



UNIVERSITÀ
DEGLI STUDI
DI PADOVA

Università degli Studi di Padova

Dipartimento di Studi Linguistici e Letterari

Corso di Laurea Magistrale in
Lingue e Letterature Europee e Americane
Classe LM-37

Tesi di Laurea

A Comparative Study of Wh-Items in Kazakh and English: Structures, Usage, and Differences

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Anno Accademico 2023 / 2024

Abstract

This thesis explores the syntactic and morphological characteristics of wh-items in Kazakh and English languages. The study aims to comprehensively analyze the structures, usage, and differences between these two languages, focusing particularly on interrogative items.

The research begins with an introduction to Kazakh language, detailing its general properties, including word structure, conjugation, declension, possessive forms, word order, emphasis, focus, and sentence types. It also delves into the peculiarities of Kazakh grammar, such as its extensive agglutination, null-subject properties, and the use of auxiliary verbs and converbs.

The core of the study examines the structure of interrogative sentences in Kazakh, analyzing the morphology of interrogative pronouns and the positions of wh-items within these sentences. It also explores various constructions involving wh-items. This foundational understanding of Kazakh is juxtaposed with an analysis of wh-item utilization in English, highlighting key contrasts such as wh-movement, do-support, case declension, pro-drop language features, relative clauses, and exclamative clauses.

Through comparative analysis, the research identifies significant differences in utilizing wh-items between Kazakh and English. It is observed that while English heavily relies on syntactic movement and auxiliary support for question formation, Kazakh demonstrates a more flexible word order influenced by emphasis and focus.

The methodology includes a detailed linguistic analysis of both languages' grammar rules and sentence structures, supported by examples from native speakers and linguistic corpora.

The findings of this study contribute to the broader understanding of language typology and syntactic theory, offering insights into the unique features of Kazakh and English.

The implications of this research extend to language teaching, translation studies, and further comparative linguistic research.

In conclusion, this thesis highlights the complex nature of wh-items in both Kazakh and English, showcasing the different linguistic methods each language uses to accomplish similar communicative goals.

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Introduction

Language profoundly shapes our understanding of the world, and exploring how different languages handle fundamental elements like wh-items—such as "who," "what," "where," and "why"—reveals much about their structure and use. This thesis examines wh-items in English and Kazakh, comparing their syntactic and semantic functions. Our goal is to enhance understanding for learners of both languages and provide insights that could aid in more effective language teaching and learning.

Despite extensive studies on wh-items in various languages, a comparative analysis of these elements in English and Kazakh remains underexplored. Existing research often focuses on individual languages or broader typological comparisons, leaving a gap in understanding the specific syntactic and semantic nuances of wh-items in these two distinct linguistic systems. This thesis addresses this gap by offering a detailed examination of how wh-items function in both English and Kazakh, aiming to provide valuable insights for both theoretical linguistics and practical language learning.

The primary objectives of this thesis are:

- To explore and elucidate the general properties of Kazakh language, focusing on key aspects such as word order, conjugation, declension, and case system.
- To analyze the structural and functional aspects of Kazakh wh-items. To investigate how wh-items are utilized within Kazakh interrogative sentences and other constructions, examining their syntactic positions, morphological forms, and overall functions.
- To identify and analyze the contrasts and similarities in wh-item usage between Kazakh and English, focusing on aspects such as wh-movement, do-support, case declension, and the treatment of relative and exclamative clauses.

This research is important because it enhances language learning by helping learners of Kazakh and English understand and use wh-items more effectively. It improves teaching by providing insights to refine methods and materials. Additionally, it expands cross-linguistic understanding by highlighting the differences and similarities in wh-item usage

between the two languages, contributing to theoretical knowledge in syntax and semantics.

The structure of the thesis consists of 4 chapters. Chapter 1 offers general information about Kazakh language, including its historical background, linguistic classification, and language family. Chapter 2 delves into the general properties of Kazakh language, covering aspects such as case system, conjugation, declension, the possessive form, word order, and other elements including adverbs, complex sentences, and postpositions. Chapter 3 focuses on interrogative sentences, detailing their structure, the morphology of interrogative pronouns, the positions of wh-items, and other constructions involving wh-items. Chapter 4 contrasts the utilization of wh-items between Kazakh and English, examining wh-movement, do-support, case declension, pro-drop language, and relative and exclamative clauses in both languages.

Chapter 1 – General information about Kazakh language

Kazakh language, spoken by Kazakhs, is one of the Turkic languages. Kazakh language belongs to the Kypchak-Nogai subgroup of the Kypchak language group of the Turkic language family within the Altaic language macrofamily. It is most closely related to the Karakalpak, Nogai, and Karagas languages (Baskakov 1952, 121-134). It is the official language of the Republic of Kazakhstan and is also widely spoken among ethnic Kazakhs in Russia, Uzbekistan, and other former Soviet countries. According to the 2021 census in Kazakhstan, approximately 13,443,899 Kazakhs, accounting for around 99,6 % of the country's population, are proficient in Kazakh language (stat.gov.kz 2022). Additionally, Kazakhs outside the former USSR, such as those in China's Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region and western Mongolia, also use Kazakh. Its presence is less significant in Afghanistan, Iran, and Turkey.

Kazakh language evolved over the course of the 14th to 17th centuries under the influence of Turkic tribes inhabiting the territory of modern Kazakhstan during the dissolution of the Golden Horde (Baskakov 1952, 121-134).

As Kazakh vernacular language evolved, it absorbed influences from various sources, including Turkic languages and others. Its definitive shaping is often attributed to the 15th century, a period marked by the emergence of distinct Turkic ethnic groups forming separate tribal unions. This era not only witnessed the formation of Kazakh but also the Karakalpak and Uzbek languages. The development of Kazakh is intimately intertwined with the histories of entities such as the Polovtsian tribal union, the Golden Horde, and the Great Nogai Horde. Furthermore, the language was enriched by interactions with diverse territorial entities and tribal unions in Central Asia, which introduced elements from Iranian languages (Tolstov 1962, 125).

During the 15th century, Kazakh language served as the main means of verbal communication and oral poetic expression, while a Central Asian variant of the Turkic literary language was employed in written communication. From the 16th to the mid-19th century, the written form was known as an Old Kazakh literary language, which evolved

from Turkic literary traditions and incorporated elements from everyday speech. It was used in official documentation, correspondence, and both artistic and historical literature. The modern literary language began to take shape in the latter half of the 19th century, with influential figures like Abai Qunanbaiuly and Ybyrai Altynsarin contributing to its development (Kaidarov 1997, 242-254).

Prolonged interactions with both kindred Turkic languages (like Kyrgyz, Uzbek, etc.) and non-Turkic languages (such as Russian, Mongolian, Arabic, Iranian, Chinese, etc.) have had a limited influence on Kazakh language. This influence is mainly observable in the vocabulary and meanings, with minor effects on pronunciation, word structure, and sentence construction. New sounds, word formations, and affixes have been assimilated from Arabic, Persian, and Russian languages (Kaidarov 1997, 242-254).

It finally separated from other languages of the Kypchak-Nogai subgroup in the mid-17th century (Tenishev 2002, 767).

Chapter 2 – General properties of Kazakh language

2.1 Structure of words

Kazakh words can either be simple or compound. Compound words are made up of two or more roots, conveying a single concept. For instance, қолғанат (kolghanat) (kol (hand) + kanat (wing)) means “helper”, and шекара (shekara) (shek (limit) + ара (distance)) means “border”. Simple derived words are created by adding various affixes to the root. In Kazakh, new words and word forms are formed by attaching different affixes and endings (kosymsha) to the root. Examples include кел-ген-дер-і-міз-ге (kel-gen-der-i-miz-ge), which means “to those of us who came”, and біл-е-тін-дер-і-міз-ден (bil-e-tin-der-i-miz-den), meaning "from those of us who knew (were aware)" (Bizakov 2012, 265).

The term “kosymsha” (addition) refers to a part of the word that follows the root. It is divided into two categories: suffix and ending. A “suffix” is an element that forms and modifies words, always added after the root but before any endings. An "ending", which connects words, is added at the end of the word.

An “ending” is an affix that links words together, showing the relationships between them and adding grammatical meaning. Endings attach to words by matching the phonetic characteristics of the word's final syllable, such as vowel harmony or the voicing of the last consonant. This alignment ensures that the ending fits naturally with the sound of the word it follows.

Kazakh contains four types of endings used to connect words within a sentence:

Plural endings	Possessive endings	Case endings	Personal endings
bala-lar (children) ini-ler (younger brothers)	Singular: I. bala-m (my child)	Nominative: ozen (river) Genitive: ozen-nin (river’s)	dos-pyn (I am a friend) dos-syn (you are a friend)

auy-l-dar (villages)	II. bala-n (your child)	Dative: ozen-ge (to the river)	dos-syz (you are a friend)
ozen-der (rivers)	bala-nyz (your child)	Accusative: ozen-di (river)	(ol) dos (he/she/it is a friend)
dos-tar (friends)	III. bala-sy (his/her/its child)	Locative: ozen-de (in the river)	dos-pyz (we are friends)
zhigit-ter (guys)	Plural: I. bala-myz (our child)	Ablative: ozen-nen (from the river)	dos-syndar (you are friends)
	II. bala-laryn (your child)	Instrumental: ozen-men (with the river)	dos-syzdar (you are friends)
	bala-larynyz (your child)		(olar) dos (they are friends)
	III. bala-sy (their child)		

Endings can follow one another. In such cases, first come plural endings, then possessive endings, case and personal endings are added at the end of the word: okushy-lar-ymyz-ga (to our students), bala-lar-ymyz (our children) (Sozdik-Slovar 2005).

The language features a wide variety of affixes that, when added to a root, form new words and various word forms. Many of these derived words are translated into English in a descriptive manner. For example, from the word bazar (market), several derived words are formed: bazar+lyk means a souvenir from the market; bazar+syz indicates a place without a market; bazar+syz+dyk signifies the absence of a market; bazar+shy describes someone going to or returning from the market; bazar+dai means like a market; and bazar+lau means to go to the market (Bizakov 2012, 265-266).

2.2 Conjugation

In Kazakh, unlike English, nouns and pronouns used as predicates undergo conjugation. When conjugating a verb in the present tense, transitive gerunds ending in -a (a), -e (e), -й (-i) take personal endings. The suffixes -a (a), -e (e) is added to the base with a consonant sound at the end, while the suffix -й (-i) is added to the base with a vowel sound at the end. For example:

Singular	Plural
(Men) bil+e+min (I know)	(Biz) bil+e+miz (We know)
(Sen) bil+e+sin (You know)	(Sender) bil+e+sinder (You know)
(Siz) bil+e+siz (You know)	(Sizder) bil+e+sizder (You know)
Ol bil+e+di (He/she/it knows)	Olar bil+e+di (They know)

Negative form:

Singular	Plural
(Men) bil+me+i+min (I don't know)	(Biz) bil+me+i+miz (We don't know)
(Sen) bil+me+i+sin (You don't know)	(Sender) bil+me+i+sinder (You don't know)
(Siz) bil+me+i+siz (You don't know)	(Sizder) bil+me+i+sizder (You don't know)
Ol bil+me+i+di (He/she/it doesn't know)	Olar bil+me+i+di (They don't know)

When conjugating a verb in the past tense, personal endings are added to the verb after suffixes like -dy, -di, -ty, -ti. For example:

Positive form:

Singular	Plural
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(Men) bil+di+m (I knew)	(Biz) bil+di+k (We knew)
(Sen) bil+di+n (You knew)	(Sender) bil+di+n+der (You knew)
(Siz) bil+di+niz (You knew)	(Sizder) bil+di+niz+der (You knew)
Ol bil+di (He/she/it knew)	Olar bil+di (They knew)

Negative form:

Singular	Plural
(Men) bil+me+di+m (I didn't know)	(Biz) bil+me+di+k (We didn't know)
(Sen) bil+me+di+n (You didn't know)	(Sender) bil+me+di+n+der (You didn't know)
(Siz) bil+me+di+niz (You didn't know)	(Sizder) bil+me+di+niz+der (You didn't know)
Ol bil+me+di (He/she/it didn't know)	Olar bil+me+di (They didn't know)

2.3 Declension

Declension refers to how word forms change using case endings to connect words in a sentence. Nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, adverbs, and certain types of verbs and conjunctions are subject to declension rules in Kazakh. The concept of declension is represented by seven cases, each indicating different meanings through specific case questions.

In Kazakh language, there are seven types of cases:

1. Nominative
2. Genitive
3. Dative
4. Accusative
5. Locative
6. Ablative
7. Instrumental

Cases	Case endings
Nominative	
Genitive	-nyn, -nin, -dyn, -din, -tyn, -tin
Dative	-ga, -ge, ka, -ke
Accusative	-ny, -ni, -dy, -di, -ty, -ti
Locative	-da, -de, -ta, -te
Ablative	-nan, -nen, -tan, -ten, -dan, -den
Instrumental	-men, -ben, -pen

It is noteworthy that the accusative case occasionally retains its nominative form without the usual endings. This usually happens when the direct object is placed immediately before the predicate. For instance:

() Құрылысшылар үй салды.

Kurylys-shy-lar ui sal-dy.

Builders house built.

Builders built a house.

() Үйді құрылысшылар салды.

Ui-di kurylys-shy-lar sal-dy.

House builders built.

The builders built the house.

In the first sentence, the accusative case remains unchanged and retains its nominative form.

In sentences, words in the ablative case can be paired with postpositions such as “son” (after), “keiin” (after), “baska” (besides, except), “ozge” (beyond, besides). Examples include “zhumystan son” (after work), “tusten keiin” (after lunch), “budan baska” (besides this), and “teatrdan ozge” (besides the theater).

2.4 The possessive form

The possessive form is created by adding suffixes like “-niki, -diki, -tiki” to nominal stems, indicating ownership. The suffix “-niki” is added after final vowels; “-diki” after final voiced and sonorant consonants; “-tiki” after final voiceless consonants. These suffixes are applied universally to both soft and hard stems. For instance:

() Үй инімдікі.

Ui ini-m-diki.

House of my younger brother.

The house belongs to my younger brother.

() Үй сенікі.

Ui se-niki.

House yours.

The house is yours.

() Жер мемлекеттікі.

Zher memleket-tiki.

Land of the state.

The land belongs to the state.

The word “emes” (not) when combined with the possessive form signifies negation and it is used after the related word:

() Үй инімдікі емес.

Ui ini-mdiki emes.
 House of my younger brother not.
 The house doesn't belong to my brother.

() Қалам сіздікі емес.
 Kalam siz-diki emes, me-niki.
 Pen yours (formal) not, mine.
 The pen is not yours, it's mine.

By meaning, the possessive form corresponds to the genitive case:

Genitive case	Possessive form
(Me-nin) kitab-ym (My book)	Kitap me-niki (The book is mine)
(Se-nin) kitab-yn (Your book)	Kitap se-niki (The book is yours)
(Onyn) kitab-y (His/her/its book)	Kitap o-niki (The book is his/hers/its)

Words in the possessive form vary by case. For example:

Cases	Examples
Nominative	mysyktiki (belongs to the cat)
Genitive	mysyktiki-nin (of what belongs to the cat)
Dative	mysyktiki-ne (to what belongs to the cat)
Accusative	mysyktiki-n (belongs to the cat)
Locative	mysyktiki-nde (where what belongs to the cat)

Ablative	mysyktiki-nen (from what belongs to the cat)
Instrumental	mysyktiki-men (with what belongs to the cat)

However, the possessive form and the genitive case in Kazakh language have distinct grammatical and functional characteristics. The possessive form acts as a derivative adjective and serves as a predicate in a sentence, whereas the form of ownership (genitive case) is a noun that always functions as the subject in the nominative case. Adjectives ending in -niki, formed from pronouns and nouns, express ownership without specifying the object possessed: seniki (yours), akemdiki (my father's) (Bizakov 2012, 279-280).

2.5 Word order

In Kazakh language the word order in a sentence is relatively fixed rather than free. It generally follows a Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) pattern, similar to many other Turkic languages.

() Мен кітап оқимын.

Men kitap oqi-myn.

I book read-1PS-Present Tense.

I read a book.

The subject mostly stands at the beginning of the sentence and usually precedes the predicate. A noun, pronoun, numeral, and adjective can express the subject.

() Мен дүкенге бардым.

Men dukenge bardym.

I to shop went.

I went to the shop.

The predicate always stands at the end of the sentence. A verb and a noun, numeral, adjective, and pronoun can express the predicate.

() Ол жиі-жиі басқа қалаларға барады.

Ol zhiy-zhiy baska kalalarga barady.

He/she often often other to cities goes

He often goes to other cities.

The complement is positioned in the middle of the sentence, after the subject and before the verb. Complement can be in all cases except nominative and genitive.

() Мен кітапты кітапханадан алдым.

Men kitap-ty kitapkhanadan aldym.

I book-ACC from library took

I took the book from the library.

The adverbial modifier is positioned in the middle, after the subject before the verb, or at the beginning of the sentence. Particularly, adverbs of time are often placed at the beginning of the sentence.

() Оқушылар жаңа сөздерді тақтаға жазады.

Okushylar zhana sozder-di taktaga zhazady

Students new words-ACC on board write

Students write new words on the board.

() Қыста күн суық болады.

Kysta kun suyk bolady

In winter day cold is

It is cold in winter.

The attributive modifier always stands before the modified word.

() Үстелде қоңыр қарындаш жатыр.

Ustelde konyr karyndash zhatyr

On table brown pencil is laying

There is a brown pencil on the table.

() Джонның кітабы анда жатыр.

Dzhonnyn kitaby anda zhatyr

John's book there is laying

John's book is there.

In Kazakh language, however, this word order can be altered for emphasis, focus, or stylistic reasons. While the default word order is typically Subject-Object-Verb (SOV), speakers may rearrange the order of words in a sentence to highlight certain elements or convey specific nuances. This flexibility in word order allows for greater expressiveness and variation in communication.

2.6 Emphasis

In Kazakh language, emphasis can be achieved by placing the emphasized word or phrase in a prominent position within the sentence. This may involve moving the emphasized element to the beginning or end of the sentence or using intonation and stress while speaking to draw attention to it. By altering word order or emphasizing certain words, speakers can effectively convey emphasis and highlight key points in their communication.

() Джонды көрдім мен кеше үйге бара жатырғанымда.

Dzhon-dy kordim men keshe uige bara zhatyrganymda

John-ACC saw I yesterday to home while going

John I saw yesterday when I was going home.

2.7 Focus

In Kazakh, focusing on a particular element can be achieved through various means, including word order, intonation, and sentence structure. For instance, in terms of word order, the focused element may be placed at the beginning or end of the sentence for emphasis. Alternatively, intonation patterns or stress can be used while speaking to emphasize the focused element.

() Торт жеді ол кеше үйде.

Tort zhedi ol keshe uide.

Cake ate he yesterday at home

The cake he ate yesterday at home.

2.8 Other reasons for word order change

In addition to its structural functions, the flexible nature of word order in Kazakh serves various stylistic purposes. By strategically arranging words, speakers and writers can achieve poetic effects, evoke emotions, and adjust the formality of their language. This linguistic adaptability allows for the creation of different narrative styles, where stories can be crafted to engage the audience effectively. Moreover, word order variation aids in expressing contrasts and emphasizing key ideas, empowering speakers to convey their message with depth and individuality. Thus, the manipulation of word order in Kazakh contributes to the language's expressive richness and versatility.

() Қолымды менің ұсташы сен.

Kolym-dy menin ustashy sen

My hand-ACC my please hold you

Please hold my hand.

2.9 Adverbs

Adverbs in Kazakh describe various characteristics and conditions of actions (verbs) such as manner, place, time, condition, and degree, as well as the properties of adjectives. These characteristics can also be expressed using other noun forms and verb forms (e.g., gerunds) that serve as adverbial modifiers. However, noun forms and verb forms that only occasionally function as adverbial modifiers retain their original properties. Therefore, not all words used as adverbial modifiers are necessarily adverbs. For instance, in the sentences () and (), the adverbial modifier in the first sentence is "uide" (in the house), while in the second sentence it is "osynda" (here). There is a notable difference between these two adverbial modifiers: the noun "uide" in the locative case clearly indicates the subject's location, whereas the adverb "osynda" indicates the subject's location more generally. Moreover, the noun "ui" becomes an adverbial modifier only in the locative case, while "osynda" is an adverb with the suffix "-nda" being an integral part of it, thus it has become fixed in its adverbial use.

() Ол осы үйде тұрады.

Ol osy ui-de turady

He this house-LOC lives

He lives in this house.

() Мен мынау ауылдан пана таптым, енді орным осында.

Men mynau auyl-dan pana taptym, endi ornym osynda

I this village-ABL shelter found, now my place here

I found shelter in this village, now my place is here.

Similarly, in the sentences () and (), the word "birge" (to one) in the first sentence is used in its literal sense as an object while in the second sentence, "birge" (together) has shifted from its original meaning to an adverbial meaning, indicating the manner of an action. Thus, in the first sentence, "birge" is a numeral in the dative case, whereas in the second sentence, it is an adverb.

() Бірге бірді қосса, екі болады.

Birge bir-di kossa, eki bolady

To one one-ACC if to add, two will be

One plus one equals two.

() Бірге болғанмен, жақынға жақынның қасиеті бірден танылмайды.

Birge bolganmen, zhakynga zhakynnyn kasieti birden tanylmaidy

Together although have been to a close one close one's quality immediately not apparent

Although they have been together, the quality of a close one is not immediately apparent.

Words that have separated from their original categories (such as nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns) to express various conditions of actions become adverbs. Words like "birge" (together), "birde" (sometimes), "birden" (immediately), "kenetten" (suddenly), "keide" (sometimes), "shalkasyнан" (on one's back), "zorga" (barely), "zhakka" (towards), "boska" (in vain), "kapyda" (accidentally), "abaisyza" (inadvertently), "alga" (forward), "artka" (backward), "alda" (ahead), "artta" (behind), "munda" (here), "sonda" (there), "osynda" (here) have all become adverbs through the process of conventionalization.

In Kazakh, many words have fully transitioned into adverbs through this conventionalization process, or have developed dual meanings, thus functioning both as adverbs and retaining their original lexical categories (such as nouns). These words frequently appear in the locative, ablative, dative, and instrumental cases. Just as there are adverbs that have evolved from nouns, there are also adverbs that have evolved from verb forms. Adverbs derived from verb forms often resemble gerund forms. However, not all words in the gerund form are adverbs. For example, in the sentence (), "soilei" (to speak, by speaking) is not an adverb, but a gerund. Gerunds like "soilei" and "soilep" can take personal endings directly and function as independent predicates in sentences (e.g., "soileimin" - I speak, "soiledin" - you spoke) or as part of compound predicates (e.g., "soilep turmyn" - I am speaking). Gerunds possess the tense and other properties typical of verbs. Therefore, such gerunds are not adverbs but true verb forms.

() Ол өзінен-өзі сөйлей бастады.

Ol ozinen-ozı soilei bastady

He by himself to speak started

He began to speak by himself.

In contrast, words like "azdap" (a little), "az-azdap" (little by little) do not exhibit the properties of gerunds like "soilei" and "soilep". Words like "azdap" and "az-azdap" do not take personal endings directly; they do not function as predicates in simple or compound sentences and lack the tense and other properties typical of verbs. These words serve solely as adverbial modifiers and convey meanings like "a little", "little by little". Additionally, the negative suffixes "-ma, -me, -pa, -pe, -ba, -be" that are attached to verbs do not apply to these words. Thus, words like "azdap" and "az-azdap" are similar to gerunds only in form but differ in function. Such gerund-like adverbs are considered adverbs of verbal origin.

Adverbs of verbal origin are not only different in meaning but also in function from gerunds. For example, the adverbial forms "kaita" (again), "kaitara" (again), "ainala" (around) can form new adverbs like "kaitadan" (again). Sometimes they are also inflected forms like "ainalan" (around you), "ainalasy" (around it).

The method of forming adverbs through the repetition of gerund forms or the pairing of synonymous (similar in meaning) gerunds is a particularly fertile way of creating adverbs.

() Адам көре-көре көсем болады.

Adam kore-kore kosem bolady

Person by observing leader will become

A person becomes a leader by observing.

Thus, adverbs are words that do not morphologically change (or rarely change), have established themselves as a separate lexical-semantic group, and function as adverbial modifiers in sentences.

Adverbs in Kazakh language can be divided into two categories based on their morphological structure and composition: 1) primary adverbs and 2) derived adverbs.

Primary adverbs are words that cannot currently be broken down into smaller morphemes and exist in a specific form. Examples of primary adverbs include: әрең (barely), азар (barely), әдейі (intentionally), жорта (deliberately), қасақана (on purpose), үдайы (constantly), үнемі (always), дереу (immediately), шапшаң (quickly), бағана (a while ago), қазір (now), енді (now), ілгері (forward), жоғарғы (upwards), төмен (downwards), әрі (further), бері (towards), кері (backwards), әрмен (further), бермен (towards), ерте (early), кеш (late), нақ (exactly), дәл (exactly), нағыз (truly), сәл (a little), әнтек (slightly), тек (only), мейлінше (as much as possible), (ақ), қысқаша (exactly), дәйім (always), һаман (always), үнемі (constantly), тым (too), тіпті (even), өте (very), аса (very), ең (most), әбден (completely), мүлде (completely), тәтенше (extremely), ерекше (especially), орасан (immense), and others.

Although these primary adverbs are currently indivisible, they can be internally divided into two groups. The first group includes root words like әуелі (first), қазір (now), мүлде (completely), орасан (immensely), ерен (enormously), кілең (entirely). The second group includes adverbs that can be proven to have originated from other words through scientific comparison. For instance, adverbs like ішкері (inside), сыртқары (outside), тысқары (outside) are derived from the roots іш (inside), сырт (outside), тыс (outside) and the suffixes -kary, -keri.

Derived adverbs can be formed from primary adverbs through suffixes, conjunction, or combination with other words. Examples include: әрен-әрен (barely), азар-азар (barely), әдейілеп (deliberately), ари-бері (back and forth), бұрынды-сонды (earlier-later), ілгері-кейін (forward-backward), жоғары-төменді (up-down), енді-енді (now-now), кейіннен (afterwards), ендігәрі (no more).

Derived adverbs are those formed from other parts of speech through various suffixes, merging or pairing of words, or the stabilization of certain phrases. Structurally, derived

adverbs can be divided into two groups: simple derived adverbs and compound derived adverbs.

Simple derived adverbs are formed through various suffixes and remain a single word in form. The suffixes that create these adverbs are two types: some are derived from affixes, while others come from the fossilization of different inflections. Examples are affix-derived simple adverbs. The suffixes “-sha, -she” are primary and highly productive suffixes that create adverbs indicating the manner of an action. It can be added to both proper and common nouns, singular and plural forms, and possessive forms. Examples: kussha (like a bird), adamsha (like a person), batyrsha (like a hero), zhanasha (in the new way), baskasha (in another way), kyskasha (briefly), meninshe (according to my opinion), seninshe (according to your opinion).

The suffixes -lai, -lei (-dai, -dei, -tai, -tei) are another productive suffixes. Examples: osylai (this way), ekinshilei (in a second way), zhastai (from youth), kuzdei (like autumn), kystai (like winter).

The suffixes -shalyk, -shama create adverbs from demonstrative pronouns. Examples: osynshalyk (so much), osynshama (this much), sonshama (so much), sonshalyk (so much), munsha (this much), munshalyk (this much).

Adverb Categories and Their Meanings

Adverbs can be classified into eight groups based on their meanings:

1. Adverbs of Time
2. Adverbs of Place
3. Adverbs of Measure
4. Adverbs of Manner
5. Intensifying Adverbs
6. Adverbs of Purpose
7. Adverbs of Cause and Effect
8. Grouping Adverbs

Adverbs of time answer questions like "when?" and "since when?" and indicate the timing, period, or duration of an action. They are typically used with verbs. Examples include: bugin (today), byltyr (last year), erten (tomorrow), tanerten (in the morning), keshke (in the evening), kazir (now), endi (now), ali (still), endigari (never again), buryn (before), etc.

Adverbs of place specify the location or direction of an action and answer questions like "where?", "from where?", and "where to?". Examples include: ilgeri (forward), ilgeride (ahead), ari (further), aride (beyond), armen (further), keri (back), zhogary (up), tomen (down), etc.

Adverbs of manner describe how an action is performed, answering questions such as "how?" and "in what way?". Examples include: osylai (like this), olai-bulai (this way and that way), birden (immediately), birge (together), birte-birte (gradually), etc.

Adverbs of measure answer questions like "to what extent?", "how much?", and "how many?", indicating the degree, size, or extent of an action. Examples include: onda (there), sonsha (so much), osynsha (this much), munshama (this much), koptegen (many), birtalai (a lot), etc.

Intensifying adverbs either enhance or diminish the intensity or quality of an action. They answer the question "how?". Examples include: en (most), abden (completely), ylgi (always), kilen (only), sal (slightly), tipti (even), tym (too), nak (exactly), dal (exactly), ote (very), etc.

Adverbs of purpose explain the goal of an action and answer the question "for what purpose?". Examples include adeii (deliberately), adeiilep (on purpose), kaskana (intentionally). Additionally, purpose adverbs can be formed analytically, such as "kitapka bola" (for the sake of the book), "okuga bola" (for the sake of study), etc.

Adverbs of cause and effect indicate the reason for an action and answer questions like "why?" and "for what reason?". Examples include: boska (in vain), kur boska (utterly in

vain), bekerge (in vain), amalsyzdan (out of necessity), sharasyzdan (helplessly). Additionally, causal adverbs can be formed through repetition, such as "soilei-soilei" (by talking and talking), "kore-kore" (by seeing and seeing), "oki-oki" (by reading and reading), etc.

Grouping (or distributive) adverbs indicate actions or relationships that are either grouped together or individually carried out. Examples include: ekeulep (in pairs), usheulep (in threes), on-ondap (in tens), bir-birden (one by one), az-azdan (little by little), ret-retimen (in order), ten-tenimen (in pairs), etc.

Thus, among the adverbs, the largest groups are the qualitative adverbs, followed by temporal, quantitative, locative, and intensive adverbs. Purpose and causal adverbs are comparatively fewer in number.

To investigate the hierarchical arrangement of adverbs in Kazakh language, I adapted Cinque's universal hierarchy of adverbs to the syntactic structure of Kazakh. By doing so, I aimed to identify how Kazakh adverbs align with or diverge from the universal sequence proposed by Cinque, thereby gaining insights into the syntactic organization of adverbial modifiers in Kazakh.

In examining the syntactic structure of Kazakh adverbs, aligning them with Cinque's universal hierarchy provides valuable insights. Kazakh adverbs of measure and intensifying adverbs align with Cinque's degree adverbs, emphasizing intensity and scope. Adverbs of manner directly match Cinque's manner adverbs, situated close to the verb.

Purpose and cause and effect adverbs correspond to causal and intentional adverbs, appearing higher in the hierarchy. Grouping adverbs could be linked to manner or frequency adverbs, depending on their specific function.

This alignment suggests that Kazakh adverbial syntax generally adheres to Cinque's universal model, while also highlighting potential areas of language-specific variation.

To illustrate the hierarchy of adverbs, I will provide examples that demonstrate their syntactic positions and functional roles.

1. Speech-Act + Evaluative + Manner

() Шынын айтқанда, ол, бақытқа орай, мәселені тез шеше алды.

Shyn-yn aitkanda, ol, bakytka orai, masele-ni tez sheshe aldy

Frankly, she, fortunately, issue-ACC quickly resolve was able

Frankly, she fortunately managed to quickly resolve the issue.

2. Epistemic + Tense/Aspectual + Manner

() Ол құжаттарды әлдеқашан мұқият қарап шыққан болар.

Ol kuzhattar-dy aldekashan mukiyat karap shykkan bolar

He documents-ACC already carefully reviewed probably

He probably has already carefully reviewed the documents.

3. Evaluative + Tense/Aspectual + Degree

() Бақытымызға орай, олар жобаны әлдеқашан аяқтап қалды.

Bakytymyzga orai, olar zhobany aldekashan ayaktap kaldy

Fortunately, they project-ACC already finished almost

Fortunately, they have already almost finished the project.

4. Speech-Act + Frequency + Manner

() Шынымды айтсам, ол көлікті жиі абайсыз жүргізеді.

Shynymdy aitsam, ol kolik-ti zhui abaisyz zhurgizedi

Frankly, she car-ACC often recklessly drives

Frankly, she often drives the car recklessly.

5. Epistemic + Degree

() Ол мұндағы нұсқауларды мүлде дұрыс түсінбеген шығар.

Ol mundagy nuskaular-dy mulde durys tusinbegen shygar

He here instructions-ACC completely right did not understand probably

He probably completely misunderstood the instructions here.

6. Evidential + Tense/Aspectual + Manner

() Шамасы олар мәселені әлдеқашан тиімді шешіп қойған.

Shamasy olar masele-ni aldekashan tuimdi sheship koigan

Apparently they problem-ACC already efficiently solved

Apparently, they had already solved the problem efficiently.

7. Frequency + Manner

() Ол хорда жиі әнді әдемі айтады.

Ol khorda zhui an-di ademi aitady

She in choir often song-ACC beautifully sings

She often sings beautifully in the choir.

8. Speech-Act + Epistemic

() Ашығын айтқанда, ол кілтін үйінде қалдырған шығар.

Ashygyn aitkanda, ol kilt-in uiinde kaldyrgan shygar

Frankly, he his key-ACC at home left probably

Frankly, he probably left his key at home.

9. Evaluative + Degree + Manner

() Бақытымызға орай, ол тапсырманы толығымен мұқият орындады.

Bakytymyzga orai, ol tapsyrma-ny tolygyмен mukiyat oryndady

Fortunately, she task-ACC entirely diligently completed

Fortunately, she entirely completed the task diligently.

10. Evidential + Tense/Aspectual

() Шамасы олар таудың басына әлдеқашан жеткен.

Shamasy olar taudyn basy-na aldekashan zhetken

Apparently they mountain's peak-DAT already reached

Apparently, they had already reached the mountain peak.

Kazakh examples provided demonstrate a notable alignment with Cinque's universal hierarchy of adverbs. In each case, the adverbs appear in the predicted order, indicating that Kazakh adheres to similar syntactic principles governing adverb placement as those outlined by Cinque. This suggests that the syntactic behavior of adverbs in Kazakh is consistent with the universal patterns identified in Cinque's model, highlighting the cross-linguistic applicability of his hierarchy. Such findings reinforce the idea that even typologically distinct languages may share underlying syntactic structures in the organization of adverbial elements.

2.10 Complex sentences

Complex sentences are divided into three groups:

1. Compound sentences, consisting of equally important simple sentences.
2. Complex sentences, consisting of unequal simple sentences, meaning that one sentence is subordinate to the other.
3. Mixed sentences, containing both equally important and unequal simple sentences.

Compound sentences can be either connected by conjunctions or not connected by conjunctions.

Compound sentences connected by conjunctions are divided into the following types:

1. Copulative sentences which are formed using words “zhane (and), ari (and, as well as), da/de/ta/te (and, also)”.

() Жаз келді де, күн жылынды.

Zhaz keldi de, kun zhylyndy

Summer came and, day became warm

Summer came, and the days became warm.

2. Adversative sentences which are formed using words “birak (but), al (but), degenmen (however), aitse de (even so), sonda da (even so), soitse de (despite that), alaida (however).

() Күз түсті, бірақ күн әлі жылы.

Kuz tusti, birak kun ali zhyly

Autumn came, but day still warm

Autumn has come, but the days are still warm.

3. Causal-consecutive sentences which are formed using words “sondyktan (therefore), sebebi (because), oitkeni (because), sol ushin (for that reason), sol sebepti (because of that), sol sebepten (for that reason)”.

() Ол көп оқыды, сондықтан білімді адам болып шықты.

Ol kop okydy, sondyktan bilimdi adam bolyp shykty.

He a lot studied, therefore educated person became

He studied a lot, therefore he became an educated person.

4. Alternating sentences which are formed using words “birese (sometimes), birde (sometimes), keide (sometimes)”.

() Жаңбыр біресе жауды, біресе басылды.

Zhanbyr birese zhaudy, birese basyldy

Rain sometimes rained, sometimes stopped

Sometimes it rained, sometimes it stopped.

5. Disjunctive sentences are formed using words “ne (or, either...or), nemese (or), alde (or), ya (or), yaki (or), aitpese (otherwise), ne bolmasa (if not...then)”.

() Демалыс күні біз не теледидар көреміз, не шахмат ойнаймыз.

Demalys kuni biz ne teledidar koremiz, ne shakhmat oinaimyz

Day off we either TV watch, or chess play

On the day off, we either watch TV or play chess.

6. Explanatory sentences in which the second sentence explains the meaning of the first sentence.

() Оның келмеген себебі мынау: кеше жұмыстан кеш қайтты.

Onyn kelmegen sebebi mynau: keshe zhumystan kesh kaitty

His not came reason this: yesterday from work late returned

The reason he didn't come is this: he returned late from work yesterday.

Compound sentences not connected by conjunctions are divided into the same types.

Complex sentences consist of a main clause and a dependent subordinate clause. They can include:

- Conditional Subordinate Clauses;
- Temporal Subordinate Clauses;
- Purpose Subordinate Clauses;
- Concessive Subordinate Clauses;
- Causal Subordinate Clauses;
- Manner Subordinate Clauses.

However, the following types of complex sentences do not fall under the aforementioned categories:

- Complex sentences formed with the help of demonstrative pronouns such as “ne... sony (what...that), kandai... sondai (what kind of...that kind of)”.

() Сен не істейсің, мен де соны істеймін.

Sen ne isteisin, men de sony isteimin

You what will do, I too that will do

What you will do, I will do that as well.

- Complex sentences which are formed using verbs that express speech, thought, or feeling, such as “aitu” (to say), “estu” (to hear), “oilau” (to think), “korku” (to fear), and the copula verb “dep” (that).

() Ол кешке келемін деп айтты.

Ol keshke kelemin dep aitty

He in the evening will come that said

He said that he would come in the evening.

Complex sentences with conditional clauses can be constructed using the following conjunctions and constructions:

- Conjunctions "eger ... , onda ..." (if ... , then ...)

() Егер мен бүгін жұмысымды ерте бітірсем, онда киноға барамын.

Eger men bugin zhumysym-dy erte bitirsem, onda kinoga baramin

If I today my work-ACC early finish, then to cinema will go

If I finish my work early today, then I'll go to the cinema.

- Conditional suffixes “ca/se” (sa/se) + personal endings “м, қ, ң, ндар” (m, k, n, ndar).

() Күн ашық болса, студенттер өзенге балық аулауға барады.

Kun ashyk bolsa, studentter ozenge balyk aulauga barady

Sunny if will be, students to river fish to catch go

If it's sunny, the students will go fishing at the river.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + concessive suffixes “да/де (da/de)”.

() Сіз бір доллар кем ұсынғанда, жоқ дейтін едім.

Siz bir dollar kem usynganda, zhok deitin edim

You one dollar less if offered, no would have said

If you had offered a dollar less, I would have refused.

- Negation suffixes “ба/бе (ba/be), па/пе (pa/pe), ма/ме (ma/me)” + converb suffix “й (i)”.

() Баспасөзге басымдык бермей, қоғам сенімі күшеймейді.

Baspasozge basymdyk bermei, kogam senimi kusheimeidi

To the press priority without giving, society trust will not grow

Without prioritizing the press, public trust won't grow.

- Negation suffixes “ба/бе (ba/be), па/пе (pa/pe), ма/ме (ma/me)” + converb suffixes “йынша/йінше”.

() Көмек сұрамайынша, саған ешкім жәрдемдеспейді.

Komek suramaiynsha, sagan eshkim zhardemdespeidi

Help until asking, to you no one will not help

No one will help you unless you ask for help.

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time

There are many ways to form complex sentences with adverbial clauses of time, so it's more convenient to divide them into groups and consider each group separately.

1. Before, until
2. During, when
3. After, since

The group “before, until” is formed with following constructions:

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + adverbial suffixes “ша/ше (sha/she)”.

() Мен келгенше, сен үйде отыр.

Men kelgenshe, sen uide otyr

I until coming, you at home stay

Stay at home until I come.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + directional suffixes “ға/ге (ga/ge)” + postpositions “дейін (deiin)/ шейін (sheiin)” meaning “until, before”.

() Сен келгенге дейін, мен жұмысты бітіремін.

Sen kelgenge deiin, men zhumys-ty bitiremin

You to come before, I work-ACC I will finish

I will finish the work before you come.

- Negation suffixes “ба/бе (ba/be), па/пе (pa/pe), ма/ме (ma/me) + conditional suffix “с (s)” (+ time suffixes “тан/тен (tan/ten)”) + postposition “бұрын (bурyn) (before)”.

() Ол колледжде оқу басталмас бұрын, шашын қиғысы келді.

Ol kolledzhde oku bastalmas buryn, shahyn kigysy keldi

She at college studies will not start before, her hair to cut wanted

She wanted to cut her hair before classes began at the college.

- Temporal suffixes “ар/ер/р (ar/er/r)” + adverbial suffixes “да/де (da/de)”.

() Сен маған келерде, міндетті түрде қоңырау соқ.

Sen magan kelerde, mindetti turde konyrau sok

You to me when will come, necessarily call

When you come to me, necessarily call me.

The group “during, when” is formed with following constructions:

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + temporal suffixes “да/де (da/de)”.

() Біз театрға келгенде, концерт әлі басталмапты.

Biz teatrğa kelgende, konsert ali bastalmapty
We to theater when came, concert yet not started
When we came to the theater, the concert hadn't started yet.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + temporal nouns “kezde (at the time) / satte (at the moment) / uakytta (at the time) / shakta (at the time) / kunde (on the day)”

() Мен кеткен кезде, сен үйде бол.
Men ketken kezde, sen uide bol
I left at the time, you at home be
When I leave, stay at home.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + postposition “saiyn (every time, whenever)”.

() Мен Алматыға келген сайын, Медеуге баратынмын.
Men Almatyga kelgen saiyn, Medeuge baratynmyn
I to Almaty came every time, to Medeu used to go
Every time I came to Almaty, I used to go to Medeu.

- Suffixes “сы/сі (sy/si), ысы/ісі (ysy/isi)” + suffix “мен (men)”

() Олар мектеп бітірісімен үйленген еді.
Olar mektep bitirisimen uilengen edi
They school right after finishing married was
They got married right after finishing school.

- Conditional suffixes “са/се (sa/se)” + personal endings “м (m), қ (k), ң (n), ңдар (ndar)”.

() Мен үйге келсем, сіңлім тамақ әзірлеп қойыпты.

Men uige kelsem, sinlim tamak azirlep koiypty
I to home when I came, my younger sister food prepared put
When I came home, my younger sister had already prepared food.

The group “after, since” is formed with following constructions:

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + postposition “son (after)”

() Мен жұмысқа кеткен соң, ол маған телефон соғыпты.

Men zhumyska ketken son, ol magan telefon sogypty
I to work went after he to me called
After I went to work, he called me.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffixes “нан/нен (nan/nen)” + postposition “keiin (after)”.

() Есік тұтқасын ұстағаннан кейін, қолды жуыңдар.

Yesik tutkasy-n ustagannan keiin, kol-dy zhuyn dar
Door handle-ACC from touching after, hand-ACC wash
After touching the door handle, wash your hands.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffixes “нан/нен (nan/nen)” + postposition “beri (since)”.

() Сабақ басталғаннан бері, жарты сағат өтіп кетті.

Sabak bastalgannan beri, zharty sagat otip ketti
Lesson from beginning since, half an hour passed left
Since the lesson started, half an hour has passed.

- Converb suffixes “ғалы/гелі (galy/geli), қалы/келі (kaly/keli)”.

() Мына кітапты оқығалы көп жыл өтті.

Myна kitap-ty okygaly kop zhyl otti
This book-ACC since reading many year passed
It has been many years since I read this book.

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of purpose

In a purpose clause, the purpose or intention behind the action in the main clause is explained. The clauses are formed in the following ways:

- Verb in the infinitive form + postposition “ushin (for, in order to)”.

() Институтқа ерте жету үшін, біз тез жүрдік.

Institutka yerte zhetu ushin, biz tez zhurdik
To institute early to arrive in order to, we fast walked
To arrive at the institute earlier, we walked fast.

- Commands in the imperative mood + particle “dep (in order to, thinking that)”.

() Қазақ тілін үйренейік деп, көп кітап оқыдық.

Kazak til-in uireneik dep, kop kitap okydyk
Kazakh language-ACC to learn in order to, many book read
We read a lot of books to learn Kazakh language.

- Constructions with conditional suffixes “ca/ce (sa/se)” + personal endings “м (m), к (k), н (n), ндар (ndar)” + particle “dep (in order to, thinking that)”.

() Ол оқысам деп, қалаға келді.

Ol okysam dep, kalaga keldi
He if I study in order to, to city came
He came to the city in order to study.

- Constructions with suffixes “бақ/бек (bak/bek), пақ/пек (pak/pek), мақ/мек (mak/mek)” + suffixes “шы/ші (shy/shi)” + converb “bolyp (being)”.

() Мен оқымақшы болып, қалаға кеттім.

Men okymakshy bolyp, kalaga kettim

I going to study being, to city went

I went to the city in order to study.

- Constructions with suffixes “ғы/гі (gy/gi), қы/кі (ky/ki)” + possessive endings “м (m), мыз (myz), ң (n), ңыз (nyz)” + converb “kelip (coming)”.

() Далаға шыққысы келіп, ол есікке жақындады.

Dalaga shykkysy kelip, ol yesikke zhakyndady

To outside wanting to go out, he to door approached

Wanting to go outside, he approached the door.

Complex sentences with concessive clauses express actions in the main clause that occur despite the conditions outlined in the subordinate concessive clause. These sentences are formed using the following constructions:

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffix “мен (men)”.

() Күн салқын болғанмен, жатақхана жылы.

Kun salkyn bolganmen, zhatakhana zhyly

Day cold despite being, dormitory warm

Although the day is cold, the dormitory is warm.

- Conditional suffixes “са/се (sa/se)” + personal endings “м (m), қ/к (k), ң (n), ндар/ндер (ndar/nder)” + particles “да / де (da/de)”.

() Тез жүрсе де, пойызға үлгермей қалды.

Tez zhurse de, poiyzga ulgermei kaldy

Fast if he walks although, to train missed

Although he walked fast, he missed the train.

- Suffixes “a/e/й (a/e/i)” + verb “бола (by being)” + verbs “tura / tursa da (despite being)”.

() Ақшасы бола тұра, ол ештеңе сатып алмады.

Akshasy bola tura, ol eshtene satyp almady

His money despite being, he nothing bought

Even though he had money, he didn't buy anything.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffixes “ына/іне (yna/ine)” + “karamai / karamastan (despite)”.

() Ауырып қалғанына қарамастан, ол жұмысқа кетті.

Auыryp kalganyна karamastan, ol zhumyska ketti

To getting sick despite, he to work went

Despite being sick, he went to work.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + possessive suffixes “ым/ім (ym/im), ымыз/іміз (ymyz/imiz), ың/ің (yn/in)” + “bolmasa (except for)”.

() Аздап суық тиіп қалғаны болмаса, жақсымын.

Azdap suyk tiip kalgany bolmasa, zhaksymyn

Slight cold got except for, I am fine

I'm fine, except for a slight cold.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffixes “ша/ше (sha/she)”.

() Босқа уақыт жоғалтқанша, одан да үй жұмысын жаса.

Boska uakyt zhogaltkansha, odan da ui zhumysyn zhasa

Vainly time instead of waiting, better homework do

Instead of wasting time, better to do your homework.

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of reason are formed using the following constructions:

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffixes “дықтан/діктен (dyktan/dikten)”.

() Ақшамыз болмағандықтан, дүкенге барған жоқпыз.

Akshamyz bolmagandyktan, dukenge bargan zhokpyz

Our money because did not have, to store we did not go

We didn't go to the store because we didn't have any money.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + “sebepti (because)”.

() Уақытым болмаған себепті, қонаққа бармаймын.

Uakytyr bolmagan sebepti, konakka barmaimyn

My time did not have because, to guest I will not go

I won't go to the guests because I don't have time.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + suffixes “нан/нен (nan/nen)” + “keiin (after)”.

() Оның уақыты болмағаннан кейін, ол бізге келе алмады.

Onyn uakyty bolmagannan keiin, ol bizge kele almady

His time from not having after, he to us come could not

Since he didn't have time, he couldn't come to us.

- Past participle suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)” + postposition “сон (after)”.

() Сен оған айтқан соң, мен үндемедім.

Sen oğan aitkan son, men undemedim
You to him told after, I remained silent
I remained silent because you had already told him.

Complex sentences with adverbial clauses of manner are formed using the following constructions:

- Past participle suffixes “атын/етін (atyn/yetin), йтын/йтін (ityn/itin)” + suffixes “дай/дей (dai/dei)”.

() Тыңдаушылар сүйсінетіндей, ол ән салды.

Tyndaushylar suisinetindei, ol an saldy
Audience in a way that causes admiration, he sang
He sang in a way that made the audience admire him.

- Past participle suffixes “ып/іп/п (yp/ip/p)” + manner suffixes “а/е/й (a/e/i)”.

() Ол мен еститіндей қатты сөйледі.

Ol men yestitindei katty soiled
He I in such a way that one can hear loudly spoke
He spoke loudly enough for me to hear.

2.11 Null-subject language

Kazakh language’s rich verb conjugation system as detailed in the previous subparagraph is what enables the language to frequently omit the subject.

A sentence can even consist of just one word if that word expresses a complete thought. Due to the flexibility and development of the grammatical structure in Kazakh language, there are many sentences that consist of a single word. Nouns and verbs in Kazakh take personal endings. Words with personal endings are always predicates.

Table of personal endings:

1	Men (I) Biz (we)	мын/мін (myn/min), бын/бін (byn/bin), пын/пін (pyn/pin) мыз/міз (myz/miz), быз/біз (byz/biz), пыз/піз (pyz/piz)
2	Sen (you) Sender (you) Formal: Siz (you) Sizder (you)	сың/сің (syn/sin) сыңдар/сіңдер (syndar/sinder) сыз/сіз (syz/siz) сыздар/сіздер (syzdar/sizder)
3	Ol (he/she/it) Olar (they)	- -

() Нешеүсіздер?

Nesheu-sizder

How many are you

How many of you are there? (polite plural form)

() Жиырмадаймыз.

Zhiyrma-dai-myz

We are about twenty

There are about twenty of us.

() Каншадасыз?

Kansha-dasyz

How old are you?

() Отыздамын.

Otyz-damyn

I am 30 years old.

In the negative form, personal endings are attached to the negation “емес (emes)”.

() Дәрігер емеспін.

Dariger emespin

Doctor am not

I am not a doctor.

() Жаман емеспіз.

Zhaman emespiz

Bad are not

We are not bad.

() Менің ата анам емессіңдер.

Menin ata anam emessinder

My parents are not

You are not my parents.

Truncated personal endings are used in two cases: in the simple past tense of the verb and in the conditional mood of the verb.

Table of truncated personal endings:

1	Men (I) Biz (we)	м (m) к/к (k/k)
2	Sen (you) Sender (you) Formal: Siz (you) Sizder (you)	ң (n) ңдар/ңдер (ndar/nder) ңыз/ңіз (nyz/niz) ңыздар/ңіздер (nyzdar/nizder)
3	Ol (he/she/it) Olar (they)	- -

When forming the past tense, the suffixes “ды/ді/ты/ті (dy/di/ty/ti)” are added to the verb, followed by truncated personal endings.

() Досыма ашуланып ұзақ хат жаздым.

Dosyma ashulanyp uzak khat zhazdym

To my friend being angry long letter wrote

I wrote a long letter, being angry with my friend.

() Мен келгенде үй жинап жатырдың.

Men kelgende ui zhinap zhatyrdyn

I when came house were cleaning

You were cleaning the house when I came.

() Асықпай дүкен аралағанда оны кездестірдік.

Asykpai duken aralaganda ony kezdestirdik

Leisurely when shopping him/her met

We met him/her while leisurely shopping.

2.12 Verb

A verb in Kazakh serves as a linguistic component representing actions, movements, or states within a process. Its primary role in a sentence is as the predicate. It encompasses various lexical-grammatical features, notably including tense, person, mood, aspect, voice, and conjugation. In Kazakh grammar, verbs are consistently positioned at the end of the sentence.

Verbs can be either non-derived (root) verbs (such as айту (aitu) – to say, кету (ketu) – to leave, кесу (kesu) – to cut, etc.) or derived verbs. Quite often, derived verbs are formed from nouns.

Here are various suffixes used to form derived verbs:

- 1) “да/де (da/de), та/те (ta/te), ла/ле (la/le)” + infinitive suffix “-у (u)”

Daiyn – ready, daiyndau – to prepare;

bi – dance, bileu – to dance.

2) “дас/дес (das/des), тас/тес (tas/tes), лас/лес (las/les)” + infinitive suffix “-y (u)”
akyl – mind, akyldasu – to consult;

shart – condition, sharttasu – come to an agreement, make a contract.

3) “a/e (a/e), ар/ер (ar/er), ғар/гер (gar/ger), қар/кер (kar/ker)”
san – number, sanau – to count;
tun – night, tuneu – stay overnight.

Verbs in the infinitive form (with the suffix “y (u)” or “ю (yu)”) indicate an action, process, or state. This form of the verb does not show tense, number, or person. In Kazakh, any noun endings can be added to the verb in the infinitive form.

The verb stem in Kazakh coincides with the imperative form of the verb in the second person singular.

karau – to watch

kara – watch (imperative, second person singular)

In most cases, the verb stem is easily determined by simply removing the “y (u)” suffix from the verb's infinitive form. When various suffixes and endings are added to the verb stem, the different tenses and moods of the verb are formed.

Present tense of the verb is also called the evident present tense, meaning it refers to an action occurring now.

There are two forms of the present tense: simple and compound. The simple form lives up to its name and is formed easily—with the help of four verbs: тұры (turu)– to stand, жүру (zhuru) – to walk, отыру (otyru) – to sit, жату (zhatu) – to lie down. The verb “zhatu” in the present tense, when the suffix “y (u)” is dropped, takes the form “жатыр (zhatyr) - laying”.

General scheme of the simple form:

1	Men (I) Biz (we)		МЫН/МІН (myn/min) МЫЗ /МІЗ (myz/miz)
2	Sen (you) Sender (you) Formal: Siz (you) Sizder (you)	Tur (stand), zhur (walk), otyr (sit), zhatyr (laying) +	СЫҢ/СІҢ (syn/sin) СЫҢДАР/СІҢДЕР (syndar/sinder) СЫЗ/СІЗ (syz/siz) СЫЗДАР/СІЗДЕР (syzdar/sizder)
3	Ol (he/she/it) Olar (they)		- -

From the infinitive form of the verb, the suffix “y” is removed and personal endings are added.

The compound form is used when you need to describe any other action of a person besides the four mentioned above, for example, singing, reading, listening, etc., and of course, if this action is happening at the present moment. In this case, the verbs "turu, zhuru, otyru, zhatu (zhatyr)" will be auxiliary verbs.

General scheme of the compound form:

1	Men (I) Biz (we)		МЫН/МІН (myn/min) МЫЗ /МІЗ (myz/miz)
2	Sen (you) Sender (you) Formal: Siz (you) Sizder (you)	Verb stem + suffixes “ып/ип/п (yp/ip/p)” + tur (stand), zhur (walk), otyr (sit), zhatyr (laying) +	СЫҢ/СІҢ (syn/sin) СЫҢДАР/СІҢДЕР (syndar/sinder) СЫЗ/СІЗ (syz/siz) СЫЗДАР/СІЗДЕР (syzdar/sizder)
3	Ol (he/she/it) Olar (they)		- -

The “y” suffix is removed from the main verb, and the suffixes “ып/іп/п” are added, followed by the auxiliary verb with personal ending. Different auxiliary verbs may be used with the same main verb depending on the situation.

Depending on the meaning of the main verb, auxiliary verbs can indicate:

- 1) The position of the object.
- 2) The duration or nature of the action.

When indicating the position of the object, auxiliary verbs show that the action is performed:

- Тұр (tur) – standing;
- Жүр (zhur) – in motion;
- Отыр (otyr) – sitting;
- Жатыр (zhatyr) – lying.

The auxiliary verb “отыр (otyr)” is only used with animate objects. The auxiliary verb “тұр (tur)” is often used to describe natural phenomena, as they occur in space (sometimes “жатыр (zhatyr)” is used, indicating the duration of the action). The auxiliary verb “жүр (zhur)” indicates the periodicity of the action. The auxiliary verb “жатыр (zhatyr)” indicates being engaged or occupied with one task.

The negative form of the verb is formed in two ways:

- 1) Using negative suffixes (ба/бе (ba/be), па/пе (pa/pe), ма/ме (ma/me)), which are attached to the verb stem, followed by the suffix “й (i)”. Negation formed this way means that the action is not occurring for some reason during a certain period.
- 2) Using the suffixes “ған/ген (gan/gen), қан/кен (kan/ken)”, which are attached to the verbs “turu, zhuru, otyru, zhatu” (resulting in the forms “turgan, zhurgen, otyrgan, zhatkan”). Then followed by the negation “жоқ (zhok)” with personal ending. This negation form is used when the speaker reports that the action is not happening at this moment.

Double negation means that the action occurs necessarily and continuously.

() Ол жүрген жерін бүлдірмей жүрмейді.

Ol zhurgen zherin buldirmei zhurmeidi

He wherever he is not spoiling does not go

Wherever he is, he is sure to bring some misfortune.

The transitional tense of the verb is used in two cases: when talking about an action that is usually performed (transitional present tense) or when talking about the future, in which the speaker is certain (transitional future tense). The time (present or future) is determined by the context.

General scheme:

1	Men (I)	Verb stem + suffixes “a/e/й (a/e/i)” +	МЫН/МІН (myn/min)
	Biz (we)		МЫЗ /МІЗ (myz/miz)
2	Sen (you)		СЫН/СІҢ (syn/sin)
	Sender (you)		СЫҢДАР/СІҢДЕР (syndar/sinder)
	Formal: Siz (you)		СЫЗ/СІЗ (syz/siz)
3	Sizder (you)		СЫЗДАР/СІЗДЕР (syzdar/sizder)
	Ol (he/she/it)	ДЫ/ДІ (dy/di)	
	Olar (they)	ДЫ/ДІ (dy/di)	

() Орысша жақсы түсінемін, бірақ нашар сөйлеймін.

Oryssha zhaksy tusinemin, birak nashar soileimin

In Russian well understand, but poorly speak

I understand Russian well, but I speak it poorly.

Past tense of the verb is formed as follows:

1	Men (I)		М (m)
	Biz (we)		К/К (k)

2	Sen (you) Sender (you) Formal: Siz (you) Sizder (you)	Verb stem + suffixes “ды/ді, ты/ті (dy/di, ty/ti)” +	ң (n) ңдар/ңдер(ndar/nder) ңыз/ііз (nyz/niz) ңыздар/ііздер (nyzdar/nizder)
3	Ol (he/she/it) Olar (they)		- -

() Біз жақсы демалдық.

Biz zhaksy demaldyk

We well relaxed

We had a good rest.

The negative form of the verb in past tense is formed using negative suffixes (ba/be, pa/pe, ma/me), which are added to the verb stem, followed by past tense suffixes (dy/di) and personal endings.

() Сендер кеше үйде болмадыңдар.

Sender keshe uide bolmadyndar

You yesterday at home were not

You were not at home yesterday.

2.13 Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs, also known as helping verbs, lack complete lexical meaning and cannot function independently in a sentence; rather, they are utilized alongside main verbs and nouns. In Kazakh, there exist many auxiliary verbs: e (edi, eken, emes), zhazda, et, de (dedi, degen, dese, deidi). These auxiliary verbs, which lack standalone lexical significance and impart various grammatical functions to a word, are termed as meaningless auxiliary verbs. Approximately thirty verbs in Kazakh possess complete lexical meanings and are employed both as main and auxiliary verbs. Examples include

al (take), bar (go), ber (give), bol (be), zhiber (leave), kel (come), ket (leave). These verbs, having lost their lexical significance and functioning as auxiliary verbs, are referred to as meaningful auxiliary verbs (Oralbayeva 1975, Isaev 1993, Isaev 1996).

The auxiliary verb “eken” gives the sentence the meaning “it turns out”. The tense suffixes are added to the main verb, and the personal endings are added to the auxiliary verb “eken”.

() Ол қалаға ертең барады екен.

Ol kalaga erten barady eken

He to city tomorrow will go it turns out

It turns out he is going to the city tomorrow.

In interrogative sentences, “eken” takes on a different meaning and is translated as “interesting”. In interrogative sentences with interrogative particles “ba/be, pa/pe, ma/me”, the particles are placed before the auxiliary verb “eken”.

() Ол ертең сабаққа бара ма екен?

Ol erten sabakka bara ma eken

He tomorrow to class go Q interesting

Interesting. Will he go to school tomorrow?

With the suffixes “sa/se” the auxiliary verb “eken” gives the meaning “at least”.

() Сабаққа кешікпесек екен.

Sabakka keshikpesek eken

To class if not late at least

I hope at least we're not late for class.

The auxiliary verb “edi” is frequently employed to denote that an action or state occurred in the past. In such cases, it acts as a marker of the simple past tense, providing temporal context to the sentence.

“Edi” can be utilized in the present context to emphasize the speaker's certainty or assurance about a statement. This use underscores the speaker's confidence in the truth of the assertion being made.

() Сен әнім едің.

Sen anim edin

You my song were

You were my song.

In interrogative constructions, “edi” serves to intensify the question, often adding an element of surprise or rhetorical emphasis.

() Сен соншама кім едің?

Sen sonshama kim edin?

You so much who are you

Who exactly are you?

When combined with interrogative particles such as “ba/be, pa/pe, ma/me” the auxiliary verb “edi” introduces an element of doubt or contradiction.

() Жұлдыз ба едің?

Zhuldyz ba edin?

Star Q are you

Are you really a star?

“Edi” is also used with verbs in the present continuous tense to describe actions that were ongoing in the past. This construction highlights the continuity or progression of an event at a specific moment in the past.

() Мен сенің қоңырауыңды күтіп жүр едім.

Men senin konyrauyn-dy kutip zhur edim

I your call-ACC waiting was
I was waiting for your call.

In sentences where the verb is in the past perfect tense (marked by “gan/gen, kan/ken”), “edi” indicates that one action occurred prior to another past action. This usage provides a sense of sequence in the narration of past events.

() Мен кітабымды беріп едім, бірақ ол алмады.
Men kitabym-dy berip edim, birak ol almady
I my book-ACC had given, but he did not take
I had given my book, but he didn't take it.

In desiderative constructions, “edi” is used to convey wishes or intentions, often implying a degree of formality or politeness. It is typically paired with verbs in the desiderative or imperative forms.

() Мен қаланы көрсем деп едім.
Men kalany korsem dep edim
I city-ACC to see would like to
I would like to see the city.

2.14 Converbs

Converb - an unconjugated form of a verb, typically used in verbal subordination (Haspelmath & König, 1995).

In Kazakh, converbs are used to express various relational aspects of actions, such as time, reason, condition, and manner. They help in linking actions and providing additional details about how or when actions occur. Converbs are essential for constructing more complex and nuanced sentences in Kazakh as I mentioned before in the paragraph about

complex sentences. The converb in Kazakh language is formed by attaching suffixes to verb stems.

Converbs in Kazakh are formed using specific suffixes:

- -п/-ып/-іп (p/yp/ip);
- -а/-е/-й (a/e/i);
- -ғалы/-гелі (galy/geli), -қалы/-келі (kaly/keli).

Converbs formed with suffixes “-п/-ып/-іп (p/yp/ip)” denote the completion of an action.

() Мен ұйықтап қалып, пойызға үлгермедім.

Men uiyktap kalyp, poiyzga ulgermedim

I having fallen asleep to train did not make it in time

I fell asleep and missed the train.

Converbs with the suffixes “-п/-ып/-іп (p/yp/ip)” form part of complex verbs and mainly indicate the completion of one action before another. Sometimes, the complex verb acquires a new meaning that needs to be learned.

() өліп қалу

Olip kalu

Having died to stay

To die

() сатып алу

Satyp alu

Having sold take

To buy

Converbs formed with suffixes “-а/-е/-й (a/e/i)” denote the duration of an action. In complex sentences, they denote actions happening simultaneously with another action.

() Фильм көре тамақ дайындады.

Film kore tamak daiyndady

Film while watching food prepared

He/she cooked while watching a film.

Converbs with suffixes “-a/-e/-й (a/e/i)” may also form part of complex verbs, indicating the duration of an action or adding nuances of insignificance or surprise. Such complex verbs may acquire new meanings that need to be memorized.

() айта қою

Aita koyu

While saying to put

to unexpectedly say

() асыға күту

Asyga kutu

While hurrying to wait

to wait impatiently

Converbs formed with suffixes “-ғалы/-гелі (galy/geli), -қалы/-келі (kaly/keli)” express purpose.

() Мен сөйлескелі келдім.

Men soileskeli keldim

I to talk came

I came to talk.

These converbs also participate in forming complex sentences with subordinate clauses of time and are translated as "after," "afterwards," or "since":

() Сіз айтқалы мен ойландым.

Siz aitkaly men oilandym
You (formal) since said I thought
Since you said that, I have been thinking.

In Kazakh language, converbs can participate in forming serial constructions, somewhat resembling constructions with auxiliary verbs in Indo-European languages. The concept of serial verb construction, also referred to as verb serialization or verb stacking, describes a syntactic pattern where multiple verbs or verb phrases are combined within a single clause (Tallerman, Maggie 2019).

() Мен үйге барып, тамақ ішіп қайтайын.
Men uige барып, тамақ іship кайтайын
I to home having gone, having eaten let me come back
Let me go home and eat.

() Біз бәрін үйде кездесе отырып талқыладық.
Biz barin uide kezdese otyryp talkyladyk
We everything at home by meeting sitting we discussed
We discussed everything while meeting at home.

() Менің көйлегімді киіп кете берші.
Menin koilegim-di kiip kete bershi
My dress-ACC having worn please go
Please go wearing my dress.

2.15 Postpositions

A postposition is a grammatical element that indicates syntactic relationships among nouns, pronouns, numerals, and other parts of speech, as well as between nouns. Unlike prepositions, which precede the word they modify, postpositions come after it.

Some of the postpositions indicate direction, so case endings are added to the words they are used with. For example, the postposition “дейін (deiin) – till” indicates direction - to something. Therefore, the word used with “дейін (deiin)” is supplemented with a dative-directional case ending.

() Бәрін жұмысқа дейін жасауға тырыс

Barin zhumyska deiin zhasauga tyrys

Everything to work till to do try

Try to do everything till work.

If a postposition is used with a pronoun, the pronoun must be in the appropriate case.

() Мен оларға қарай жүріп келе жатырмын.

Men olarga karai zhurip kele zhatyrmyn

I to them towards walking am coming

I am walking towards them.

In Kazakh syntax, postpositions are closely bound to their objects and cannot be separated from them. The postposition must directly follow its object without any intervening words or elements.

Chapter 3. Interrogative sentences

3.1. Structure of interrogative sentences

Interrogative sentences are formed using:

- Interrogative particles

This category includes the particles “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe, she”. The particles “ma/me” are used after words ending in a vowel or a sonorant; and its phonetic variant “ba/be” follows words ending in “м (m), н (n), м (m), з (z)”, while the variant “pa/pe” follows words ending in voiceless consonants and the voiced consonants “б (b), д (d)”.

Sometimes these particles are inserted within a word.

() Уйдемісің, Аружан?

Uidemisin, Aruzhan

are you home, Aruzhan

Are you home, Aruzhan?

As demonstrated, the interrogative particle (in this case, “mi”) is embedded inside the word. It comes before the personal ending. This happens only in second-person predicates with personal endings “-sin, -syn, -syz, -siz”.

Each interrogative particle has its specific use. The particles “ma/me” (and its variants) are used when the speaker wants to know if an object has a certain characteristic. Therefore, it can only relate to the predicate of the sentence.

Sometimes, a sentence with the particles “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe” is pronounced with a rising tone. In such cases, “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe” lose their interrogative function and, along with the intonation, serve to emphasize the statement emotionally.

() Сол бала ауылында болушы ма еді!

Sol bala auylynda bolushy ma edi
That boy in his village will be Q was
Could that boy be at home!

After a future participle, the particles “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe” express a wish or a dream.

() Болашағымызды бірге көрмедік пе деп армандадым.
Bolashagymyz-dy birge kormedik pe dep armandadym.
Our future-ACC together did not see Q having said dreamt
I dreamt to see our future together.

After a verb in the present-future tense, the particles “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe” indicates a supposition.

() Бүгін хабарлал, ертен бастаймыз ба деп отырмыз
Bugin khabarlap, erten bastaimyz ba dep otyrmyz
Today having informed, tomorrow will start Q are planning
We are planning to inform today and start tomorrow.

The interrogative particle "she" is used when the speaker has provided specific information and then asks the interlocutor about the same. This distinguishes it from the particles “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe”. This function also explains its limited use with predicates in sentences.

() Сен өзің ше?
Sen ozin she
You yourself Q
And what about you?

() Менің атым Қайрат. Ал сенің ше?
Menin atym Kairat. Al senin she?
My my name Kairat. And your Q

My name is Kairat. And yours?

- Interrogative pronouns;
- Intonation.

() Ауылға?

Auylga?

To village?

To the village?

3.2 Morphology of interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns include: kim? (who?), ne? (what?), neshe? (how many?), kai? (which?), kandai? (what kind?), kansha? (how much?), kalai? (how?), kashan? (when?). There are also several other interrogative pronouns, which are derived from the main ones listed above through specific formations. For example, nesheu? (how many?) and neshinshi? (which in order?) are formed from neshe? (how many?) by adding numerical suffixes.

Pronouns like “kaisy (which one)”, “kaidan (from where)”, and “kaida (where)” come from the main interrogative pronoun “kai (which)”. The suffix “-sy” in “kaisy” was historically a third-person possessive suffix but has lost its possessive meaning in modern usage, allowing it to take possessive suffixes for all persons.

The suffixes in “kaidan (from where)” and “kaida (where)” are from the ablative case and locative case endings. These suffixes have become fixed with the root, preventing other suffixes from attaching to the root “kai” in Kazakh.

Interrogative pronouns like “kandai (what kind)” and “kashan (when)” are linked to the suffixes “-dai” and “-sha”. The original root for these pronouns was “kan”.

The suffix –“lai” in “kalai? (how?)” is related to the suffixes in “osylai (this way)” and “solai (that way)”. Thus, pronouns like “kai? (which?), kaisy? (which one?), kaida? (where?), kaidan? (from where?), kaidagy? (from which place?), kandai? (what kind?), kansha? (how much?), kalai? (how?), kashan? (when?), kashannan? (since when?)”, and “kashangy? (until when?)” all originate from the same roots “kai, -kan, -na” and have evolved over time (Sqaqov 1991, 215-216).

Interrogative pronouns	Translation
кім? (kim)	who?
не? (ne)	what?
қайда? (kaida)	where?
қашан? (kashan)	when?
қай? (kai)	which?
қандай? (kandai)	what kind of?
нешеу? (nesheu)	how much/many?
неше? (neshe)	how much/many?
қанша? (kansha)	how much/many?
қайдан? (kaidan)	from where?
қалай? (kalai)	how?
қайсы? (kaisy)	which?
нешінші? (neshinshi)	which?

Examples:

Question structure	Examples
Subject + Who?	() Сенің атың кім? Senin atyn kim Your name who? What is your name?
Who + Adverb + Object + Verb?	() Кім бүгін тамақ істейді? Kim bugin tamak isteidi Who today food will make? Who will cook today?
Subject + Who?	() Ол кім? Ol kim He who? Who is he?
Verb + Who?	() Тамақ істеген кім? Tamak istegen kim Food made who? Who has cooked?
What + Verb?	() Не болды? Ne boldy What happened? What happened?
Subject + What?	() Ол не? Ol ne It what? What is it?
Subject + What + Verb?	() Ол не істеді? Ol ne istedi He what did?

	What did he do?
Subject + Where + Verb?	<p>() Сен қайда бара жатырсың? Sen kaida bara zhatyrsyn You where going laying? Where are you going?</p>
Subject + How + Verb?	<p>() Сен қалай тамақ істедің? Sen kalai tamak istedın You how food made? How did you cook?</p>
Subject + When + Verb?	<p>() Сен қашан тамақ істейсің? Sen kashan tamak isteisin You when food will make? When will you cook?</p>
Subject + Why + Verb?	<p>() Сен неге кешіктің? Sen nege keshiktin You why were late? Why were you late?</p>
Object + Which + Subject + Object + Verb?	<p>() Саған қайсы бала гүл берді? Sagan kaisy guy gul berdi To you which guy flower gave? Which guy did give you a flower?</p>
Subject + What kind of + Object + Verb?	<p>() Сен қандай гүл алдың? Sen kandai gul aldyn You what kind of flower received? What kind of flower did you receive?</p>
Subject + What kind of + Subject complement?	<p>() Ол қандай адам? Ol kandai person He what kind of person?</p>

	What kind of person is he?
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Morphologically, some interrogative pronouns such as “kim? (who?), ne? (what?), kaisy? (which one?), and nesheu? (how many?)” can be inflected for case, possession, plurality, and person.

The declension features of interrogative pronouns:

Cases	kim (who)	ne (what)	kashan (when)	kalai (how)	kai (which)
Nominative	kim (who)	ne (what)	kashan (when)	kalai (how)	kai (which)
Genitive	kimnin (whose)	nenin (of what)	-	-	-
Dative	kimge (to whom)	nege (to what/why)	kashanga (when)	-	-
Accusative	kimdi (whom)	neni (what)	-	-	-
Locative	kimde (who)	nede (where)	kashanda (when)	-	kaida (where)
Ablative	kimnen (from whom)	neden (from what/how/why)	kashannan (since when)	-	kaidan (from where)
Instrumental	kimmen (with whom)	nemen (with what)	-	-	-

Examples of possessive forms of interrogative pronouns:

I person	kim-im (my whom)	ne-m (my what)	kaisy-m (which of me)	nesheu-im (how many of me)
II person	kim-in (your who)	ne-n (your what)	kaisy-n (which of you)	nesheu-in (how many of you)
II person (polite form)	kim-iniz (your who)	ne-niz (your what)	kaisy-nyz (which of you)	nesheu-iniz (how many of you)
III person	kim-i (his/her/its who)	ne-si (his/her/its what)	kaisy-sy (which one)	nesheu-i (how many of them)

Other interrogative pronouns are not used in possessive forms. Not all interrogative pronouns change to the plural form, only “kim? (who?), ne? (what?), neshe? (how many?)” can be pluralized, for example: kim — kim-der (who — who [plural]), ne — ne-ler (what — what [plural]), neshe — neshe-ler (how many — how many [plural]).

Interrogative pronouns such as kim? (who?), ne? (what?), kandai? (what kind of?), kansha? (how much/many?), kalai? (how?), and neshinshi? (which in order?) can be conjugated. For example:

men (I)	kim-min (who am I)
sen (you)	kim-sin (who are you)
siz (you [polite])	kim-siz (who are you)
ol (he/she/it)	kim (who is he/she/it)
biz (we)	kim-biz (who are we)
sender (you [plural])	kim-sinder (who are you)

sizder (you [polite plural])	kim-sizder (who are you)
olar (they)	kim-der (who are they)

Some interrogative pronouns can be paired to add specificity or emphasis, such as:

() Сіздің үйге кім-кім келді?

Sizdin uige kim-kim keldi

Your (formal) to house who-who came

Who exactly came to your house?

() Қай-қайсың келдің?

Kai-kaisyn keldin

Which one of you came

Which exact one of you came?

3.3 Positions of wh-items in interrogative sentences

If the interrogative word is used as the subject, object, or adverbial modifier in the sentence, it is usually placed before the predicate.

If the interrogative word is used as an attribute, it is placed before its modified word.

() Сіз қай университетте оқисыз?

Siz kai universitette okisz?

You which in university study?

In which university do you study?

If the interrogative word is the predicate, it usually comes at the end of the sentence.

() Бұл не?

Bul ne?

This what?

What is this?

In Kazakh, wh-phrases occur in those positions in which their NP-counterparts would be found in a regular sentence. Thus, the wh-phrase does not realize an overt movement in surface structure and remains in situ.

Examples comparing interrogative and declarative sentences:

Interrogative sentences	Declarative sentences
1. Ол кім? Ol kim He/She who Who is he/she?	1. Ол менің ағам. Ol menin agam He my brother. He is my brother.
2. Ол не? Ol ne It what What is it?	2. Ол ағаш. Ol agash It tree. It is a tree.
3. Сен қайда бара жатырсың? Sen kaida bara zhatyrsyn You where are going Where are you going?	3. Мен үйге бара жатырмын. Men uige bara zhatyrmyn I to home am going. I am going home.
4. Ол қалай жүгіреді? Ol kalai zhugiredi He/She how runs?	4. Ол тез жүгіреді. Ol tez zhugiredi He/She fast runs.

How does he/she run?	He/She runs fast.
<p>5. Сен қашан жұмысқа барасың?</p> <p>Sen kashan zhumyska barasyn</p> <p>You when to work will go?</p> <p>When will you go to work?</p>	<p>5. Мен ертең жұмысқа барамын.</p> <p>Men erten zhumyska baramyn</p> <p>I tomorrow to work will go.</p> <p>I will go to work tomorrow.</p>
<p>6. Сен қашан келесің?</p> <p>Sen kashan kelesin</p> <p>You when will come?</p> <p>When will you come?</p>	<p>6. Мен кешке келемін.</p> <p>Men keshke kelemin</p> <p>I in the evening will come.</p> <p>I will come in the evening.</p>
<p>7. Ол неге үйде жүр?</p> <p>Ol nege uide zhur</p> <p>He/She why at home is walking?</p> <p>Why is he/she at home?</p>	<p>7. Ол ауырғандықтан үйде жүр.</p> <p>Ol auyrgandyktan uide zhur</p> <p>He/She because he/she was sick at home is walking.</p> <p>He is at home because he is sick.</p>
<p>8. Саған қайсы бала ұнайды?</p> <p>Sagan kaisy bala unaidy</p> <p>To you which guy like?</p> <p>Which guy do you like?</p>	<p>8. Маған екінші бала ұнайды.</p> <p>Magan ekinshi bala unaidy</p> <p>To me second guy like.</p> <p>I like the second guy.</p>
<p>9. Сен қандай үй сатып алдың?</p> <p>Sen kandai ui satyp aldyn</p>	<p>9. Мен үлкен үй сатып алдым.</p> <p>Men ulken ui satyp aldym</p> <p>I big house bought.</p>

You what kind of house bought? What kind of house did you buy?	I bought a big house.
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3.4 Other constructions in which wh-items can occur

In Kazakh language, interrogative expressions, commonly referred to as "wh-items," are not restricted solely to direct questions but also find application in various syntactic constructions, thereby contributing to the richness and complexity of Kazakh grammar. These constructions encompass a range of linguistic contexts, including indirect questions, embedded clauses, relative clauses, exclamatory sentences, conditional sentences, and compound-complex sentences.

Indirect questions serve as a prevalent context for the utilization of wh-items in Kazakh. These constructions often involve the embedding of interrogative elements within subordinate clauses, allowing for nuanced inquiry or speculation within broader discourse structures. Similarly, embedded clauses provide a syntactic environment for the integration of wh-items, enabling the expression of complex relationships and dependencies within sentences.

() Ол кім келе жатқанын сұрады.

Ol kim kele zhatkanyn surady

She who was coming asked

She asked who was coming.

() Маған не оқып жатқаның қызықты.

Magan ne okyp zhatkanyn kyzykty

To me what are reading interesting.

I wonder what you are reading.

() Ол ең жақын жердегі дүкеннің қайда екенін сұрады.

Ol en zhakyn zherdegi dukennin kaida ekenin surady
He closest at place store's where is asked.
He asked where the nearest store was.

() Мен оның неге ерте кетіп қалғанын білмеймін.
Men onyn nege erte ketip kalganyn bilmeimin
I her why early left I do not know.
I am not sure why she left early.

() Маған саған қайсы түс ұнайтынын айт.
Magan sagan kaisy tus unaitynyn ait
To me to you which color like tell.
Tell me which color you prefer.

() Мен қайсы түсті таңдарымды білмеймін.
Men kaisy tus-ti tanda-r-ym-dy bil-me-i-min.
I which color to choose do not know.
I don't know which color to choose.

() Ол маған мәселені қалай шешуге болатынын көрсетті.
Ol magan maseleni kalai sheshuge bolatynyn korsetti.
He to me problem how to solve can showed.
He showed me how to solve the problem.

Furthermore, exclamatory sentences in Kazakh incorporate wh-items to convey heightened emotional or rhetorical emphasis, thereby imbuing statements with a sense of urgency, surprise, or intensity. This usage highlights the versatility of wh-items in accommodating various pragmatic functions within the linguistic repertoire of Kazakh speakers.

() Сен не деген ғажап елде болдың!
Sen ne degen gazhap elde boldyn

You what said miracle in country were!
In what kind of country you were!

() Сен қандай керемет адамды кездестірдің!
Sen kandai keremet adamdy kezdestirdin
You what kind of amazing person met!
What kind of person you met!

() Ол саған не деген әдемі көйлек сыйлады!
Ol sagan ne degen ademi koilek syilady
He to you what said beautiful dress gifted!
What a beautiful dress he gifted to you!

() Ол саған қандай әдемі көйлек сыйлады!
Ol sagan kandai ademi koilek syilady
He to you what kind of beautiful dress gifted!
What a beautiful dress he gifted to you!

Chapter 4. Contrasts in Wh-Item Utilization between Kazakh and English Languages

4.1 Wh-movement

The concept of wh-movement, also known as wh-fronting, wh-extraction, or wh-raising, is a fundamental aspect within the syntax of many languages. It involves the syntactic manipulation of interrogative terms, commonly referred to as wh-words, in English linguistics. These wh-words include "what," "when," "where," "who," "why," and other interrogatives such as "how."

In English, when sentences or clauses include a wh-word, they typically deviate from the standard word order by positioning the wh-word towards the beginning of the sentence or clause, rather than its usual place later in the sentence.

- () I have met John.
- () Whom have you met?

This instance demonstrates the occurrence of wh-movement when a constituent is questioned, which originally appears to the right of the finite verb in the equivalent declarative sentence. Despite this movement, the main clause maintains its V2 word order, with the interrogative element shifted to the initial position while the finite auxiliary verb remains in the second position.

Kazakh, on the other hand, does not exhibit wh-movement. In Kazakh, wh-words remain in situ, maintaining their original positions within the sentence structure. This distinction underscores a fundamental difference in question formation between the two languages, with English exhibiting the wh-movement while Kazakh retains the wh-word in its original position.

- () Мен Джонды кездестірдім.
Men Dzhon-dy kezdestirdim.

I **John-ACC** I met

I have met John.

() Сен кімді кездестірдің?

Sen **kim-di** kezdestirdin?

You WHO-ACC you met

Whom have you met?

4.2 Do-support

In many cases, we need to use the do-support to make it possible to move a 'wh-word' to the front of a sentence. This movement relies on subject-auxiliary inversion.

The term 'do-support' pertains to the employment of the verb 'do' (including its conjugations 'did' and 'does') as an auxiliary element in the syntactic construction of negation, interrogation, ellipsis, and emphasis within English language (Culicover 2008).

The main verb within a sentence holds semantic significance, conveying meaning, whereas the auxiliary verb does not carry this weight, leading to its designation as a "dummy." Nonetheless, it contributes a grammatical function by being necessary for the syntactic correctness of an English sentence (Radford 2004, 177-178).

Additionally, when a verb alone cannot undergo inversion, do-support becomes necessary in such instances where verb inversion is not possible (Radford 2004, 48).

The presence of an auxiliary (or copular) verb facilitates subject–auxiliary inversion, a requirement for constructing most interrogative sentences in English. If an auxiliary or copula is already present, the use of do-support is unnecessary in question formation:

() She will sing.

Will she sing?

The auxiliary “will” inverts with the subject “she”.

() He is at work.

Is he at work?

The copula “is” inverts with the subject “he”.

This principle extends beyond Yes/No questions to encompass questions constructed with interrogative words as well:

() Where will she sing?

In situations where there is no auxiliary or copula already in the sentence, the inversion necessary for forming questions mandates the introduction of an auxiliary verb, typically in the form of do-support. This auxiliary serves to facilitate the subject–auxiliary inversion required for interrogative sentence structures in English.

() He often has dinner at home.

Where does he often have dinner?

When the interrogative word functions as the subject or part of the subject of the sentence, there is no inversion of the subject and auxiliary verb. Therefore, in such cases, there is no requirement for do-support to form the question.

() Who painted it?

In contrast to English, Kazakh language does not require the use of "do-support" in certain grammatical contexts. Specifically, Kazakh interrogative sentences, including those with wh-words, do not employ auxiliary verbs like "do," "does," or "did" to form questions. Instead, the formation of interrogative sentences typically involves the use of interrogative words and interrogative particles rather than auxiliary verbs like in English.

Wh-items such as “кім? (kim) - who; не? (ne) - what; қайда? (kaida) - where; қашан? (kashan)- when; қай? (kai) - which; қандай? (kandai) - what kind of; нешеу? (nesheu), неше? (neshe), қанша? (kansha) - how much/many; қайдан? (kaidan) - from where; қалай? (kalai) - how; қайсы? (kaisy), нешінші? (neshinshi) – which”, are employed to introduce questions, while interrogative particles such as “ma/me, ba/be, pa/pe” are often appended to the end of a sentence to indicate a question. Kazakh also relies on intonation to convey interrogative meaning, thereby obviating the need for auxiliary support in these instances.

4.3 Case declension

English and Kazakh exhibit differences due to their respective grammatical structures. In English, the set of wh-words includes familiar interrogatives such as "who," "what," "where," "when," "why," "which," "whose," "whom," and "how." However, in Kazakh, the range of wh-words is more extensive due to the declension system applied to pronouns. This declension system allows for the modification of pronouns to reflect various grammatical functions, resulting in a broader array of wh-words.

Cases	kim (who)	ne (what)	kashan (when)	kalai (how)	kai (which)
Nominative	kim (who)	ne (what)	kashan (when)	kalai (how)	kai (which)
Genitive	kimnin (whose)	nenin (of what)	-	-	-
Dative	kimge (to whom)	nege (to what/why)	kashanga (when)	-	-
Accusative	kimdi (whom)	neni (what)	-	-	-

Locative	kimde (who)	nede (where)	kashanda (when)	-	kaida (where)
Ablative	kimnen (from whom)	neden (from what/how/why)	kashannan (since when)	-	kaidan (from where)
Instrumental	kimmen (with whom)	nemen (with what)	-	-	-

Furthermore, a notable exception in Kazakh is the word "how," which, unlike other wh-words, does not exhibit extensive inflection due to the language's case system. In Kazakh, which is an agglutinative language, grammatical information is conveyed by adding suffixes to words. As a result, wh-items in Kazakh may take on different case endings depending on their syntactic role within the sentence.

This contrasts with English, which lacks extensive case marking and typically maintains a fixed form for its wh-words regardless of their grammatical function in the sentence. These differences in grammatical structure contribute to distinct patterns of wh-word usage between English and Kazakh.

4.4 Pro-drop language

Kazakh is classified as a pro-drop language, meaning it frequently omits pronouns in sentences where the subject can be inferred from verb conjugations or context. This contrasts with English, which generally requires explicit subject pronouns in most sentences.

In Kazakh, the endings of verbs provide rich information about the subject of the action, including who or what is performing the action, the number of individuals involved, and when the action took place. Through verb conjugations, Kazakh speakers can discern the

subject's identity, whether it's a singular or plural entity, and the tense of the action. This linguistic feature allows for more concise and contextually driven communication, as the need for explicit subject pronouns is reduced.

In English, conversely, subject pronouns are typically required to indicate the performer of the action, and verb conjugations provide less information about the subject. In informal or conversational English, subject pronouns are sometimes dropped when the subject is understood from context or when the verb form itself indicates the subject. However, English sentences often include explicit subject pronouns to avoid ambiguity and ensure clarity in communication.

4.5 Relative clauses in English

A relative clause is an embedded subordinate clause within an NP (noun phrase). It modifies the head noun of the NP and functions as a modifier, not a complement (McCawley 1981, 62; Fabb 1990, 50-51; Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 455). Relative clauses are a vital part of English grammar, providing extra information about nouns or pronouns in a sentence. They are introduced by relative pronouns such as *who*, *which*, and *that*, including their variations like *whom* and *whose*. Mastering the use and rules of relative clauses can significantly improve both writing and speaking skills, particularly in formal contexts (Scott, 2009, 25).

Relative clauses can be restrictive, a-restrictive or non-restrictive. Restrictive relative clauses (RRCs) act as syntactic adjectives, restricting or specifying the referent of the head noun (Benveniste 1966, 222; Dik 1997, 25; Schachter 1973, 42).

() The students who study hard get good grades.

A-Restrictive Relative Clauses (ARRCs) provide discourse-new, non-identifying information about the entity designated by the containing NP. They are embedded within

indefinite NPs and are relevant to the broader discourse context (Chierchia & McConnell-Ginet 1990, 330).

Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses (NRRCs) do not help in identifying a particular referent but rather add non-identifying, discourse-relevant information (Loock 2007; Cornish 2009, 584).

() My brother, who lives in New York, is visiting us.

Relative clauses are constituents of type C'' in X' syntax, introduced by relative pronouns (wh-pronouns) or relative markers (such as "that" or zero) (Lyons, 1977: 622–635).

In standard English grammar, a variety of relative pronouns exists within the wh- series: "what" (indefinite, non-human), "which" (definite, specific non-human), "who/whom" (human), "whose" (indicating possession), "where" (location), and "when" (time). However, contemporary usage in both spoken and written English shows that the relative pronoun "where" is often used in a broader, more abstract sense of location (cf. Malan 1999, 12; Larreya & Rivière 2010, 354).

Apart from "who" (subject), "whom" (non-subject), and "whose" (genitive), wh-pronouns are not restricted by grammatical function; they can connect to subject, direct object, indirect object, or oblique object relative verbs. These characteristics, including case-marking where relevant, and the specificity or generality of referents (e.g., "which" vs. "what"), are typical of pronouns across languages, distinguishing them from subordinators, which serve purely grammatical purposes (cf. Quirk et al. 1985, 1060).

An intriguing feature of "what" among wh-pronouns is its ability to contain its own antecedent ("that" + "which"), which may explain why it stands alone in not requiring a relative verb. Wh-pronouns appear in various types of relative clauses: restrictive (as in the example provided by Larreya & Rivière 2010, 354), non-restrictive (or appositive) nominal relatives (cf. Michael Mosley 2014, 9), and propositional relatives. These

examples illustrate their versatility in linking clauses and specifying relationships within sentences.

Prepositions in relative clauses can be placed at the beginning or end of the clause:

- Fronted: "The house in which I grew up is sold." (Fowler 2015, 649).
- Stranded: "The house I grew up in is sold." (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 465).

In formal writing, fronted prepositions are preferred, while in casual speech, stranded prepositions are more common (Garner 2010, 298).

Free relative clauses do not have an antecedent and are introduced by pronouns like what, who, and whoever:

() I like what you've done.

() Whoever wins will get a prize (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 1068-1070).

In American English, "that" is often used in restrictive clauses to avoid ambiguity, whereas "which" is used in non-restrictive clauses (Merriam-Webster 1995, 895).

Fused relative constructions combine the antecedent and the relative pronoun into one word, such as "what" ("What he said was surprising.") (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 626-628).

Some adverbial clauses can serve as relative clauses. This includes:

- Clauses that modify a noun, where the adverb is either stated or implied (and typically can be replaced by a relative clause): For instance, "Here's the place I live" can be understood as "Here's the place [where] I live" or "Here's the place in which I live." Similarly, "This is the reason we did it" is equivalent to "This is the reason [why] we did it" or "This is the reason for which we did it."
- Clauses that act similarly to free relative clauses but serve an adverbial function: Examples include "I won't hide where you hide" and "I'll do it how you do it" or

"I'll do it however you do it." Additionally, in a structure more akin to a standard free relative clause, you might say "I see how you do it" or "I saw where he went."

Relative clauses enhance English by adding extra information about nouns. Understanding their usage, including the choice and placement of relative pronouns and prepositions, helps in achieving clearer and more precise communication. Whether using restrictive or non-restrictive clauses, mastering these grammatical structures is essential for proficient English (Strunk & White 1999, 59; Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 1039).

4.6 Relative and interrogative content clauses in Kazakh language

In Kazakh language, the formation of relative clauses does not utilize wh-words. Instead, the construction of relative clauses is achieved through a change in word order. This linguistic feature distinguishes Kazakh from English that employ wh-words to introduce relative clauses, thereby reflecting a syntactic structure unique to Kazakh.

() Маған үй тапсырмасын орындауға көмектескен мұғалім өте мейірімді.

Magan ui tapsyrma-syn oryndauga komektesken mugalim ote meiirimdi.

To me homework-ACC to do helped teacher very kind

The teacher who helped me with my homework is very kind.

() Өткен жылы сатып алған көлігім өте сенімді.

Otken zhyly satyp alghan koligim ote senimdi.

Last year bought my car very reliable

The car which I bought last year is very reliable.

() Біз пикник өткізген саябақ әдемі.

Biz piknik otkizgen sayabak ademi.

We picnic spent park beautiful

The park where we had our picnic is beautiful.

() Ең алғаш танысқан күн есімде.
En algash tanyskan kun yesimde
Very first met day in my memory
I remember the day when we first met.

Wh-words are reserved for use in interrogative content clauses, often called indirect questions,. The interrogative content clauses in Kazakh exhibit a tendency for the verb to appear at the end of the clause. This structure is a characteristic feature of Kazakh syntax, contributing to the language's flexible word order. In contrast, English generally adheres to a more rigid word order, with the verb typically appearing in a fixed position relative to other elements in the clause. In interrogative content clauses, the full range of wh-items can be utilized.

() Мен оның кім екенін білемін.
Men onyn kim ekenin bilemin
I [his/her who that is] I know.
I know who he/she is.

() Біз сенің не істегеніңді білеміз.
Biz senin ne istegenindi bilemiz
We [your what you did] we know.
We know what you did.

() Мен сенің қайда бара жатырғаныңды көрдім.
Men senin kaida bara zhatyrganyndy kordim
I [your where that you were going] I saw.
I saw where you were going.

() Мен оның қалай жасалатынын білемін.
Men onyn kalai zhasalatynyn bilemin
I [its how is made] I know.
I know how it is made.

() Мен оның қашан болатынын білемін.

Men onyn kashan bolatynyn bilemin

I [its when will happen] I know.

I know when it will happen.

() Мен оның неге үйде жүргендігін білемін.

Men onyn nege uide zhurgendigin bilemin

I [his/her why at home that he/she is walking] I know.

I know why he/she is at home.

() Мен саған қайсы бала ұнайтынын білемін.

Men sagan kaisy bala unaitynyn bilemin

I [to you which guy like] I know.

I know which guy you like.

() Мен сенің қандай үй сатып алғаныңды білемін.

Men sagan kandai ui satyp alganyndy bilemin

I [your what kind of house that you bought] I know.

I know what kind of house you bought.

Conversely, English employs a more standardized word order, with the verb typically occupying a specific position relative to the subject, object, and other constituents in the clause. While English does permit some variation in word order for stylistic or rhetorical purposes, it generally maintains a more fixed structure compared to Kazakh.

4.7 English exclamative clauses

In various scholarly works (Elliot 1974; Rosengren 1992; Huddleston 1993a, 1993b; Michaelis and Lambrecht 1996; Michaelis 2001; d’Avis 2002; Zanuttini and Portner 2003; Collins 2005), it has been described that exclamations convey the speaker's emotional reaction to a situation. Typically, this emotional reaction is one of surprise, indicating that the speaker perceives the situation as unexpected. Exclamations inherently reflect the speaker's perspective. While this generalization encompasses many examples of exclamations, it does not fully explain all instances. For instance, Zanuttini and Portner (2003, 54) identify examples in (6) that do not convey surprise but rather express appreciation or admiration. These examples suggest that a broader interpretation of exclamations, which includes non-canonical meanings, may be necessary.

- (6) a. What a delicious dinner you’ve made. (appreciation)
- b. What a nice house you’ve got. (admiration)

Grimshaw (1979, 285) posits that exclamations are "inherently factive," meaning that the truth of the proposition they express is assumed, although the evaluation of it is not. The examples given in (6) could be used in conversations where both the speaker and listener acknowledge the existence of a delicious dinner or a nice house. However, using these exclamations outside of this shared context would be quite unusual. Consequently, exclamatory clauses can only be embedded under factive predicates, unlike interrogative clauses, as demonstrated in (7) and (8).

- (7) a. John knows what a fool he is.
- b. *John wonders what a fool he is.

- (8) a. I know how tall he is. (can be both interrogative and exclamative)
- b. I don’t know how tall he is. (only interrogative)

For similar reasons, exclamations cannot function as answers to questions, as noted by Grimshaw (1979, 321) and Collins (2005, 4). An exclamation like "What a strong performance she gave!" would be an unsuitable response to a question such as "How was the concert?" Additionally, the subject in exclamations must be known or identifiable to

both the speaker and listener, often indicated by a definite noun phrase (Michaelis 2001, 1041):

- (10) a. *What a nice cake no one ate!
b. ??I can't believe how much a guy spent!

Thus, the role of exclamations lies not in conveying a proposition but in expressing an affective response, with the propositional content being assumed. This affective response is thought to be related to a scalar implicature that exclamations typically convey, as suggested by Michaelis and Lambrecht (1996, 378) and Zanuttini and Portner (2003, 51). For example, saying "How tall John is!" introduces a scale of height, indicating that John is extremely tall. Similarly, "What a fool John is!" implies that John's foolishness is extreme on a scale of foolishness. This scalar implicature is interpreted as an emotional reaction.

In English, exclamations are expressed through a diverse array of constructions, which will be briefly outlined below. Two prominent types of exclamatory constructions are what-exclamatives and how-exclamatives, as exemplified in (11):

- (11) a. [I know] What a nice campus this is!
b. [You won't believe] How much noise they make!

When used as independent main clauses, what-exclamatives and how-exclamatives can be distinguished from other clause types by their unique word order. However, when these clauses are embedded, their word order aligns with that of embedded constituent interrogatives.

Main clause what/how-exclamatives have distinctive features that set them apart from their embedded versions. Specifically, only the interrogative words what and how are permitted in these main clauses, a restriction that is not entirely clear. For instance, while the interrogative words who and why are acceptable in embedded clauses, they are not allowed in main clause exclamatives, as demonstrated by the following examples:

- (12) a. *Why he bought that coat!
b. It's incredible why he bought that coat!

- (13) a. *Who they hired!
b. You won't believe who they hired!

Michaelis (2001, 1047) suggests that the overlap between exclamative and constituent interrogatives is due to their shared semantic basis and presuppositions. For example, the interrogative *How much did John spend?* presupposes that John spent a certain amount. Similarly, the exclamative *How much John spent!* conveys the same presupposition, indicating that the variable is at an extreme position on a contextual scale. In contrast, the interrogative seeks to have the addressee provide the information.

Given that what/how-exclamatives have specific semantic and syntactic characteristics and stand in contrast to declarative, interrogative, and imperative clauses, it is reasonable to regard them as a distinct clause type, on par with the main types of clauses. This view is supported by authoritative English grammars (Quirk et al. 1985, 803, 833-835; Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 918-923).

Besides what/how-exclamatives, English uses a broad range of constructions to express exclamations (Elliot 1974, 232; Michaelis and Lambrecht 1996, 375-376). While these constructions will be briefly reviewed, they will not be further explored in detail as they are not specifically dedicated to exclamations but should be analyzed as indirect speech acts within the literal force paradigm.

The examples in (14) through (16) demonstrate how interrogative and declarative clauses can also convey exclamations. For instance, (14) is a polar interrogative main clause, while (15) illustrates declarative main clauses. Example (16) shows that subordinate declarative clauses can also serve to express exclamations. Example (15c) represents a unique case involving noun phrase extraposition, with intonation and certain lexical expressions (e.g., *Boy!*, *Wow!*, *so*) functioning as illocutionary force indicators:

(14) Boy! Is syntax easy!

(15) a. Wow! He can drive!

b. These flowers are so beautiful!

c. It's amazing the difference! (The difference is amazing.)

(16) [I can't believe] That she could behave like this!

Exclamations can also be expressed through internally modified noun phrases, as shown in (17). These formations appear to be more than just ad-hoc creations and may be considered a distinct construction type:

(17) a. The people he invites!

b. The books he reads!

c. The places he travels to!

d. The times he rings me!

e. The reasons he invents for not coming!

4.8 Kazakh exclamative clauses

In Kazakh, exclamatory sentences are not only used to convey information but can also serve interrogative or imperative functions depending on the context and emotional intent. This is why exclamatory sentences often blend emotional expression with informational content. Their formation can be divided into two groups. They are sentences with distinctive exclamatory intonation and sentences with distinctive morphological composition.

When exclamatory sentences are formed through distinctive intonation, the speaker expresses an additional emotional attitude or mood in their statement, whether declarative, interrogative, or imperative. In such exclamatory sentences, the speaker's

emotional attitude is conveyed with various shades of meaning (such as joy, approval, admiration, sarcasm, reproach, regret, surprise, or sadness). Typically, the definition of these sentences can be interpreted based on the speech situation, context, or the author's words.

A distinct group of exclamatory sentences with specific morphological composition conveys either an additional emotional meaning or purely expresses an emotional attitude in the following ways:

- Through the conditional mood.

() Сен екеуміз би билесек!

Sen ekeumiz bi bilesek

You two of us if we dance

If only you and I could dance!

- By adding the suffix “-shy/-shi” to the conditional mood.

() Осындай пысық адам болсайшы!

Osyndai pysyk adam bolsaishy

Like this nimble person be

Be nimble like this man!

- Through particles and modal words (goi, au, da, ai, ma, edi).

() Ол өте жақсы ғой!

Ol ote zhaksy goi

He very good isn't he

He is really good, isn't he?

- Using special nouns and verbs “keremet (excellent), tamasha (wonderful), gazhap (amazing)”.

() Қандай ғажап көрініс!

Kandai gazhap korinis

What kind of wonderful sight

What a wonderful sight!

- Through interrogative pronouns like “kandai (what kind of), kalai (how), kansha (how much/many)”, and pointing pronoun “mine (here is)”, or the phrase “ne degen (what a)”, and verbs in the predicate such as “kara (look), kor (see), ait (say), baika (notice)” used in a figurative sense.

() Сен не деген ғажап елде болдың!

Sen ne degen gazhap elde boldyn

You what said miracle in country were!

In what kind of country you were!

() Сен қандай керемет адамды кездестірдің!

Sen kandai keremet adam-dy kezdestirdin

You what kind of amazing person-ACC you met!

What kind of person you met!

- As a nominative sentence (expressing emotion).

() Өрт

Ort

Fire

Fire!

- Exclamatory sentences related to customs or traditions.

() Кеш жарық!

Kesh zharyk

Evening light

Good evening!

() ҚҰТТЫ БОЛСЫН!

Kutty bolsyn

Happy let him/her/it be

Congratulations!

- Through special vocatives and parenthetical words in purposeful sentences.

() Бұл, әрине дұрыс!

Bul, arine durys

This of course correct

This, of course, is correct!

- Through emotional interjections.

() Алақай!

Alakai

Hurray!

Both English and Kazakh utilize wh-items to construct exclamatory sentences, but Kazakh demonstrates greater diversity and flexibility in expressing exclamations. This is achieved through the use of additional particles, suffixes, and various wh-combinations. In contrast, English exclamatory sentences are more restricted, primarily relying on "what" and "how" in main clauses, with a strong emphasis on preserving a specific word order.

Conclusion

In this study a comparative analysis of wh-items in Kazakh and English were provided, highlighting the structural patterns, functional usage, and key differences between the two languages.

In Chapter 4, I thoroughly examined the syntactic differences between Kazakh and English in relation to the use of wh-items, particularly in the context of wh-movement, do-support, case declension, pro-drop features, and relative clauses.

Wh-movement is a syntactic process observed in many languages where interrogative words, or wh-words, are repositioned to the beginning of a sentence. English frequently employs wh-movement, resulting in deviations from standard word order. In contrast, Kazakh does not utilize wh-movement. Instead, wh-words remain in their original position within the sentence, underscoring a fundamental difference in the formation of questions between these two languages.

The phenomenon of do-support, where the auxiliary verb "do" is inserted to facilitate question formation and maintain subject-auxiliary inversion, is prevalent in English. This occurs when there is no other auxiliary verb present, as seen in "Where does he often have dinner?" Kazakh, however, does not require do-support. Instead, interrogative sentences are formed using wh-words and interrogative particles, with intonation often playing a crucial role in conveying the interrogative meaning.

A key distinction between English and Kazakh lies in the latter's use of a more extensive set of wh-words due to its declension system. In Kazakh, pronouns undergo modification to reflect various grammatical cases, resulting in a broader array of wh-words that correspond to different syntactic roles within a sentence. English, by contrast, lacks such extensive case marking, leading to a relatively fixed form for its wh-words regardless of their grammatical function.

Kazakh is categorized as a pro-drop language, which means it frequently omits subject pronouns when the subject is inferable from verb conjugations or context. This feature contrasts sharply with English, where explicit subject pronouns are generally required for clarity and to avoid ambiguity, even though English verb conjugations provide less information about the subject.

In English, relative clauses are typically introduced by relative pronouns like "who," "which," and "that." These clauses provide additional information about a noun and can be restrictive, non-restrictive, or a-restrictive. In Kazakh, however, relative clauses do not use wh-words; instead, they are constructed through alterations in word order. This difference reflects the distinct syntactic structures of the two languages.

Kazakh's formation of interrogative content clauses utilizes a broad range of wh-items, with a notable tendency for the verb to appear at the end of the clause. This flexible word order contrasts with the more rigid structure of English. Additionally, English employs specific constructions like what-exclamatives and how-exclamatives to express emotional reactions, which are conveyed through distinct word orders that differ from those used in interrogative clauses.

While this study offers valuable insights into the use of wh-items in English and Kazakh, it has limitations. Future research could explore how cultural contexts affect wh-item usage, investigate dialectal variations, analyze the pragmatic functions of wh-items in communication, examine their acquisition in language learners, and include comparative studies with additional languages. These areas could further enrich our understanding and improve language learning approaches.

The significance of this work lies in its provision of a comprehensive analysis of wh-items in both Kazakh and English, thereby facilitating a deeper understanding for English-speaking individuals interested in learning Kazakh, as well as for Kazakh speakers learning English. It helps learners understand the subtle differences in how wh-items work in both languages, leading to a more intuitive and informed way of learning.

This deeper understanding can improve how effectively they learn and use these languages, leading to better communication and more meaningful learning experiences.

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