

EXPRESSION OF CAUSATIVE MEANING IN THE STRUCTURES OF THE UZBEK AND ENGLISH LANGUAGES

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Abstract: This article deals with the typological category of causativization in the material of languages of different systems and different genealogical families. In the Uzbek language grammars and in some scientific works the verbs with the forms of causativization such as “yurgizmoq” – «make/let someone walk», “ishlatmoq” – «make/let someone work» are considered to be one of the forms of the category of voice (causative voice). In the English language this linguistic phenomenon is expressed by the combination of the auxiliary verb make/let/get/cause to/ +object+infinitive: I make my child walk, etc. These auxiliary verbs have lost their lexical meaning and acquired the grammatical meaning of causativization in the mentioned above patterns. In the Uzbek language the affixal morphemes - dir, - tir, - giz, etc are added to the root or the stem of the verb, at the result of which the verb acquires the meaning of causativization.

Key words: transitivity/intransitivity, causativization/non-causativization, agglutinative, inflected, relative affixes, derivative affixes, root morphemes, affixal morphemes, zero morphemes, analytically, synthetically, morphological level of the language, regular fusion, irregular fusion, syntagmatic and paradigmatic opposition, factitive causation, permissive causation.

The aim of the article is the contrastive typological study of the linguistic phenomenon causativization in the languages of different genealogical families (Uzbek, English that is Turkic and Germanic languages). For the strict and consecutive analysis of these two languages it is desirable to work out concrete ways of description.

Linguistic theory of the Moscow linguistic school concerning the form of the word founded by F.F. Fortunatov and developed by his followers M.N. Peterson, A.A. Reformatskiy, M.V. Panov and others is placed on the basis of the method for the description of languages which are both typologically and genealogically different.

This method is used for the contrastive typological analysis of the structures of the Uzbek and English languages in the field of the definition of the ways of expressing the meaning of causation.

Further development of this method demands the study of 1) synthetic and analytical forms; 2) the role of fusion and agglutination; 3) working out the ways of binary opposition which will serve as the standard for the definition of the means of expressing causation in the compared in this article languages. This method will be the main criteria for the analysis of the word structure in the languages of different types. V.N. Yartseva says that the structure of the word as the language unit is the measure of language structure and the structural analysis of the word proceeds from the definition of different morphemes [31, p. 111]. F.F. Fortunatov says that complex of speech sounds 1) книга “the book” is a word and complex of speech sounds 2) неправда “lie” is also a word, though the second one according to the composition, is not simple as being divided into separate words не “not” and правда “truth”, loses its first lexical meaning “lie” [27, p.186].

Considering integral character of the word F.F. Fortunatov says that the issue of the word is the issue of the system of the language [27, p. 186]. The notion system is defined as the sum of units where every unit receives its qualitative description depended on all other units. Always where there is a system, there

should be at least two units and if one of these two units is omitted the system cannot exist, that is where there is no choice of units, there is no system [12, p.8].

Systemic analysis of language structure belongs to the famous scientists B. de Kurtene [2], F. de Saussure [2], F.F. Fortunatov [26, 27].

Systemic analysis of language structure is also observed in the study of Turkic languages. The linguist Kh.G. Nigmatov used systemic method in the process of analysis of the Uzbek language [11, p. 28].

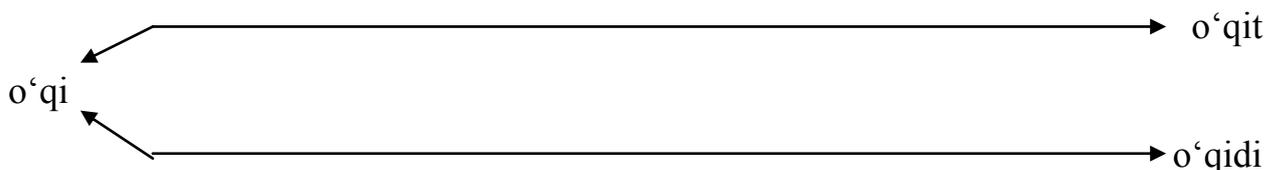
The follower of the Moscow linguistic school M.N. Peterson says that for the definition of the word structure it is reasonable to define whether it enters the binary opposition: the opposition between paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations [14, p.30]. The terms *paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations* were introduced in linguistics by Louis Hjelmslev. Method of defining the structure of the word used by M.N. Peterson is taken as a basis for the definition of the word structure of the Uzbek and English languages in this article. The definition of the ways of expressing causal meaning in the Uzbek verbs is based on the binary opposition where non causative form of the verb is opposed to the causative form of the verb. Causative form is formulated by adding one of causative affixal morphemes - tir, - dir, - ir, - qiz, - giz, - g'iz, - qaz, - gaz, - kaz, - sat, - ar, - ir to the root or the stem of the verb. Being added to the root or the stem of the verb these affixal morphemes do not change the lexical meaning of the verb they are added to; receiving one of these affixal morphemes the verb acquires additional causal meaning, for example, the verbs with the additional causative meaning uxlatmoq, “make/let/cause someone sleep”; o'qitmoq “make/let/cause someone read” are formed from the verbs uxlamoq “to sleep”, o'qimoq “to read”. So the verb uxlatmoq, on the one hand is correlated with the verb o'qitmoq, on the second hand, it is opposed to the non-causative verbs uxlamoq and o'qimoq. There we have the binary opposition: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. at the result of this opposition in the causative form of the verb uxlatmoq two parts are defined: uxla - “sleep” which exist in the non-causative form uxlamoq and the part - t adds the additional shade of causation to the main part.

The verbs with the zero morpheme uxla∅ “sleep” (in Uzbek imperative form of the verb is expressed by the zero morpheme), o‘qi “read” become non-causative forms only when they are opposed to the causative forms uxlat and o‘qit.

Mentioned above verbs 1) uxla “sleep” and o‘qi “read” being opposed to uxladi “slept” – uxlayapti “is sleeping” – uxlaydi “will sleep”; 2) o‘qi “read” being opposed to o‘qidi “read [red]” – o‘qiyapti “is reading” – o‘qiydi “will read” are considered to be not non-causative forms, but imperative forms of the verbs. Without mentioned oppositions we cannot speak of one or the other form either.

Analysing agglutinated languages O.P. Sunik says that the structure of the word is defined only on the correlation of the definite word structure with the other forms of this word or with the other word structures of this class based on the binary opposition of the form and meaning followed by function. Only this way we can define the polysemantic feature of Turkic forms [22, 26-64 pp.].

Opposition of causative/non-causative forms of the verb



Opposition of imperative and indicative forms of the verb

It can be given in the following table.

	Imperative	Indicative
Non-causative	o‘qi∅ “read”	o‘qidi/o‘qiydi – “read [red]/will read”
	yoz∅ “write”	yozdi/yozadi – “write/willwrite”
Causative	o‘qit “make/let read”	o‘qitdi/o‘qitadi – “made/let read”/“will make/let read”
	yozdir “make/let write”	yozdiradi/yozdiradi – “made/let write”/“will make/let write”

Analysis of given above examples shows that imperative form of the verb correlates with the causative and indicative form of the verb depended on the position of its usage, where imperative and non-causative are formed implicitly, that is by the zero morpheme and the zero morpheme is opposed to the explicit forms of the causative and indicative forms of the verb. Thanks to the binary opposition which is used in order to define the form of the word such examples as qutqarmoq/qutqazmoq “to save”, oq/oqarmoq “white/to whiten” in the Uzbek language, “wide/to widen” in English cannot be included in the system of causative/non-causative forms as it is said above in order to be causative form it must have its format non-causative form with the same lexical meaning and of the same class of words (part of speech as verb/verb).

In the pair of verbs bezamoq/bezatmoq “to decorate/to decorate” we find expression of causal meaning with the absence of non-causal meaning. Pair of verbs bezamoq/bezatmoq cannot be included in the system of causativization, because only sound distinctions do not make up the form of the word. In the given above pair of verbs bezamoq/bezatmoq the same meaning is expressed, that is “to decorate”, as we see there is no opposition non-causative/causative.

As we have marked above imperative form of the mood in Uzbek is expressed by the zero morpheme and it correlates with the causative and indicative forms of the verb depended on the position of the usage.

Analyzing the nature of zero morphemes S. Yakhontov says that, as a rule, agglutinated affixal morpheme is opposed not only to other affixal morphemes, but it is opposed to the zero morpheme as well [32, p. 95]. For example, oblique case forms are opposed to the nominative case form which is expressed implicitly, that is by the zero morpheme; the noun in plural with the affixal morpheme -lar: bolalar is opposed to the noun in singular which is expressed by the zero morpheme: bolaØ/bolalar. The form of the active voice of the verb with the zero morpheme is opposed to all other forms of the voice of the same verb.

Active voice	Reflexive voice	Reciprocal voice	Passive voice
<u>yuv-di</u> “he washed (something)”	<u>yuvin-di</u> “he washed (himself)”	<u>yuvish-di</u> “they washed (something)”	<u>yuvil-di</u> “(something) was washed”

Analysis of the given above examples shows that the definite grammatical meaning expressed by zero morpheme in the structure of the Uzbek language is depended on the position of its usage, that is what form of the word of the same class it is opposed to.

As the Uzbek language is considered to be agglutinated, it is desirable to give theoretical interpretation to this phenomenon.

The function of agglutination and fusion as the two means of word building or word changing is the technique of connecting the root morpheme or the stem to the affixal morpheme [16, pp. 101-102, 106-107]. E. Sepir, analyzing means of connecting affixal morphemes to root morphemes or stems of words, changes the opposition «agglutination-inflexion» to «agglutination-fusion». Agglutination is the technique of connecting morphemes (root morphemes to affixal morphemes), inflexion is paralleled to grammatical means which express definite grammatical meaning: “man – men”, “foot – feet”; in these words grammatical meaning of plurality is expressed by inflexion (by the change of the root vowel), in the words “pen – pens” grammatical meaning of plurality is expressed by affixation.

While connecting the affixal morpheme to the root morpheme or to the stem by agglutination we find sound changes neither in the root (stem) nor in the affixal morpheme. The limits between the root (the stem) and affixal morpheme are light. The affixal morpheme can be separated from the root morpheme (or stem) without the change of sound structure in both of them. As the result of separation of the root (or the stem) from the affixal morpheme the word does not lose its independence: maktab “school” – maktabga “to school”; kitob “a book” – kitobda “in the book”; kel “come” – keldi “(he) came” in Uzbek; “farm – farmer”, “work – worker – worked” in English; “ход – выход – заход” in Russian.

Agglutination is observed in the structures of the Uzbek, Russian and English languages, but it is a specific feature of the Uzbek language and it is productive in the structure of the Modern English.

While connecting affixal morpheme to the root morpheme (or stem) by fusion both the root (or the stem) and affixal morpheme can change their sound structure, sometimes either the root (or the stem) or the affixal morpheme changes its sound structure. In this case separation of the affixal morpheme from the root morpheme (or the stem) harms the word's sound structure and the word loses its independence. The limits between the root morpheme (or the stem) and the affixal morpheme are dark. It is impossible to separate the affixal morpheme from the root morpheme (or the stem) without causing harm to the structure of the word. Fusion can be of two kinds: 1) regular fusion; 2) irregular fusion [16].

Regular fusion demands the change of sound structure only at the limits of the root (or the stem) and affixal morphemes: wife – wives: R+f→v+af, house→houses; yurak→ yuragim: R+s→z+af in English; oyoq→oyog'im: R+q→g'+af in Uzbek; грузил→грузу: R+z→ж+af in Russian.

Irregular fusion occurs when the addition of the affixal morpheme demands the change of sound structure inside the root morpheme: long→lengthen: R+o→e+af, deal→dealt: R+i:→e+af, child→children: R+aɪ→ɪ+af in English; ong→angla: R+o→a+af in Uzbek; лоб→лобу: R+об→б+af in Russian. Irregular fusion is the specific feature of the Russian language, this phenomenon is observed in the word structure preserved from the Old English and in the Uzbek word structure it is found only in word building that is in the process of forming a new word. In the word structure of the English and Russian languages it is found both in word building and in word changing.

The structure of the English language is considered to be inflected. F.F. Fortunatov, A.I. Smirnitsky, M.V. Panov and other followers of Moscow linguistic school proceeded from the interpretation that the word is always grammatically formulated and its meaning is not the simple sum of meanings of its morphemes, but a phraseological unit taken together. English word structure also is

divided into main and formal parts, for example, in the words tables, benches we find two parts: 1) table -, bench -, 2) - s, - es. Most of the English words such as a book, a pen, a chair coincide with the Uzbek words bola, kitob, qalam where the root and formulated dependent word coincide formally. Linguistic analysis of these words shows that these words which are similar to their roots are divided into the main and formal parts. The formal part is expressed implicitly that is by the zero morpheme. The zero morpheme's grammatical meaning is defined on the basis of the binary opposition with the other form of this word, for example:

- 1) write \emptyset (Present Indefinite)→wrote (Past Indefinite);
write \emptyset (Active Voice)→is written (Passive Voice);
write \emptyset (Indicative Mood)→(You) write (Imperative Mood).
- 2) boy \emptyset (singular)→boys (plural);
boy \emptyset (common case)→boy's (genitive case).

In the Uzbek language we find the same characteristic feature of the word structure:

- kitob \emptyset (singular)→kitoblar (plural);
- kitob \emptyset (common case)→kitobning (genitive case).

As we see the grammatical meaning expressed by the zero morpheme in the English and Uzbek word structure is depended on the position it is used, that is, it is depended on the binary opposition of at least two or more forms of this word with the same lexical meaning and the same class of words it is included.

Smirnitsky A.I. says that the absence of a grammatical form of a word does not mean that this word is not grammatically formulated. Every word is grammatically formulated though its grammatical formulation is not always explicit [18, p.17].

Analyzing English word structure it is reasonable to speak about analytical forms expressing the grammatical meaning as Modern English is inclined to be analytical. English verb has a rich system of analytical forms, because grammatical categories of tense, voice, mood, aspect, etc. are formed synthetically and in most cases analytically:

Synthetically	Grammatical category	Analytically	Grammatical category
I <u>write</u>	Present Indefinite	I shall write	Future Indefinite
He <u>writes</u>	Present Indefinite 3 rd person singular	He will write	Future Indefinite
I <u>wrote</u>	Past Indefinite	I should write I would write	Future Indefinite in the Past
		I am writing	Present Continuous
I wish I <u>were</u> a student. I wish I <u>be</u> a student.	Mood: Subjunctive 1		
		I wish you should come to my birthday	Mood: subjunctive 2
She <u>invited</u> me to her birthday.	Active Voice	I was invited to her birthday	Passive Voice

Demonstrated above examples show that grammatical categories of tense, voice and mood of the English verb are expressed both synthetically and analytically. In Modern English the grammatical categories of the verb are mostly expressed by synthetical-analytical forms, that is by mixed forms.

Examples: In the sentence I am working the Present Continuous is formed by synthetical-analytical form, as “am” the Present form of “be” is combined with the Participle I which is formed by the addition of the affixal morpheme -ing to the root of the verb write; In the sentence He has written the Present Perfect is formed by synthetical-analytical form, as “has” (which came out of “have” where the 3rd person singular of the verb “have” is formed by fusion: have→has=R+v+z) is combined with Participle II (which is also formed by fusion, where the addition of

the affixal morpheme -en changes the root morpheme of the verb: write→written: R+a_r→r+af).

It is desirable to mention A.I. Smirnitsky's interpretation given to the analytical forms: The existence of the analytical form is proved by the presence of the synthetical form for the expression of the definite grammatical meaning, as the existed synthetic form can draw the analytical form to the sphere of synthetical word changing [19, p. 83]. Formations such as be surprised, be glad are considered to be composite (compound) words (they cannot be analytical forms). In order to be an analytical form the unit, used in the structure of the definite word combination, must lose its lexical meaning at the extent of the synthetical grammatical marker and the word combination considered to be an analytical form must be opposed to the synthetical form expressing the same grammatical meaning, for example in "I shall go" (Future Indefinite) and "I go" (Present Indefinite) the analytical form "shall go" is opposed to the synthetical form I go, as both of these forms express meaning of tense, these forms are included in the system of tense formation.

The definition of the character of the word structure in the English and Uzbek languages is important in this article as the expression of causal meaning of the verb in compared languages will be defined within the limits of one and the same lexical meaning where non-causative form of the verb acquires some shade of causative meaning being formulated synthetically or analytically.

In Turkic languages the linguistic phenomenon is considered to be one of the form of the voice named as the causative voice. This linguistic phenomenon is included in the system of the category of the Uzbek voice which consists of active voice, passive voice, reflexive voice and reciprocal voice.

In this article non-causative/causative forms of the verb is not included in the system of the category of voice of the verb in the Uzbek language, as by expressing causal meaning of the verb we take into consideration the attitude of the speaker (the initiator) towards the action or state of the object of the action or state.

B.A. Serebrennikov's opinion deserves to be mentioned in this case. He marks that the verbs having the affixal morphemes of causation at present do not correlate with the forms of the voice and it is possible that these affixal morphemes have acquired a new and special function [17, p. 68]. The linguist T.M. Garipov taking into consideration B.A. Serebrennikov's opinion says that the linguistic phenomenon is productive in Turkic languages, that is why it must be the object of special investigation.

Consequently, if we analyze the system of voice on the basis of binary opposition and transformational method which is interpreted above we cannot agree with the opinion of some Uzbek grammarians who include causative forms of the verb in the system of the category of voice of verbs. For example, in the verb "ko'rishtirdi" – made someone see/greet or meet someone the grammarian S.A. Ferdaus [25, p. 274] finds the expression of two voice forms in the same verb: reciprocal and causative. Analyzing the verb mentioned above on the basis of binary opposition of form and meaning followed by function, we find the following:

1) ko'r-di "(he) saw" – 2) ko'r-ish-di "(they) saw" – 3) ko'r-ish-tir-di "(he/she) made/let someone meet/greet someone". In the first and second cases we have the same lexical meaning ("see" – ko'r) with different forms of the voice: active voice: ko'r-di; reciprocal voice: ko'r-ish-di, but in the third case the addition of the affixal morpheme -tir to the stem of the verb ko'r-ish "greet/meet (someone)" and not "see someone". It is a new verb where affixal morpheme -ish is not the form of the reciprocal voice, but it is a word building affixal morpheme. In the verb ko'r-ish-tir-di we find the expression of the active voice only, which can be opposed to the passive voice ko'r-ish-tir-il-di (here ko'rish "greet" is the derived verb formed from the verb ko'r "see"). Affixal morpheme -ish in this verb is not the form of the reciprocal voice but it is the word building morpheme. Such an analysis of the word structure gives us the right to say that the verbs with causative forms have the category of voice as well:

Voice	non-causative	causative
Active	<u>yo</u> <u>z</u> - <u>di</u> (he) wrote	<u>yo</u> <u>z</u> - <u>dir</u> - <u>di</u> (he/she) made/let (him/her) write
Passive	<u>yo</u> <u>z</u> - <u>il</u> - <u>di</u> was written	<u>yo</u> <u>z</u> - <u>dir</u> - <u>il</u> - <u>di</u> (he) was made/let to write

The verb sev-in-tir-moq “make/let someone be glad” which is considered by the grammarians U.Tursunov [24] “as if two voice forms were joint in this verb” is analyzed in the following way: 1) -in (the affixal morpheme of the reflexive voice), 2) -tir (the affixal morpheme of the causative voice). If we analyze this verb on the basis of binary opposition of form and meaning followed by function, we will find that in the verb sev-in-tir-moq the affixal morpheme -in does not express reflexive voice, it forms the new verb sev-in “be glad” out of the verb sev “love”, and -tir is the affixal morpheme of causation added to the derived verb sevin “be glad” (but not sev “love”). Consequently, the verb sevintirmoq “make/let someone be glad” has the forms of the active and passive voice as well:

Voice	non-causative		causative	
	Uzbek	English	Uzbek	English
Active	sev	rejoice or be glad	sev <u>dir</u>	make/let love
	sevin		sev <u>intir</u>	make/let rejoice or make/let be glad
Passive	sevil	be loved	sev <u>diril</u>	be made/let to be loved
	sevinild	be rejoiced	sev <u>intirildi</u>	be made/let to be rejoiced

The analysis of the verbs sev “love” and sevin “rejoice”/“be glad” shows that the affixal morpheme of the reflexive voice -in in the verb sevin “rejoice” or “be glad” does not express the meaning of the reflexive voice, but it forms the new verb, that is sevin “be glad” or “rejoice” is a derived verb which came out of sev “love”. In the verbs kiyin “dress (yourself)”, yuvin “wash (yourself)” the affixal

morpheme -in forms reflexive voice which is opposed to the active voice: yuv “wash”, kiy “dress”.

Proceeding from the linguistic analysis of the structure of the Uzbek verbs given above causative verb is the verb which has the opposition: non-causative/causative.

In the Uzbek language the verb with the causative form acquires additional meaning of causation which is initiated by the subject of the sentence (in the article NP1¹). The initiator that is NP1's participation in the realization of the action or state by the object of the sentence (in the article NP2²) stretches from the strict order to the simple connivance depended on the position of the usage. The position of the usage is defined by NP1's character of causation. NP1 can make / cause / order / ask or let NP2 to perform the caused action or pass onto another state. NP1 can be person or non-person. Receiving one of causative affixal morphemes transitive verbs preserve their transitivity acquiring additional meaning of causation, intransitive verbs become transitive and acquire additional causal meaning. Various shades of causal meanings expressed by the same causal affixal morpheme depended on the position of the usage show their polysemic feature. Analysis of the examples selected from the Uzbek literature shows that NP1's causation includes from strict order to simple connivance or indifference and NP1's influence on NP2 can be direct or influential – remote.

Examples:

1. Bu Akram Hodjining taajjubini orttirdi [A.Q., p. 16] – “This increased Akram Hodji's interest”.
2. ... uning bu oxirgi jumlasini Hamidni yerga qaratib, lom deyishga majol bermay qo'ydi [A.Q., p. 21] – “His words made Hamid lower his gaze”.
3. Kumushbibi uyning to'riga o'tqazildi [A.Q., p. 55]. – “Kumush was seated on the place of honour”.

¹ initiator of causation – NP1 (noun/pronoun 1)

² caused object – NP2 (noun/pronoun 2)

4. Sovchilarga zarrin to‘nlar kiydirildi [A.Q., p. 48]. – “Proposers of marriage were dressed by oriental gold embroidery robes”.

The analysis of the examples shows that the first and second cases NP1’s influence on NP2 is distant, that is influential – remote, but in the third and fourth cases NP1’s influence on NP2 is direct (3) Kumush was taken by arm, accompanied to the place of honour and was seated there. 4) Gold embroidered robes were thrown on the guests and the guests put them on.).

In the process of distant and direct causation NP1 can participate in the realization of the action by NP2 completely (maximal) and partially (minimal) [43]. If NP1 participates in the realization of the action or state by NP2 partially, it will be considered as partial causation, if NP1 participates in the realization of the action or state by NP2 completely, it will be considered as complete causation.

Examples:

5. Yigitlar kutovni domlalar qarshisida to‘xtatgandan keyin ... [A.Q., p. 59]. – Men let Otabek (bridegroom) stop before mullah (mullah who holds marriage ceremony).
6. Ziyo aka ... kulchalarni sindirdi [A.Q., p. 43]. – Ziya aka ... divided flat cakes (national Uzbek bread is broken into pieces by one of the men sitting at the table).
7. Hasanali dasturxon yozib, qumg‘on kigizdi [A.Q., p. 10]. – Hasanali covered the table with a cloth and brought in kumgan (kumgan is a water-pot used for the guests to wash their hands).

In the fifth example NP1 (men) participates partially in the realization of the action, in the sixth and seventh examples NP1 (Ziya aka) participates completely in the realization of the action where NP2 (caused object) is subjected to NP1’s physical influence.

According to the volitive and involitive attitude of NP2 (caused object) to NP1’s influence, caused action or state can be factitive and permissive [41, p. 254].

Examples:

8. Sen aqliz o‘lgur Kumushni uyaltirgansan [A.Q., p.51]. – You are stupid, You have confused Kumush.
9. Hasanali hujradan uzaqlatib, so‘ngra javob berdi ... [A.Q., p. 9]. – Otabek answered when he was sure that Hasanali was far from hudjra (a small habitable room in medreseh (high muslim educational enterprise)).

In the example 8 caused action is performed by NP2 despite of the latter’s volition (involitively), in the example 9 NP1’s causation includes permissive character.

Causation can be strong, weak and intangible. In the example 9 we find intangible causation.

Analysis of the examples selected from Uzbek fiction shows that there exists mediated (indirect) causation, where NP1 initiates NP2 to cause NP3 perform the action or acquire a new state which is desired by NP1. In this case NP1 and NP2 are persons and NP3 can be either person or non-person.

Examples:

10. Azizbek (M.A.)³ ... beklarni o‘ldirib, o‘rda darvozasiga osdi [A.Q., p. 36]. – Azizbek killed and hang beks (title of notable person) on palace gates.
11. ... ichida o‘zining Shamayda tikdirgan osmon rang movut kamzuli ... [A.Q., p. 59]. - ... he had on blue kamzul (man’s jacket) he had it made in Shamay.
12. ... onasi “tinch uxlasin, ortiq urinmasin!” deb bugun nomozga ham (Kumushni – M.A.) uyg‘ottirmagan edi [A.Q., p. 30]. – Mother didn’t wake up Kumush for the morning praying so that she should sleep and have a rest.

In the examples 10 – 12 NP3 (beklar, kamzul, Kumush) is subjected to the caused action by NP1 (initiator), where the performer of the action NP2 is expressed implicitly, sometimes NP2 can be expressed explicitly by the word orqali.

Mediated (indirect) causation can be manifested in the following way: NP1+implicit/explicit NP2+NP3+V transitive/intransitive. Zimmer K.E. uses the

³ M.A. – M. Alimova

term mediator as the agent being caused by the other agent who/which causes the third agent to perform the action or acquire the definite caused state [44, p. 409]. Some linguists in the study of Turkic languages connect the mediated causation with the passive voice of the verb V.P. Nedyalkov, who deals with this linguistic phenomenon, says that while expressing passive voice the subject of the sentence is not the real doer of the action. The difference is that while expressing passive voice the formal subject of the sentence is acted upon, but while expressing causative meaning the formal subject (NP1) of the sentence causes the object (NP2) in the sentence to perform the action or change from one state onto another [18, p. 305]. It is reasonable to add that while expressing causative meaning the formal subject (NP1) can coincide with the doer of the action. It occurs in transitive and reflexive causation. In reflexive causation NP1 caused NP2 (which is expressed by the pronoun o‘zi “himself/herself” and the names of the parts of his/her body such as head (bosh), eyes (ko‘z), lips (lab), beard (soqol), ear (quloq), tooth (tish), face (yuz) as well) to some action or to acquire the definite state. In this case caused action or state is directed to NP1 himself/herself or to the definite part of his/her body. This kind of expressing causative meaning differs from non-causative, as in this case the action is not only directed to the object (NP2), but also it causes him/her/it to perform the action or require a caused state. Caused influence can be direct (physical) or influential-remote (distant).

Examples:

13. ... (Otabek – M.A.) tovushini barchaga eshittirib – “qabul qildik!” deb yubordi [A.Q., p. 60]. – I’m agree, agree! Otabek said loudly so that every body should hear (word for word translation: he said loudly to let everybody hear his concert).
14. Kutidor ham kulgidan o‘zini to‘xtataolmas ... [A.Q., p. 34]. – Kutidor couldn’t help laughing either.
15. ... yoqoridagi javobni eshitgan vaqtda nima uchundir o‘zini bir turli kulgidan arang to‘xtatib qolgan [A.Q., p. 26]. – Hearing Otabek’s answer,

he had hardly stopped himself from laughing (word for word translation: he stopped himself from laughing by using some force).

Some examples show that while using verbs with causative form NP1 is not the initiator of the action, but **he** suffers from the action performed. This process is included in the system of expressing causativization by some linguists in the study of Turkic languages [7, p. 89-90] and by some linguists in the sphere of Indo-European languages [9, p. 43, 45].

Examples: Men sumkamni o'g'irlatib qo'ydim. – I have had my bag stolen (I, the subject of the sentence is not the initiator of the action performed, but he/she suffers from it).

Proceeding from the method where non-causative form is opposed to the causative form followed by function (function: causation) without the change of the lexical meaning of the verb, the example given above cannot be included in the system of expression of causation (o'g'irladim – o'g'irlatdim), as the affixal morpheme –t in this example does not express causal meaning. In this case NP1 is not the initiator of the action, but he/she suffers from the action performed.

In this article cases like this are considered to be pseudo-causativization. Pseudo-causativization is divided into: 1) Trite and 2) lexicalized causative forms.

1. Trite causative form is the case where we find opposition non-causative / causative with the absence of the causative meaning followed by function (the meaning of causation).

Examples: yoqmoq/yoqtirmoq “to like”, bosib kirmoq/bostirib kirmoq “to encroach”, bezamoq/bezatmoq “to decorate”. Here it is reasonable to mention M.N. Peterson's words [13, p.9] that if sound distinction is not connected with the distinction in meaning, we cannot speak about the form, as the form exists thanks to the presence of the meaning; and the meaning exists thanks to the existence of the form; no form without meaning and no meaning without the form.

2.1. Lexicalized causative form is the case where we find the existence of the causative form without the causative meaning: 1) oʻrnatmoq “to fix”; 2) yoʻqotmoq “to loose”; 3) qutqazmoq “to save”.

In the Old Uzbek language these verbs had non-causative/causative opposition with the existence of the causal meaning in the latter, but in Modern Uzbek language former causative forms 1) -t; 2) -t; 3) -qaz have become inseparable parts of the given above verbs. When separating the part -t in the verbs 1, 2 and the part -qaz in the verb 3 the rest parts: 1) oʻrna-, 2) yoʻgʻo-, qut- cannot exist as independent words, they are not words.

2.2. Lexicalized causative form can be used for the formation of the new words. In the verbs gapirmoq “to speak”, yaratmoq “to create”, yutqazmoq “to fail” causative affixal morphemes form new words from yaramoq “fit for”, gap “sentence”, yutmoq “to win”. In the sentence Ukam oquvchidir. – “My brother is a **teacher**.” causative affixal morpheme -dir added to the end of the nominal predicate oquvchidir expresses the real attitude of the speaker towards the fact.

In connection with different approaches to the expression of the causative meaning in the English language, it is reasonable to demonstrate some works belonging to this linguistic phenomenon. In the book “Typology of causative constructions” in the sentence like “They talked him into doing something” [p.11] the construction “talk into doing” is opposed to the verb “to talk”, the verb “to kill” is opposed to the verb “to die” considering the formers to be causative verbs.

Hocket C.J. in the sentences “The boy is running the car”, “The boy is bringing a car” considers the verb “to run” and “to bring” to be causative verbs [36, p. 235]. Bollinger D. [34, p. 85] in the sentence “He is trying to live down his past” considers “to live down” as a causative construction. Ivanova D.A. considers the verb “to run” in the expressions like “to run the factory” and “to run the restaurant” as the causative verb [5, pp. 14-17]. It is important to mention V.N. Yartseva’s opinion [29, p. 298] that in the sentence “He walked me into parlour” which is opposed to “He walked along the street” in the verb “walk” we do not find grammatical expression of causation; in this case causative meaning is expressed

not in the verb “walk” only; this meaning is expressed in the whole sentence and the verb “walk” out of this sentence cannot have causal meaning.

Analysis of the study of expressing causation in the English language shows that linguists did not put before themselves the task of expressing the meaning of causation grammatically.

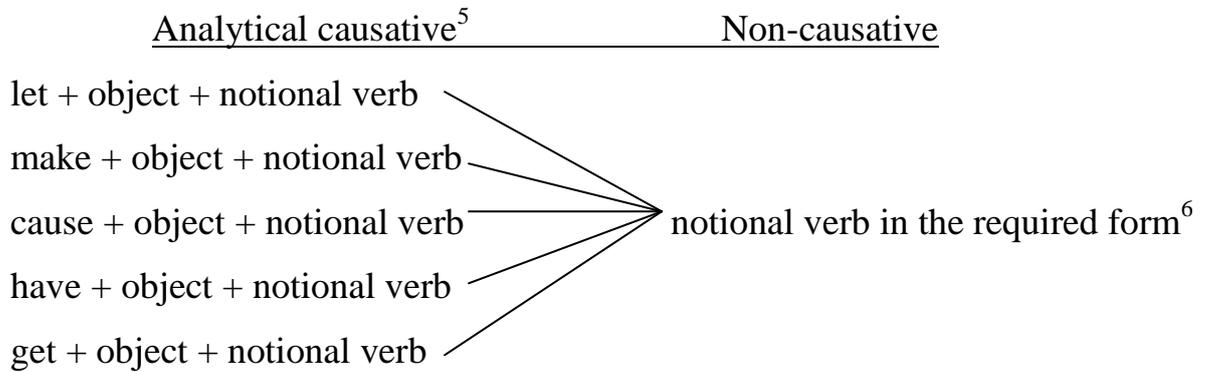
Analysis of the English fiction shows that the meaning of causation is productively expressed by the combination of the auxiliary verbs *let / make / cause / get / have* with the notional verb. These combinations were considered to be syntactical causative constructions by Buranov V. [3, pp. 211-214]. B.A. Ilyich considers these constructions to be analytical forms and says that these auxiliary verbs are being grammaticalized [6, p. 168]. O. Jespersen [37, p. 293] says that the verb *let+infinitive* followed by object forms a semantic unit expressing causation. Trnka B. [42, p. 59] and Shibatani M. [41, pp. 3-9] also speak about grammaticalization of these auxiliary verbs. V. P. Nedyalkov [10, p.8] says that the German verb “*Lassen+infinitive*” is also grammaticalized that is paralleled to the affixal morphemes expressing the meaning of causation and can be considered to be analytical form used for this aim. Sh. Balli says that the French verb “*faire+infinitive*” is paralleled to the simple verb where the auxiliary verb *faire* can be considered as a link verb [1, p. 125]. V.N. Yartseva says that *make* in Modern English has become a typical link verb of causative constructions [29, p. 237].

In connection with productivity of the auxiliary verbs *let, make, cause, have, get* in combination with notional verbs in order to give the latter additional causal meaning, these auxiliary verbs are reasonable to consider not as link verbs, but as analytical forms paralleled to the affixal morphemes.

The examples selected from the English novels show that causal meaning given by these auxiliary verbs in combination with the notional verb is so standardized that it is reasonable to consider them as the analytical markers of causation. They differ from the link verbs which are used to form compound nominal predicate in the sentences like “I am a teacher.”, “The wall is white.” where the auxiliary verb “to be” is used in the function of the link verb; *let, make,*

cause, have, get differ from their lexical and grammatical homonyms, used in the sentences like “That makes it five hundred and fifty-five.”, “I had my bicycle stolen.”, “He makes a good husband.”.

So, the opposition analytical causative form⁴ and non-causative will be taken as the criteria for the expression of causation in English:

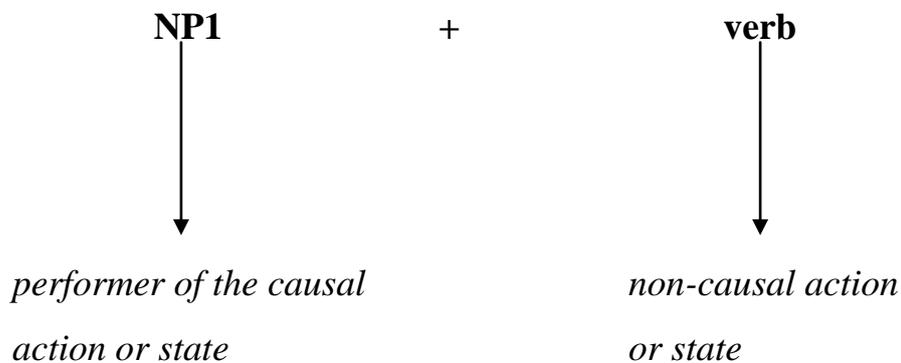


Examples:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I made him do this work. | He did this work. |
| 2. I let him do this work. | He did this work. |
| 3. I caused him to do this work. | He did this work. |
| 4. I got him to do this work. | He did this work. |
| 5. I had him do this work. | He did this work. |

In the give above examples ACF make + object + verb, let + object + verb, cause + object + verb, get + object + verb, have + object + verb are opposed to the notional verb in the required form.

Non-causative meaning is expressed in the following way:

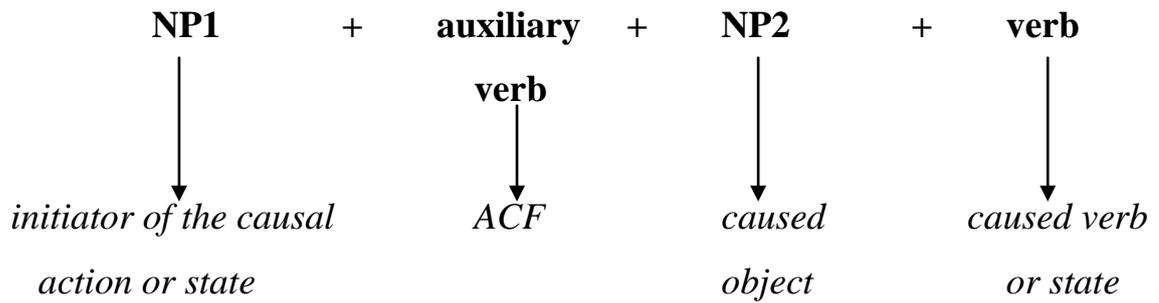


⁴ Analytical causative form – ACF

⁵ Analytical causative - AC

⁶ Notional verb in the required form means that non-causative verb preserves its form of voice, tense and mood in this opposition

Causative meaning is expressed in the following way:



Analysis of the selected examples from the English novels show that the structure of the English language two kinds of AC are defined: 1) factitive, 2) permissive. The division of the English AC into two groups is depended on the character of NP1's attitude towards the action or state of NP2. If NP1 considers caused action or state is obligatory or necessary, causation is factitive, if NP1 considers caused action or state is permissive (or prohibitive in the negative form), causation is permissive. So, factitive and permissive causative forms are analyzed in separate distributions:

- 1) Distribution of factitive AC
- 2) Distribution of permissive AC

Analytical causative forms (ACF) make, get, cause express factitive causation, ACF let expresses permissive causation, ACF have and get express both factitive and permissive causation.

1. Distribution of factitive AC

Using make, get and cause as ACF in combination with the notional verb causal meanings of order, instruction, request, suggestion, persuasion and compulsion are added to the lexical meaning of the verb.

1.1. ACF make in combination with notional verb expresses various factitive causal meanings.

Examples: 1. By his tact he made Droult feel that he admired his choice [D2, p. 24]. 2. I can't tell you how that makes me feel sometimes, Clyde [D1, p. 536]. 3. I was just trying to make people think that I hadn't anything to do with her going

up there... [D1, p. 296]. 4. You have made the soldiers love and admire you too [V., p. 329]. 5. The sight of the cassock makes my teeth ache [V., p. 291]. 6. “What can I do to make this child understand me?”, she said [S., p. 243]. 7. It will only make it look as though he had killed that Alden girl to get rid of her [D1, p. 147]. 8. Don't make me worry anymore [D2, p. 324]. 9. Somehow he made Carrie wish to see similar things... [D2, p. 145].

Examples given above show that NP1's influence on NP2 is influential-remote. In this case causation includes motivation, inspiration or the existence of some reason which makes NP2 pass onto another state.

1. They (letters) made me cry [D1, p. 212]. 2. He would do something desperate if she tried to make him do that... [D1, p. 638]. 3. They made me sit down at the table beside them [St., p. 108]. 4. He made her take it (money) [D2, p. 80]. 5. He had succeeded in making her talk [L1, p. 8]. 6. Naturally dark of skin, gloom made him look slightly sinister [D2, p. 377]. 7. The income of successful author makes Mr. Butler look cheap [L., p. 199]. 8. But that character, that Wiki-Wiki, why do you make him talk so roughly [L., p. 258].

In the given above examples ACF make + object + verb expresses various shades of causal meaning such as obligation (ex.1), demand (ex.2), order (ex.3), persuasion (ex.4), existence of some reason (ex.5, 6) and indifference to the performance of the action (ex.7).

1. “If you don't, I'll do this”, and with that he gave me a twitch that, I thought, would have made me faint [St., p. 43]. 2. ... he had risen from bed with great difficulty, holding to my shoulder with a grip that almost made me cry out ... [S., p. 39]. 3. Tom Loker ... interrupted Marks by bringing his heavy fist down on the table, so as to make all ring again [S., p. 110]. 4. ... flutter of beats (of his heart) choked him and made him go faint and dizzy [St., p. 32].

In the given above examples the participation of NP1 in the realization of the caused action is maximal and direct (physical) that NP2 is completely subjected to the initiator's (NP1) influence. In these examples physical (direct) influence is expressed explicitly: 1) ... he gave me a twitch, 2) ... holding to my shoulder with

a grip, 3) ... bringing his heavy fist down on the table, 4) ... flutter of beats of his heart.

Direct (physical) causation differs from influential-remote by not expressing causal meanings of order, persuasion, demand, because in this case NP2 is completely subjected to NP1's influence in spite of its volition and NP1's participation in the performance of the action is minimal. Here it is reasonable to mark that in this case NP1 is a person the degree of causation is strong, if NP1 is a non-person the degree of causation is weak.

Analysis of literary texts shows that in the structure of the English language there exists expression of factitive and permissive causation in the same sentence: But you ... made me let you come in here [D1, p. 515].

1.2. a. ACF have/get in combination with the notional verb.

Examples selected from English novels show that the meaning of causation expressed by ACF have/get in combination with the notional verb is also productive. ACF have in the function of expressing the meaning of causation is observed in the forms of finite and non-finite (infinitive, gerund, participle) forms and subjunctive mood either. In this function have can be used after the verbs with modal meaning and after modal verbs. ACF get in the function of expressing causal meaning is also productive but in comparison with have it is observed more seldom.

Examples: 1. You wouldn't have me tell those people the truth? [V., p. 128]. 2. I also had Earl telephone the people at Sharon [D1, p. 24]. 3. If I could just put my arms round her ... and have her kiss me [D1, p. 451]. 4. What a thing it was to have her love him ... [D2, p. 178]. 5. His thought there was that after all Clyde was a full cousin and that it wouldn't do to have him live just anywhere [D1, p. 226].

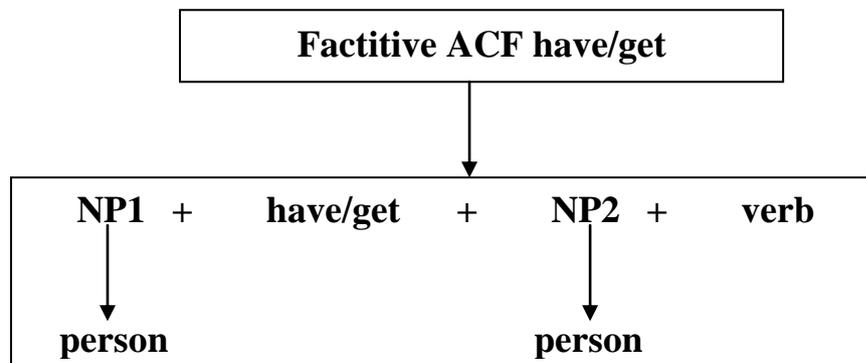
Given above examples show that ACF have in combination with the notional verb expresses causation in the meaning of obligation (ex.1), order (ex.2), mild cause (ex.3), giving chance in the action being performed (ex.4), and being indifferent to the performance of the action by NP2 (ex.5).

Examples with ACF get in combination with the notional verb:

1. I cannot ever get him to talk about her [S., p. 380]. 2. Well, I didn't know what to do. I thought may be I could get her to go up to her home for a while [D1, p. 248]. 3. ... but I rather think Tom, you'd better get me to write your letter for you ... [S., p. 307].

Analysis of the examples given above shows that ACF get in combination with the notional verb expresses causal meanings of persuasion (ex.1, 2) and request (ex.3). NP1 and NP2 usually express person with the ACF have/get in combination with the notional verb in the active voice. Other ACF do not have this characteristic feature.

The table demonstrating ACF have/get + verb expressing the meaning of causation:

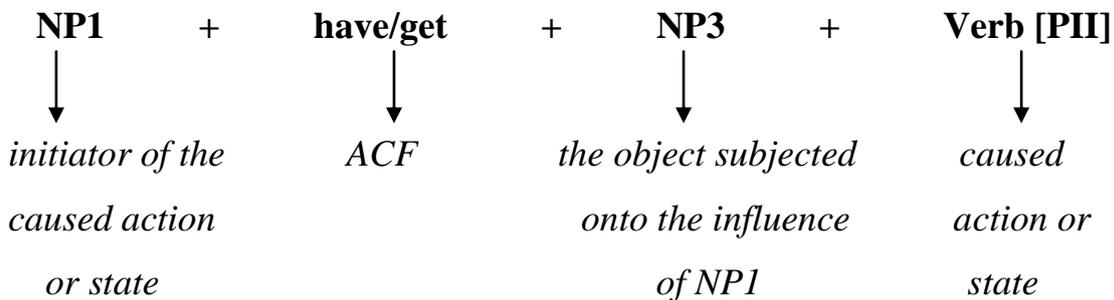


1.2 b. ACF have/get is usually found in the form of the passive voice where NP2 is not expressed explicitly, and in the case of being expressed explicitly it is introduced by the preposition by. In this case as the passive voice of the verb, notional verb receives the form of the Participle II (Past Participle).

Examples: 1. I'll have her whipped till she couldn't stand [S., p. 357]. 2. I'll have you arrested, the pair of you, you big brutes, sobbed the erring soul [L., p. 335]. 3. I will try to have my dress made by then ... [D1, p. 557]. 4. It had been his custom to get the Bible read to him by his master's children [S., p. 199]. 5. It's a wonder you didn't get us killed [A., p. 53].

Analysis of the given above examples shows that ACF have/get + PII demands the usage of NP3 (NP3 can be person or non-person) which/who is subjected onto the influence of NP1 (the initiator of the causal action or state). In

this case NP2 (the performer of the causal action) is expressed implicitly which is usually a person. It can be demonstrated as following:



Examples 1 – 5 with ACF *have/get* + PII show that caused action whip (ex.1), arrest (ex.2), make (ex.3), read (ex.4), kill (ex.5) are performed by NP2 which/who is expressed implicitly where the objects (NP3) *her* (ex.1), *you* (ex.2), *dress* (ex.3), *the Bible* (ex.4), *us* (ex.5) are completely subjected onto NP1's influence. When transforming these sentences we will have non-causative forms: 1) I'll whip her ... , 2) I'll arrest you, 3) I'll try to make my dress, 4) He read the Bible, 5) It's a wonder you didn't kill us.

In the given above examples 1 – 5 the action is performed by the implicitly expressed object (NP2) which is considered as caused object.

In transformed sentences 1 – 5 the same actions are performed by NP1 himself which is considered as a non-causative.

The difference between have and get is that ACF have is stronger than ACF get. The difference between ACF make and have/get is that the latter ACF in combination with the notional verb always expresses influential-remote causation, but ACF make expresses both direct and influential-remote causation. Besides ACF make carries more concrete and strict causation than have and get.

Selected examples from English literature show that have/get + PII is also used when NP1 suffers from the action performed over NP3; in this case we have the form of causation with the absence of causal meaning: 1. I was telling him how I came to get my left arm spoiled [V., p. 181]. 2... It was the first time she had ever had a human soul to play with [L., p. 70].

Examples 1 – 2 are paralleled to the examples “I had my bicycle stolen” and “He had his son killed in the war”.

Analysis of the English literature shows that *have* expresses the causation in combination with the adverb: We'll have to have him out to the house for dinner pretty soon, won't you? [D1, p. 260]. This and mentioned above cases are not included in the system of expressing causation in this article as the method chosen for this research demands the correlation of the form with the meaning, followed by function: non-causative/causative that is the verb without the meaning of causation must be opposed to the verb with the meaning of causation where in the latter the lexical meaning of non-causative is preserved.

1.3. Distribution of factitive AC with the ACF cause

ACF cause in combination with the notional verb differs from ACF make, have, get in being used in the affirmative form of the indicative mood in most cases. ACF cause is seldom found in the interrogative and exclamatory sentences and in the sentences where the verb is used in the subjunctive mood:

Examples: 1. And then two things occurred which caused her to think not only seriously of marriage, but of her own future [D1, p. 306]. 2. Yet in this instance it was sufficient to cause Roberta to feel that he fully understood and sympathized with her [D1, p. 446]. 3. There is another line at which the dress of a man will cause her to study her own [D2, p. 28]. 4. This ... has caused Caroner Heit to assert that unless the body of the man is found he will assume that murder has been committed [D1, p. 69]. 5. She made a pury, sensuous mouth – the kind she could make – and practiced a play of the lips that caused them (lips – M.A.) to see, to want, to kiss him ... [D1, p. 159]. 6. And then in her coquettish and artful way she smiled up in his eyes, ... which caused his heart to beat faster ... [D1, p. 404]. 7. It was Hurstwood who ... caused her merry thoughts to flee [D2, p. 472]. 8. It caused her at his behest, to wait a while longer ... [D1, p. 521]. 9. ... a sight ... nearly caused him to faint [L2, p. 37].

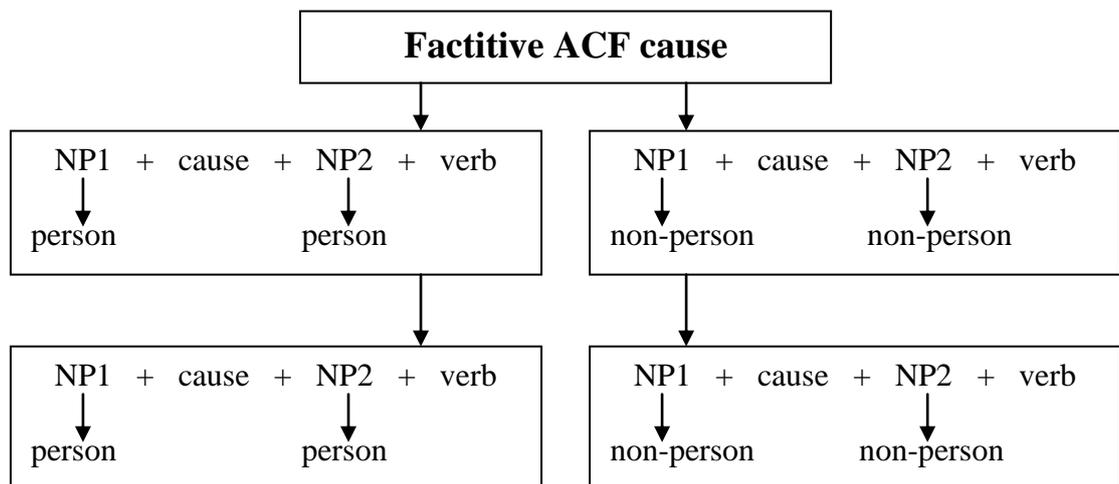
Analysis of the examples given above shows that ACF cause as ACF make, have, get expresses various shades of causation such as obligation (ex.1),

inducement (ex.2), inspiration (ex.3), giving the chance for doing something (ex.4), persuasion (ex.8); besides the existence of some reason makes NP2 pass onto another state (ex.6, 9). When using ACF cause in many cases NP2 expresses non-person which is a part of his/her body (ex.6). ACF cause in combination with the notional verb such as to look, to seem makes NP2 acquire some caused state, quality or air (ex.6).

Analysis of English literary texts shows that ACF cause is usually used when NP1 is a non-person and causation is direct: 1. Only instead of striking it head on, the car struck one end, causing it to give way [D., p. 173]. 2. ... the motion of the two bodies causes the boat to go over ... [D1, p. 153]. 3. ... his act ... causes the boat to careen to the very water's edge [D1, p. 604].

In the given above examples the participation of NP1 is maximal, where NP2 is completely subjected to the former's influence. So, ACF cause in combination with the notional verb is included in transitive causative distribution where causation is direct, in this case NP2 is always non-person.

The table demonstrating the character of NP1 and NP2 when causation is factitive:



2. Distribution of permissive AC

ACF let in combination with the notional verb expresses various shades of causation which are added to the lexical meaning of the verb; these shades of causation are defined on the position of the usage of let + object + verb where the lexical meaning of the notional verb does not change. These shades of causation

are permission, prohibition (in the negative form), giving chance, opportunity of doing something, not preventing somebody from doing something, assumption in doing something. ACF let in combination with the notional verb is observed to be used in the structure of indicative mood, subjunctive mood, in the interrogative sentences, in the form of the infinitive, gerund and participle, after modal verbs and their equivalents, after the verbs with modal meanings.

Analysis of the English literary texts shows that the usage of ACF let in combination with the notional verb is productive as it is used with the verbs expressing action, movement, peace, transference in space, process, state, being and existence, damage, destruction, activities of acoustic and visual organs, mental and physiological processes.

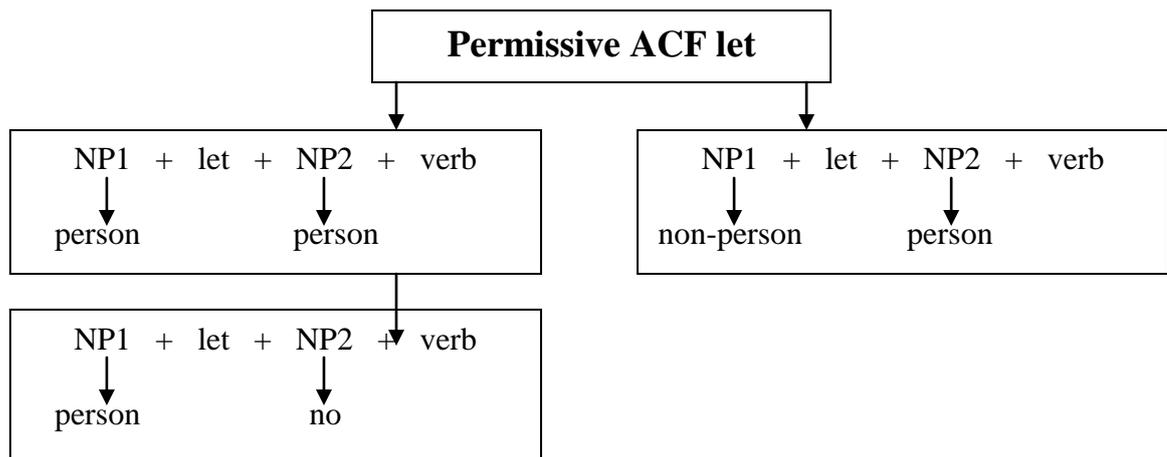
ACF let with the mentioned above verbs expresses both strong and weak degrees of causation.

Examples: 1. You don't deny that you let a lot of these fellows make love to you ... [D1, p. 98]. 2. It was work performed. And now you feed me, when then you let me starve, forbade me your house ... [L1, p. 378]. 3. ... she could not let him come into her room ... [D1, p. 202]. 4. And so, after all, the Padre had been thinking of letting him escape ... [V., p. 299]. 5. "Pretty good thing you died Briss, old man", Martin murmured, letting the magazine ship between his knees to the floor [L., p. 345]. 6. "If I were you", he said a little later, "I wouldn't let her stand in the door down there" [D2, p. 75]. 7. Farther I could not move her, for the bridge was too low to let me do more than crawl below it [St., p. 52]. 8. He took his lower lip between his teeth for a moment and then let it go [D2, p. 234]. 9. If you let the fear of anything drive you to do a really cruel or unjust or ungenerous thing you will regret it afterwards [V., p. 196]. 10. ...he could not and would not let it take hold of him ... [D1, p. 419]. 11. And we and the people who came about our house soon learned to let him be [St., p. 25]. 12. Martin stood aside and let them pass, fumbling unconsciously in his pocket for the tobacco and brown papers that were not there [L1, p. 341]. 13. Surely God's had loved him a little, and had let him die young [L1, p. 202]. 14. She was letting her few supports float away from her [D2,

p. 147]. 15. He must put the best face on it, and let it go at that [D2, p. 370]. 16. He put his hand into the first of the boxes and lifted the stacks, letting the separate parcels fall [D2, p. 294].

In the examples 1, 3, 6 strong shade of causation and in the examples 2, 4, 5, 7 weak shade of causation is expressed.

Table demonstrating the meaning of NP1 and NP2 with the ACF let



Analysis of the English literary texts shows that ACF let in combination with the mentioned above verbs in most cases is used when 1) NP1 and NP2 express person (ex. 1, 4, 11, 12), in less than the first case it is used when 2) NP2 expresses non-person, or abstract notion expressed by the pronoun it (ex.10) expressing the notions of fear, support, event, moment, situation (ex.5), it is seldom used when NP1 expresses non-person (ex.7). ACF let in combination with notional verb is not observed when NP1 and NP2 both express non-person.

2.1. a. ACF let differing from the factitive ACF in most cases is used when the initiator of the action or state is NP2, as here the will of performing the definite action or state is realized in NP2, in this case NP1 lets, prohibits (in negative forms) or only supports the will of NP2: 1) NP2's volition to the performance of the action or state is usually is on the eve or in the process of being performed by NP2 himself/herself/itself. In this case NP1 and NP2 express person (ex.1, 3, 6). 2) In some other cases NP1 is indifferent to the performance of the action or state. Indifference of NP1 occurs in the following ways: 1) volitive indifference (ex.2); 2) involitive indifference (ex.11, 12); 3) differing from the first and second cases

when NP1 and NP2 are persons the initiator of the caused action or state is NP1 (ex.4, 7, 13).

2.1. b. When NP2 is non-person expressed by the pronoun it, NP1 (person) shows his/her attitude to the volition of NP2, as caused action or state occurs in the process of performance.

NP1's attitude to the performance of caused action or state consists of being indifferent, of not prohibiting and of giving chance. In this case the verbs go, happen, drive, (about some thought), take hold (about some state), pass (about the event), slip (about the time), rest (about the situation), drift (about events).

Being used in combination with the mentioned above verbs ACF let is so productive and standard that causal meanings of permission and prohibition (in negative sentences) are paralleled to the causal affixal morphemes of the Uzbek language and degree of causation is very weak (ex.9, 10, 14, 15).

In the position when NP1 is person and NP2 is non-person the initiator of caused action or state is NP1, where the latter influences NP2 directly and NP2 is subjected to causation completely (ex.5, 16).

Analyzed examples show that differing from factitive causation where the initiator of causation is only NP1, in permissive CD with ACF let the initiator can be both NP1 and NP2 depended on the position of its usage. Similarity of the factitive and permissive ACF is that in both cases NP1 takes part in the realization of caused action or state by NP2. I.S. Yang says that permissiveness is the kind of causation, as in this case NP1 also takes part in the process of the action or state being performed [43, p. 68].

Analysis of the examples given above shows that ACF let in combination with the notional verb as cause and make can be included in true (ex.1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11) and transitive CD (ex.5, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16).

Permissive causation as factitive can be as direct (ex.6, 7, 8, 15, 16) and distant (ex.1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14).

Causation in transitive-permissive CD is only direct, as in this case NP2 is completely subjected to NP1's influence; causation in true-permissive CD NP1's

influence is distant which includes various shades of permissive causation. Degree of causation in true-permissive CD can be strong (ex.1, 3, 6) and weak (ex.2, 4, 13) when NP1 and NP2 are persons; degree of causation is intangible when NP2 is person and non-person (concrete and abstract things). Degree of causation in intransitive-permissive CD is only intangible

2.1. ACF have is also observed in permissive CD where in combination with the notional verb in the form of infinitive, participle I and participle II can express some shades of permissive causation (permission and prohibition in the negative form).

Examples: 17. – Well, I'll tell you, Waliace, have them leave the coat and hat just where they are [D1, p. 10]. 18. I can't have you breaking down in health [V., p. 7].

ACF have in permissive CD constantly expresses distant causation as it does in factitive CD.

3. Reflexivization in AC

In factitive and permissive AC in English as it is in Uzbek language NP2 can be expressed by reflexive pronoun or by a part of NP2's body. In this case NP2 is a part of NP1's body.

Reflexive causativization with the ACF let it is used very often.

Examples: 1... Don't shade it or try to make yourself look any better or any worse [D1, p. 244]. 2. Then he let himself go and sank without movement, a white statue into the sea [L1, p. 410]. 3. She let her fingers lie in his for a moment [V., p. 28]. 4. Only, such was the manner with which he carried himself always, that she scarcely dared to let himself think so [D1, p. 295]. 5. When his feet touched the sea, he let go (hands) [L1, p. 410].

Analysis of the examples given above shows that Martin intentionally released his fingers in order to let himself drawn (ex.5); She volitively rested her fingers in his ... (ex.3).

Without ACF let these shades of causation cannot be expressed. In the examples 2, 3, 5 causation is direct, in the examples 1, 4 causation is distant where NP1's influence is influential-remote.

Analysis of the examples from English novels shows that ACF let, make, cause are used both in factitive and transitive CD, that is in this case NP1 (the initiator) can take part in the realization of caused action or state partly or completely and NP2 can perform caused action (factitive CD) or pass onto caused state (can be subjected to caused state completely (transitive CD)).

In the mentioned above cases causation can be direct and influential-remote. The degree of causation can be strong, weak and intangible depended on the position of the usage. The position of the usage is depended on the character of NP1's influence on NP2's volition, so it is depended on the volitive or involitive attitude of NP2 to NP1's influence.

All these characteristic features mentioned above concerning the English ACF are observed in agglutinative expression of causation in the Uzbek language.

Analyzed ACF in combination with the verbs of various lexico-semantic groups do not change the latter's lexical meaning. Notional verbs in combination with ACF only acquire additional shades of causation.

AC which is expressed by the combination of ACF and notional verb in English is paralleled to the causative affixal morphemes in the Uzbek language and performs all shades of causation expressed by the agglutinative causativization.

Analysis of the examples selected from the Uzbek and English literature shows that the meaning of causation in the Uzbek language is expressed by the addition of one of special affixal morphemes to the root or the stem of the verb by agglutination in Uzbek, where non-causative verb is opposed to the causative with the same lexical meaning and by the combination of ACF with the notional verb in English, where the latter acquires some shade of causation, also being able to be opposed to the non-causative form with the same lexical meaning. Selected examples from Uzbek and English literature show that the linguistic phenomenon is productive in both compared languages. Causal meanings of ACF let, make,

cause are so alloyed with the notional verbs and their combination with the latter is so standard and productive that it gives a chance of considering the existence of the grammatical category of causation in the structure of the English language too.

Auxiliary verbs let, make, cause can be considered as morphological causative markers, as these verbs add only various shades of causation to the notional verbs they are combined with. These auxiliary verbs differ from the link verbs such as to be which is used in the structure of the compound nominal predicate: I am a teacher; The wall is white.; these auxiliary verbs differ from their lexical and grammatical homonyms in the sentences like That makes it five hundred and fifty-five; I had my bicycle stolen; He makes a good husband; I have just written the letter.

Consequently auxiliary verbs let, make, cause can be dealt as morphological ACF which in combination with notional verbs form the special category of causation in the structure of the English language. Mentioned auxiliary verbs in combination with notional verbs have lost their lexico-semantic meaning. Verbs of various lexico-semantic groups in combination with these auxiliary verbs can acquire additional shades of causation.

Some linguists do not include let in the list of AF on the ground that it can preserve its lexical meaning in combination with the notional verb. It is reasonable to note that auxiliary verbs in the language can be used in the function of notional verbs: I am in Tashkent now. Last year I was in Tashkent. I have a large family. This interpretation proves existence of grammatical homonyms in the structure of the language. The strict demand of losing the lexical meaning of the auxiliary verbs in the function of AF cannot be used even concerning the synthetic form, for example in Russian instrumental case is expressed by the affixal morpheme -ом in the example “Я лечу пером” “I am flying as an arrow”. In this sentence affixal morpheme of instrumental case expresses the manner of the action; in the example “Я пишу пером” “I am writing in pen” affixal morpheme -ом expresses the meaning of the instrumental case and this affixal morpheme can be transformed by the word combination “при помощи” “with the help of”; in the example “Я

смотрю телевизор вечером” “I watch TV in the evening” affixal morpheme -om expresses the meaning of the time: “утром” “in the morning”, “вечером” “in the evening”.

Distinctions. In the structure of the Uzbek language there exists the grammatical category of causation expressed by the addition of one of causative affixal morphemes to the root or the stem of transitive and intransitive verbs where non-causative form is opposed to causative one having the same lexical meaning which is existed in the former and the latter acquiring some shade of causation. Affixal morphemes of causation are added to the notional verb by means of agglutination where the sound structure and the lexical meaning of the verb do not change. This way of expressing causation is productive in the Uzbek language.

In English differing from the Uzbek language there is not a special way of expressing causation. Causation is expressed by means of the auxiliary verbs let, make, cause, get, have with the notional verb. Auxiliary verbs let, make, cause, get, have in combination with the notional verbs lose their lexical meaning at some extent that they can be paralleled to the Uzbek morphological causative affixal morphemes functionally and can be considered as ACF. They can be considered as ACF, because their lexical meaning is grammaticalized, that is they acquire abstract causal meaning which is concretized depended on the position of their usage as it is in the Uzbek language.

Similarities. 1) In both compared languages causal shades of meaning are defined depended on the position of the usage; 2) Causal affixal morphemes in Uzbek can be added to any notional verb (transitive/intransitive); ACF in English can be combined with any notional verb of various lexico-semantic groups (both transitive/intransitive); 3) These ways of expressing the meaning of causation in the Uzbek and English languages are classified into factitive-causative, transitive-causative and reflexive-causative distributions depended on the direct and influential-remote (distant) influence of NP1 on the will of NP2; 4) In both compared languages NP1 takes part in the realization of caused action or state partly (factitive causation) or completely (transitive causation). In transitive

causation NP2 is completely subjected to NP1's direct or influential-remote (distant) influence; 5) Both Uzbek agglutinative and English ACF express strong, weak and intangible shades of causation depended on NP1's influence.

Concluding the research, we can say that in the Uzbek and English languages there exists the grammatical category of causation productivity of which is proved by selected examples from the Uzbek and English novels. At the same time it is reasonable to mark that transformational method based on the binary opposition of non-causative/causative forms and a single linguistic terminology used in the process of the definition of the ways of expressing the meaning of causation of true and pseudo-causative forms have shown successful results. In the article it is demonstrated by the proposed classification of CD which is single both in terminology and content.

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