e.g. presence of the auxiliary.

To inflect the verbs in Turkmen, tense endings are used whereas in English auxiliaries are used in many cases while inflecting the tenses. For example: Future tense;

O gel-jek - He will come

Biz okajak - We will read

As can be seen from the above examples in Turkmen the verb can also bear the subject. This may cause a problem from the part of Turkmen learners of English.

In both languages, the verbs are not inflected when they are used as imperatives. For example: Imperatives; Geple! - Speak! Git! - Go!

I + (verb) + (noun) + to (verb)

I want him to come - Onuň gelmegini isleyärim.

*His to come I want.

She wants you to listen - Ol seniň eşitmegiňi isleyär.

*She your to listen wants.

I was asking her to do so - Onuň şeýle etmegini haýyş edýärdim.

*Her so to do I was asking.

I want him to come - (Onuň) gelmegini isleyärim.

*His coming I want.

In imperatives in both English and Turkmen the subject pronoun, “you” (sen) is not usually used but when it is emphasized, it is possible to use that pronoun. The difference is that if the addressee is the second person plural in Turkmen the ending (-yn, iň) (you) is added to the verb. For example : (sen) git! – (You) go! , (Siz) gidiň! – (You) go!

In indirect imperatives, we use the reporting verbs “tell” in English and “aýt”, “diý” or “da, de” in Turkmen. For instance: Indirect imperatives;

Oňa aýt o-da gelsin – tell him to come (either)

Oňa diý gelsin – tell him to come

In order to express the obligation in Turkmen the suffixes “maly, meli” are added to the verb but in English the modal verbs “must” or “have to” are used before the main verb. For instance: Necessitative Form; Ýat-maly-syň - you must sleep. Görkezmelisiň – you have to show.

The use of “should” is troublesome for Turkmen learners. They must be taught that “should” expresses advice while “must” and “have to” mean a case of obligation. In conditionals the suffixes “-sa, se, ise” are used together with the person endings such as;

I-“m”, you –“n”, he/she/it – “Ø”

Biz –“k”, siz- “ňiz, ñyz”, they –“ler, lar”

Conditional form: Gel-se - if he come-s. Bak-sa-m - if I have a look... .Aýt –sa -if you tell, İýseñiz – if you eat. Oýnasalar – if they play.

In the optative form of verbs in Turkmen the endings (-a, ay, ey) are used again together with the person endings given above, while in English the modal verb “may” is used to express a “wish” at the beginning of the sentence. Optative form;

Şat bol-a - may he be happy

Gel-aý-señ -may you come!

Diy- a (ý)-señ -may you tell

The Turkmen participles are expressed with (-yp, ip) suffixes whereas the coordinating conjunction “and” performs this function in English. For example:

Bakyp güldüler – they looked and laughed

Gelip gördüler – they came and checked up.

On the other hand, some idiomatic expressions in Turkmen may also cause problems. The participle of this kind expressed with one lexical item or a verb phrase in English:

-Ötüp gitdiler – they slipped away / they disappeared

-Oýnap ýördi – he told lies for a long time

In Turkmen the subjective participles that are used as simple adjectives (-an, en, miş, myş, er, ar, maly, maz) are represented in English sometimes as “past participle” and sometimes with “present participle” or sometimes with the “infinitive” with “to” and sometimes with adjectives. For example:

Okan aýal – educated woman, Okumuş oğlan – clever boy, Gaýnar suw – boiling water

Ýanmaz materýal – non-inflammable material, Edilmeli iş – the work to do

As can be observed from the above examples, participles are used before nouns in Turkmen while in English, they are sometimes used before nouns and sometimes after the nouns they modify. This may cause problems, so learners should be taught how to use the above mentioned participles in the language they are learning.

3) Adjectives Contrasted in Turkmen and English

Simple adjectives in both languages may be either monosyllabic or polysyllabic. For example:

<u>Turkmen</u>	<u>English</u>
Ak	white
Owadan	pretty
Doly	full

The suffixes “-er” and “-est” used to express the comparative and superlative degrees do not have any Turkmen corresponding inflection. In Turkmen, “örän” “has, has-da” and “iň” are used to express the comparative and superlative degrees respectively. However, in English the words “more” and “most” are used when the adjectives are polysyllabic. For instance: Iň akmak - most stupid.

The Turkmen learners of English may have difficulty in expressing the degrees of adjectives. There are certain similarities in the formation of complex adjectives in both languages. For instance: Uzyn saçly - longhaired, Dogry sözli - straight worded.

Nevertheless, the case is not always the same. For example, sometimes some complex adjectives in Turkmen may have non-complex correspondents in English. e.g.

Açyk göwünli - modest

Açyk-seçik - indecent

In English, some adjectives consist of compounds, the second element that is specified by a comparison with some quality characteristic of what the first element denotes. The first element in all cases is nominal. Such adjectives in English are expressed in comparatives “yaly/ kimin” (as adjectives as + noun) in Turkmen. e.g.

Comparisons "As... as"

Your hat is as expensive as hers -Seniň şlýapaň hem onuňky ýaly gymmat.

*Your hat and hers as expensive.

Your dog is as big as his-Seniň itiň hem onuňky ýaly uly.

*Your dog and his as big.

Their students are as good as ours-Onuň owkuwçylary hem biziňki ýaly gowy.

*Their students and ours as good.

<u>Turkmen</u>	<u>English</u>
----------------	----------------

Peri kimin owadan	as beautiful as an angel
-------------------	--------------------------

Ot ýaly yssy	fire- hot / as hot as fire
--------------	----------------------------

In English there is another method which generally forms adjectives from other parts of speech through the use of a suffix. The principal suffixes are “-y, -ly, -full, -less, -en, -ous, -able, - some, -ic, -edical, -ish”.

e.g. Storm-stormy, friend-friendly, care-careless, good nature- good-natured, economy – economical.

4) Adverbs Contrasted in Turkmen and English

In both languages, the formations of simple and complex adverbs are identical although there are some differences. For example, the repetition of some adverbs to make new adverbs in Turkmen does not occur in the English language. This difference is the main problem for Turkmen learners of English because when the learners write or speak in English they confuse how to identify or how to explain the degrees of adverbs, which they have in their own native language. In English, it is provided by the ‘ly’ suffix whereas in Turkmen it is provided by the reduplication.e.g.

Ýuwaş-ýuwaş	slowly
-------------	--------

Agşam agşam	early in the evening
-------------	----------------------

Nevertheless, there are some similarities among these languages; some adverbs that formed with the repetition of the same words have similar counterparts in English. For instance:

Bir-bir - one by one

Günbe gün – day by day

Asyrlarboýy-for centuries

This not always the same as it can be seen in the following example: sowuk sowuk- coldly.

In order to derive adverbs from some words both in Turkmen and in English derivational suffixes are used. The typical derivational suffixes in English are ‘ly’ (wisely), - ward(s)

backwards), “wise” (lengthwise), and the commonly used ones in Turkmen are: -yn, in, yna, ne, syna, sine, laýın, leýin-

Some adverbs accept case endings which are almost the same mode as with English:

Bärden- from here

Ýaly- like that

Näçenji- in what order

Näçe – for what price

How to recognize an adverb?

Many adverbs end with the suffix -LY. Most of these are created by adding -LY to the end of an adjective, like this: hopeless- hopelessly, slow- slowly.

However, this is not a reliable way to find out whether a word is an adverb or not, for two reasons: many adverbs do “not” end in -LY (some are the same as the adjective form), and many words, which are “not” adverbs “do” end in -LY (such as kindly, friendly, elderly and lonely, which are adjectives). Here are some examples of adverbs, which are the same as adjectives: fast-fast, late- late, early –early.

The best way to tell if a word is an adverb is to try making a question, for which the answer is the word. If the question uses how, where or when, then the word is probably an adverb. Here is an example:

1. Junko plays tennis aggressively- Question- How does Junko play tennis? - Adverb? -Yes -uses HOW.
2. They have a small house- “what” kind of house do they have? Adverb? - No -- uses WHAT KIND OF, so this is an adjective.
3. Matthew called the police immediately- “when” did Matthew call the police? –Yes, it is an adverb.

5) Conjunctions contrasted in Turkmen and English

Conjunctions have different uses in terms of function in both languages as follows:

1. Conjunctions of sequence: we, bile, -yp, -da, hem, whether (if)= -yp , ip-, As soon as = derrew, gele gelmane .

In Turkmen, “we, bile, -yp, -da” conjunctions correspond to “and” in English. Instead of these conjunctions sometimes, a simple juxtaposition is used. That is to say, coordinating words and clauses may be put one after the other with no conjunction at all. For example:

Ol öýe geldi we derrew yzyna gitti – He came home and went back quickly.

Ol öýe geldi de derrew yzyna gitti-

Ol öýe gelip derrew yzyna gitti-

Şen we men – You and me.

Şen bile men-

Şen, men, çagaň da – You, your baby, and I.

Şen, men, çagaň-

In the light of the above examples, we can say that the function of these conjunctions (we, bile, -yp, da, de) in Turkmen resembles that of ‘comma’, and ‘we’ is rarely used. However, in English ‘and’ is mostly used to coordinate words and clauses.

2. Corelative conjunctions: ‘yada, ka, ýa ýa-da’ all means ‘or’ in English.

-Gawun ýa garpyz tapawudy yok- (melon or water-melon not important)

-Jemal ýa-da Jemile söýüpdirin bir gyzy- (Jemal or Jemile, I loved a girl, name is not important)

‘Ýa...ýa...yada...’ ‘Either...or.....’ - are also corelative conjunctions in Turkmen:

‘Ýa men, ýa sen ýa da başkasy’ - ‘either you or I or another one’

3. Coordinating conjunctions : ‘hem, hem-de...’ – ‘both ..and...’

-“...hem Leyli hem-de Mejnun bolýan ...” – “...both Leyli and Mejnun you act...”

4. Conjunctions that bear the ‘emma’ expression:

-“emma, yöne, welin,weli, emma weli, yöne welin” - all correspond to ‘but’ in English. “diňeje, ýalňyz” means “only” and is also used as the “emma” expression:

-Özüne hiç zat diýmedik diňeje mugallymyna bu barada aytdyk- We did not tell him anything only we told his teacher about his misdoings.

5. Conjunctions that bear ‘eger’ expressions:

ger, eger-de, (ýada), (ýogsa, ýogsam)- all in English 'if' .e.g.

Eger beýle boljagyny bilsedim, öyden aýrylmazdym –

If I had known about that, I would have gone away from home.

As can be observed in the above examples, there are not many one-to –one correspondents between Turkmen and English conjunctions. In the teaching process, first language interference may cause some problems. Thus, the English teachers should consider differences when teaching it to the Turkmen learners of English. However, the similarities can be used in order to help the students learn more easily.

6) Postpositions contrasted in Turkmen and English

It can be said that postpositions in Turkmen correspond to prepositions in English. One clear difference between the grammars of Turkmen and English is with words like “in, on, to, at” : in English these words are prepositions , they come before the noun or noun phrase to which they refer; in Turkmen these words are postpositions, they come after the noun or noun phrase to which they refer. So, “in the garden” in English is equivalently in Turkmen “garden in” (there is no article use in Turkmen). Errors appear to occur most readily where there are some similarities and some contrasts between equivalent items or structures in the two languages.

There is, however, one context where the preposition / postposition contrast between English and Turkmen does cause errors, but there are other factors involved as well.

In addition, the relational suffixes, excepting genitive and nominative, correspond to prepositions in English. For pedagogical purposes, some problems may arise due to the above mentioned differences. Therefore, they should be taken into consideration in the teaching process.

7) Pronouns Contrasted in Turkmen and English

The most remarkable difference in pronouns is that the third singular person pronouns (he/she/it) in English have only one counterpart “ol” in Turkmen. This is an important problem especially when translating from English into Turkmen. In Turkmen “ol” also has a

emonstrative pronoun form. Students should be aware because of the gender (masculine and feminine) form of words. In Turkish dialects these classifications do not exist whereas in other European languages they do. The gender in third person singular is given by the words 'oglan' (boy), erkek kiři (man), gyz (girl), ayal mařgala (woman) and 'zat' (thing) if necessary. So learning pronouns can be a bit difficult because of this problem for Turkmen learners of English.

In Turkmen, the plural suffixes (lar, ler) can be added to the first and second plural personal pronouns to refer to a group of people (bizler, sizler) but in English it is not possible. In Turkmen, almost all of the pronouns accept the relational suffixes but in English, they do not.

Again, in Turkmen, when self-pronouns are used after personal pronouns, they accept possessive endings and agree with the relational suffixes while in English they do not. For instance:

<u>Turkmen</u>	<u>English</u>
Meniň özümiň	of I myself
Meniň özüme	to /for myself
Seniň özüňe	to/for yourself

In Turkmen, indefinite pronouns can also take possessive endings whereas they do not in English. For instance: Bizin hemmämiz - All of us; Hiç biriňiz - none of you.

As can be observed in the above examples, some problems may arise at this point. Therefore, teachers should have the Turkmen learners of English become acquainted with the English pronouns appropriately.

8) Particles and determiners contrasted in Turkmen and English

The other main difference is in particles, where in Turkmen they come into use with words added to the end where in English they are separate. Particles are not more than two syllables according to their formation in Turkmen. In addition, they have multi-meanings; therefore, we may check them up in a context to learn the speaker's intention or emotion.

Besides that, a further contrast in form exists between English and Turkmen in the systems of determiners. Determiners are words like articles (a, the), the demonstratives (this, that,) and the possessives (my, your... etc) which determine the contextual status of a noun. The Turkmen system differs from the English system in that there is no article in Turkmen. The demonstrative determiner, however, sometimes functions like a definite article. These contrasts are a predictable source of error, and indeed the following kinds of errors occur:

“A/the boy is cutting the paper”- for – Bir oglanjyk kagyzy kesip dur/ kesyar.

“The man is going to the house” –for – Bir adam öye bakan gelyar.

It is noteworthy that the division of words into parts of speech can be accepted only with certain reservations – there are words which cannot be classified according to any of the above mentioned parts of speech (e.g. `please, anyway).

3) The Case System

Like Russian or German, Turkic languages have a system of grammatical cases. Cases are defined by changes that occur to a word when it is placed in a different grammatical context.

“Case” system is another problematic aspect. In English, there is a simple two- way case distinction between “common” case and the genitive case or “possessive” case (boy and boy’s). In Turkmen there are six case forms, and genitive case affixes “-in, yn, nyn” show possession where in English it is formed with the help of “of” phrase or -‘s. As we have seen Turkmen learners do have difficulty with the possessive noun phrase in English because of its contrast. English has cases for personal pronouns. For example: "I see him", "He sees me". Not: "Me sees he", "Him sees I".

However, Turkmen has six cases which are used for all words, not just for personal pronouns. They are ; the nominative, used for the subject of the sentence; the possessive, similar to English possessives; the dative, used to show directed action; the accusative, which is similar to the

English "direct object"; the time/place, which shows locality; and the instrumental, which is used to show origin.

While six cases might seem a bit overwhelming at first in comparison to the English case system, it should be noted that the case suffixes simply replace English prepositions such as "from," "at," "with," "in," "on," and "to". In addition, the rules for their use are remarkably simple and inflexible, unlike those of the Russian cases.

Unlike Russian, English, or Spanish Turkmen has no genders or any irregular verbs. For the most part, words are written exactly as they are pronounced. Finally, Turkmen's grammatical case system is remarkably simple once understood and has almost no exceptions.

Learning the words of a foreign language is not an easy business since every word has its form, meaning, and usage and in each of these aspects the word may have its exceptions. Indeed, some words are difficult in form (busy, daughter, woman, women) and easy in usage; other words are easy in form (enter, get, happen) and difficult in usage. Therefore, words may be classified according to the difficulties students find in assimilation.

The analysis of words within the foreign language allows us to distinguish the following groups of words: concrete, abstract, and structural. Structural words are the most difficult for Turkmen – speaking students to learn.

In teaching students a foreign language, the teacher should bear the above-mentioned points in mind when preparing for vocabulary work during the lesson.

The aforementioned sections and given examples demonstrate that a contrastive work can both predict areas of potential error and can also provide an explanation for a great number of errors that arise from the mother tongue or from the differences and similarities between two languages.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

This study concentrated on the contrast between Turkmen and English with special reference to the morphological structures of the two languages.

The data in this thesis presented in order to make the language teacher equipped with real examples. Moreover, I hope, it will help the teacher to focus on the errors of students and will give him a sound perspective as to how to solve them.

We should be aware that English and Turkmen use different occurrences of word formations and morphological systems. For instance, in English word formation, a word can get two suffixes after each other at the same time (e.g. oxen's) whereas in Turkmen fourteen different morphological suffixes are possible. Therefore, in Turkmen a word can give a lot of information but the same information can be given using many words in English. To know a language means to master its structure and words. Thus, students should learn word formation and morphological patterns as the aspects of the language.

In this contrastive study, parts of speech, grammatical functions and the English and Turkmen morphological systems have been explained with examples. Moreover, in this study, we tried to find out similarities and differences between the two languages and some of the difficulties of learning word formation.

Learning something about how suffixes function in the English language can help us improve general reading comprehension; suffixes help us use context and etymological clues to make educated guesses about the meaning of unfamiliar words. Knowledge of parts of speech can be very useful in the graduate and professional (school) entrance exams. Knowing the roots and affixes of English words and their possible counterparts in their mother tongue will help Turkmen students in the other courses and after their graduation.

The Turkmen students learning English have the tendency to learn English comparing it with their mother tongue. Thus, problems usually arise from the native language. By the contrastive exemplifications, we tried to find out the sources of errors due to use of the mother tongue. The aim of this study has been to point out the similarities and differences in the formation of new words in both Turkmen and English to supply Turkmen students with necessary linguistic knowledge.

The main problems, in morphology, which we are faced, arise from different word – formation processes of Turkmen and English. For example, some of the relational suffixes (Dative, Locative, Accusative, and Ablative) in Turkmen correspond to the prepositions in English. In addition, most of the postpositions in Turkmen correspond to the prepositions in English. Therefore, a sound theory of teaching of English to speakers of Turkmen should derive from differences rather than similarities. As a result, we remark their English morphology is, in many respects, different from Turkmen morphology.

We hope that we have gone some way to this demonstration of contrastive work; and it may become a useful guide to English as a second language-teaching task. Besides that, students may have, a chance to understand the richness of their mother tongue and learn its structure as well as its historical development by comparing it with the other languages.

To sum up, this study can put light on some of the specific questions and problems in the relationship between specific properties and facts of native Turkmen and English as a foreign language. It is necessary to apply new methods to teach the English language to Turkmen students whose native language morphology and morphological patterns are different from that of the target language.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Akhmanova, O. August 1962. **An Article: “Categorization in Morphology”, Preprints of papers for the 9th International Congress of Linguistics.** Cambridge.

Almamedov, A., Nazarov, R. 1989. **English - Turkmen Dictionary.** Magaryf. Ashgabat.

Annanurow, A. 1984. **Türkmen Dilinin Yazuw Yädigarliklerinde Sostawly İşlikler.** İlim. Ashgabat.

Annanurow, A. 1965. **Dil Biliminin Kâbir Meseleleri.** Ashgabat

Bauer, L. 1983. **English Word-Formation.** Cambridge. Great Britain.

Bartley, E. 1971. **Soviet Approaches to Bilingual Education.** Philadelphia. USA.

Bowen, J. 1967. **Contrastive Analyses and the Language Classroom, on Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.** Washington, DC.

Brown, H. Douglas. 1980. **Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.** Prentice-Hall. New Jersey.

Chariýarow, B. 1969. **Günorta-Günbatar Türki Dillerde İşlik Zamanlary.** Türkmen Ylymlar Akademiýasy . Magtymguly Adyndaky Dil ve Edebiýat İnstituty. Ashgabat.

Dulling, G. 1960. **An Introduction to the Turkmen Language. A Brief Summary of the Grammar of the Turkmen Language with Selected Extracts in Prose and Verse.** LND.

Gorohova, J. 1973. **Basic Principles of Teaching English at School and Their Pedagogical Validity .** P. Stuchki University. Riga

Türkmenistan Bilimler Akademiyasy, Magtymguly Adyndaky Dil ve Edebiyat Instituty
1999. **Türkmen Dilinin Grammatikasy. Morfologiya.** Ruh. Ashgabat.

Gurdow, A. 1986. **Struktura i semantika Grammaticheskikh Form Angliyskogo i Turkmenskogo Yazıkow.** Ylym. Ashgabat

Ibraýimov A. 1972. **Türki Dilleriň Deňeşdirme Grammatikasyndan Gollanma.** Türkmenistan Neşirýaty. Ashgabat.

Hydyrov, M. N. 1947. **Türkmen Dilindaki Posleloglar we Olaryň Ulanyşlary ;** Ashgabat.

Hudaýgulyýew, M. 1985. **Analitichiskiye Konstruksi Glagola i Slojniye Glagola v Turkmenskiye Yazıke. Voprosy Sovetskoy Tyurkologi .** Ashgabat.

Longman Group (Editor). 1982. **Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.** The Pitman Press. Great Britain.

Mattheus, P. 1972. **Morphology.** Cambridge. Great Britain.

Myradow, A. 1970. **Häzirki Zaman Türkmen Dilinde Bir Sostawly İsim Sözlemi.** V.I.Lenin Adyndaky Türkmen Döwlet Pedagogik Instituty.

Nepesova R., Yaslydeva O. 1992. **Let's Speak English; Beginning English for Turkmen Speakers.** Ashgabat "Ilim".

Nepesova, R. 1992. **Contrastive Morphonology of Turkmen and English Languages.** Türkmen Ylymlar Akedemiyasy.

Nepesova, R., Solovjeva, S. 1982. **A Contrastive Analysis of English and Turkmen Verbal Morphonologies.** Ashgabat.

Pirliyew,G. , Söyegow,M , Saryhanow,M. Gulbayew,G. 2002. **Türkmen dili-6.** Türkmenistan Bilim Ministirligi. Ashgabat.

Palmer, H. 1975. **A Linguistic Study of the English Verb.** Longman. Great Britain.

Retman, A., Retman, R. 1992. **Let's Learn to Speak English. Beginning English for Turkmen Speakers.** Ashgabat.

Richards, J.C., Rodgers, T. S. 1986. **Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching.** Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C., Platt, John., Platt, Heidi. 1992. **Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics.** Longman. Great Britain.

Rubba, Dr. Johanna. **Morphology of English.** English Department (Linguistics) California Polytechnic State University — San Luis Obispo.
<http://cla.calpoly.edu/jrubba/morph/morph>. 15. 10.2004.

Taçmyradow, T. 1972. **Türkmen Edebi Dilinin Grammatik Gurluşynyň Sowjet Döwründe Normalanyşy.** YLYM.

Thomson, A.J., Martinet, A.V. 1969. **A Practical English Grammar 2nd Edition.** Oxford University Press. London.

Türkmen Bilimler Akademiýasy Jurnaly, Volume 18, Issue November 1989.

Makala : Häzirki Zaman Türkmen Diliniň Morfologiýasyna Giriş . Ashgabat

Turkmen Language Course. 1994. **Competency-Based Basic Turkmen Instruction.** Turkmen Language Project. Indiana University.