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Abstract

In this paper, we describe the similarities as well as differences between Japanese and Uyghur grammar. Especially Japanese and Uyghur particles and suffixes are studied from a comparative linguistic view poit.

Keywords: Japanese, Uyghur, particle/suffix "mo" and "ya"

Introduction

Japanese, Uyghur are *Subject-Object-Verb* languages. Thus, in a sentence the subject generally comes first, the object next, and the verb last.

Example

Subject + Object + Verb

Japanese: Okosan ga pan o kaimashita. / My mother bought bread.

Uyghur: Annam nan setiwaldi.

Subject and Predicate

The predicate is the core of both the Japanese and Uyghur sentence. It comes at the end, and it must be a verb or verbal form. In Japanese and Uyghur, a verbal form is a noun plus copula or a verbal adjective.

Examples

I : John san wa Nihongo o hanashimasu./ John speaks Japanese

U: John Yapon tilini sozliyeleydu.

In Japanese and Uyghur the predicate must be at the end of the sentence.

Gender

Japanese and Uyghur do not have gender. There are no special endings to show masculine, feminine, or neuter forms.

Articles

Japanese and Uyghur do not use articles before nouns.

The Dependency Structure of Sentences

In Japanese, the dependency structure of a sentence is usually represented by the relationship between phrasal units called "bunsetsu" and it is said that Japanese dependencies have the following rules (Watanabe Yasuyoshi, et al. 2000, p.21; Kiyotaka Uchimoto, et al. 1999, p.13):

- i. Dependencies are directed from left to right.
- ii. Dependencies do not cross.
- iii. A bunsetsu depends on only one bunsetsu

Observing the dependency structure of sentence in Uyghur, we can also find the following characteristics that are very similar to the Japanese dependency rules above:

- i. Dependency relation of a word to another is always from left to right.
- ii. Dependency links between the words of sentence do not cross.
- iii. The dependent word could link to only one head word.

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So Japanese and Uyghur are agglutinative languages and they have many syntactical and morphological similarities. There are also morphological differences between the two languages. For example, Uyghur has no verbal conjugations, but Japanese grammarians say that Japanese verbs do conjugate.

In this paper, we will discuss the similarities and differences of the Japanese and Uyghur particle " \underline{mo} " and suffixe " \underline{ya} "

1. The Japanese particle \underline{mo} and Uyghur \underline{mu} ((too; also; (not) \sim either)) indicate that a proposition about the preceding element X is also true when another similar proposition is true.

A. Subject

J: Watashi mo gakusei da / desu (I'm a student too)

U: Men mu oqughuchi

B. Topic (subject)+Direct Object

J: Watashi wa supeingo <u>mo</u> hanasu/ hanashimasu. (I speak Sapanish too.)

U: Men ispanchini **mu** sozliyeleymen.

C. Topic (subject)+Indirect Object

J: Watashi wa Murayama-san ni <u>mo</u> purezento o ageru/ agemasu

(I will give a present to Mr. Murayama, too)

U: Men Murayama ependingi <u>mu</u> sowgha berimen.

Formation:

(i) Noun mo

I: watashi mo (I, too/ me (as direct object), too)

U: Men mu

(ii) Noun (Particle)

J: Nihon (ni) **mo** (in/to Japan, too)

U: Yapondi mu

(iii) Noun Particle

I: sensei ni mo (to/for the teacher, too(indirect object)

U: Oqutquchic ni mu

I: Furansu kara mo (from France, too)

U: Fransiye din mu

J: Igirisu de mo (in England too)

U: Engliye di mu

J: tomodachi to mo (with my friend, too)

U: Dost bilen mu

Examples

(a) J: Hato-san wa Nihon e itta. Ruisu-san mo (Nihon e) itta.

(Mr. Hart went to Japan. Mr. Lewis also went to Japan)

U: Hart ependim Yapongha ketti. Lewis ependim mu Yapongha ketti.)

(b) J: Hayashi-san wa tenisu o shimasu. (Kare wa) gorufu <u>mo</u> shimasu.

(Mr. Hayashi plays tennis. He plays golf, too.)

U: Hayashi ependim pey top oynaydu. we goluf <u>mu</u> oynaydu.

(c) J: Kono machi de wa atarashi sakana ga kaemasen. Tonari no machi de mo (atarashii sakana ga) kaemasen.

(You can't buy fresh fish in this town. You can't buy it in the next town, either)

U:Siz bu yezidin yengi beliq setiwalalmaysiz. Yenidiki yezidin <u>mu</u> ohashashla setiwalalmaysiz.

Notes

- In general in both Japanese and Uyghur, when the element X <u>mo</u> and <u>mu</u> appears in a sentence, a related sentence with the element Y (plus particle if necessary) in place of X like (2) is presupposed.
 - J: Watashi wa Nyuyoku e <u>mo</u> itta. (I went to New York, too)
 U: Men Neyoruk ki <u>mu</u> barghan.
 - J: Watashi wa Bosuton e itta. (I went to Boston)
 U: Men Boston gha barghan.

Thus, when $X \underline{mo}$ and \underline{mu} appear in a sentence, $X \underline{mo}$ and \underline{mu} are always the element under focus in that sentence.

- There are cases in which X mo is used, although it does not exactly replace
 the element Y in the presupposed sentence. For example, (3b) can be spoken
 after (3a)
 - a. J: Watashini no ie wa ima ga semai.
 (The living room of my house is small)

U: Mening oyumning yataq oyi kichik.

b. J: Sore ni daidokoro mo fubenda

(On top that, the kitchen is inconvenient, too)

U: Bashtiki u ashhani **mu** qolaysiz

In this case, the speaker implies that his house is inconvenient when he says (3a), and this implication is the presupposition of (3b), where the speaker elaborates on the inconvenience.

3. Japanese <u>mo</u> and Uyghur <u>mu</u>, a marker which indicates emphasis. (even; as many/much/long...as; (not) even (one); (not) any.

A. Topic (subject)+Noun

J: Gurei-san wa konna muzukashi kanji <u>mo</u> yomeru / yomemasu

(Mr. Gray can read even difficult kanji like this)

U: Grey ependim hetta mushundaq qeyin hetlerni \underline{mu} oquyalaydu.

J: Harisu-san wa konna yasashii kanji mo yomenai / yomemasen.

(Mr. Harris cannot read even easy kanji like this.)

U: Haris ependim hetta mushundaq asan hetni <u>mu</u> oquyalmaydu.

B. Topic (subject)+Quantifier+Predicate (affirmative)

J: Watashi wa kanji o hassen <u>mo</u> shitte iru /imasu

(I know as many as eight thousand kanji.)

U: Men sekkizmingdin mu oshuq hetni bilimen.

C. Topic (subject)+One Counter+Predicate (negative)

J: Watashi wa kanji o hito tsu mo shiranai / shirimasen.

(I don't know even one kanji.)

U: Men kanjidin bir mu hetni bilmeymen.

D. Topic (subject)+WH-word+ Predicate (negative)

I: Watashi wa nani mo tabenakatta / tabemasendeshita.

(I didn't eat anything)

U: Men hichnimi mu yimidim.

E. Topic (subject)+Vmasu

J: Nanshi wa watashi no hanashi o kiki <u>mo</u> shinai / shimasen

(Nancy doesn't even listen to me.)

U: Nansi mening sozumni hetta anglap mu qoymidi.

Formation

Quantifier Japanese mo and Uyghur mu

 $J: goju \ \underline{mo}$ (as many as fifty) $J: hyakunin \ \underline{mo}$ (as many as a hundred people)

U: Eliktin <u>mu</u> koprek. U: Yuzdin <u>mu</u> koprek adem.

One Counter Japanese mo and Uyghur mu

J: hitori <u>mo</u> (not) even one person) *J: hitosu* <u>mo</u> (not) even one∼)

U: Bir ademmu U: Birsi mu

WH-word Japanese mo and Uyghur mu

J: nani mo (not) anything) J: dare mo (not) anybody)

U: Hichnimi mu

U: Hichkim mu

 $\nabla masu$

mo shinai,

[: hanashi mo shinai (don't even talk)

J: tabe mo shinai

U: Sozleshkili mu

U: yigili mu

Examples

(a) J: Kyo wa kuruma ga judai mo ureta. (As many as ten cars sold today.)
 U: Bugun ondin mu koprek mashina setildi.

(b) J: Sono pati ni wa onna no ko wa hitori mo konakatta.

(No girl came to the party.)

U: Bu olturushqa bir mu qiz kelmeptu.

(c) J: Dare mo sono koto o shirimasen. (Nobody knows about it.)

U: Bu ishni hichkim mu bilmeydu.

Besides

In Japanese <u>mo</u>, Nanimo (nothing, anything), daremo (no one, nobody) and Uyghur <u>mu</u> Hichnimimu (nothing, anything), hichkimmu (no one, nobody) are used only in negative sentences. Other WH-words with <u>mo</u> and <u>mu</u> can be used in both affirmative sentences and negative sentences.

(1) J: itsumo (always; anytime)

J: dokomo (everywhere)

U: hergandag chaghdimu.

U: herqandaq yerdimu.

 Japanese <u>mo</u> and Uyghur <u>mu</u> adv. s.o.or s.t. is longer in the same state that he or it was in some time.

A. Topic (subject)+Predicate (affirmative)

J: Watashi wa <u>mo</u> hirugohan o tabeta / tabemashita

(I have already eaten my lunch)

U: Men mu chushluk tamagni yep boldum.

B. Topic (subject)+Predicate (negative)

J: Hirusan wa mo nihongo o benkyoshite inai / imasen

(Mr. Hill is not studying Japanese any longer)

U: Hill ependim Yaponchini anchi <u>mu</u> uzun ugenmidi.

Examples

(a) A: J: Mo shukudai o shimashita ka

(Have you done your homework yet (or already)?)

U: Tapshuruqingiz tugidi <u>mu</u>?

B: J: Hai, mo shimashita

(Yes, I've already done it.)

U: He..e, taprushuqum mu tugidi.

(b) J: Watashi wa mo sake o nomimasen.

U: Men emdi haraq <u>mu</u> ichmeymen.

(c) J: Haruo-kun wa <u>mo</u> daijobudes.

(Hauo is al right now.)

U: Haruo mu yahshi.

4. Japanese mo~mo and Uyghur mu ~mu str, (both~ and~; neither ~nor).
The repeated use of a particle meaning 'also' to list elements belonging to the same part of speech.

A. Noun+Noun

- J: Tanaka-san mo Nakayama-san mo depato ni tsutomete iru / imasu (Both Mr. Tanaka and Mr. Nakayama are working for a department store.)
- U: Tanaka ependim mu, Nakayama ependim mu soda-sariyida ishleydu.

B. Noun+Prt+Noun+Prt

- J: Kyoto e wa basu de <u>mo</u> densha de <u>mo</u> ikeru /ikemasu
 (We can go to Kyoto either by bus or train)
- U: Kyotogha aptobus bilen <u>mu</u>, poyiz bilen <u>mu</u> barghili bolidu.

C. Adj(i) stem + Adj(i) stem

- J: Kono Uchi wa hiroku mo semaku mo nai / arimasen
 (This house is neither big nor small)
- U: Bu oy chong <u>mu</u> emes, kichik <u>mu</u> emes.

Formation

- (i) N(prt) **mo** N(prt) **mo** (N(prt) **mo**)
 - J: sensei mo gakusei mo (both teachers and students)
 - U: Oqutquchilarmu, oqughuchilarmu.
- (ii) Adj (i) stem ku **mo** Adj (i) stem ku **mo** Neg
 - I: okiku mo chisaiku mo nai (s.t. is neither big nor small)
 - U: Chong <u>mu</u> emes, kichik <u>mu</u> emes.

- (iii) {Adj (na) stem / N} de mo {Adj (na) stem / N} de mo Neg
 - J: benride mo fubende mo nai (s.t. is neither convenient nor inconvenient)
 - U: Oolaylig mu emes, golaysiz mu emes.
 - I: sensei de mo gakusei de mo nai (s.o. is neither a teacher nor a student)
 - U: Oqutquchidi mu, oqughuchidi mu yoq.

Examples

- (a) J: Nihonjin mo amerikajin mo yoku hataruku.
 - (Both Japanese and Americans work hard.)
 - U: Yaponlar mu, Amerkiliqlar mu tiriship ishleydu.
- (b) J: Yamakawa-san wa sake mo tabako mo yarimasen.
 - (Mr. Yamakawa neither drinks nor smokes.)
 - U: Yamakawa ependim haraq <u>mu</u> ichmeydu, tamaki <u>mu</u> chekmeydu.
- (c) J: Ototo ni **mo** imoto ni **mo** hon o katte yarimashta.
 - (I bought books for both my younger brother and younger sister)
 - U: Men ukamghi mu, singlimghi mu her ikkilisige kitap setiwaldim.
- (d) J: Kazue wa bijin de <u>mo</u> fubijin de <u>mo</u> nai.
 - (Kazue is neither beautiful nor ugly.)
 - U: Kazue chirayliq mu emes, set mu emes.
- (e) J: Kono tatemono wa kireide mo rippade mo arimasen.
 - (This building is neither pretty nor magnificent.)
 - U. Bu bina chirayliq mu emes, korkem mu emes.

In Japanese and Uyghur the particles "<u>mo</u>" and "<u>mu</u>" have similar grammatical rules in sentences. But there are some differences. The Japanese language never uses question marks in the question sentence. But modern Japanese language is sometimes

employ \underline{ka} as a question marker. A sentence becomes a question by adding the particle \underline{ka} at the end. You can think of \underline{ka} as the question marker. Also question sentences never end with the particle mo.

According to *Divanu Lughatit-Turk*, the Uyghur particle <u>mu</u> at the end of sentences makes a statement into a question, also not using a question mark. However, modern Uyghur must use a question mark in these sentences.

Example

bu atmu (Is this a horse?)
bu at sening mu (Is this your horse?)
bu it mu (Is is a dog?)
barding mu (Did you go?)
kelding mu (Did you come?)

(Mahmud al-Kashgari, *Divanu Lughatit - Turk*. p.345)

When Uyghur uses the particle \underline{mu} at the end of a sentence, it becomes a question sentence. Also the particle \underline{mu} describes possibility.

Incidentally, Uyghur particle mu is mo in the Kashgar and Hotan dialects.

5. The Japanese suffix \underline{ya} , when added to noun, means to the place or shop where that thing is sold, or the person or shopkeeper who sells it.

Example

niku / meat	_ <i>niku <u>y</u>a</i> / butcher's shop
hon / book	hon <u>ya</u> / bookshop, clerk
kamera / camera	_ <i>kamera ya /</i> camera shop, clerk, owner

Also Uyghur a suffix \underline{ya} attached to names of shops, inns and restaurants or persons engaged in certain occupations.

Examples

gukkan ya /shop's satirach ya /baber's gulchi ya / florist's qasap ya / butcher's oqutquchi ya /teacher's diqqan ya /farmer's

The Japanese suffix \underline{ya} is sometimes used to downgrade a person. This use, however, is very restricted. Examples follow:

hazukashigari-ya (a shy person)
ibari-ya (a haughty person)
kodori-ya (an affected person)

But in Uyghur the suffix \underline{ya} is used to downgrade and upgrade a person and sometimes used for question sentences. This is very common. Examples follow:

U oghri ya (he is a thief)U tolimu esil adem ya (he is very excellent person)

Siz oqughuchimu ya? (are you a student?)

The Uyghur suffix \underline{ya} is only used in Kashgar and Hotan dialects. But it is not used in modern Uyghur literary language.

In both Japanese and Uyghur \underline{ya} is a coordinate conjunction that is used to list two or more items (nouns or noun phrase) in an inexhaustive fashion. In the Uyghur suffix \underline{ya} changes to $\underline{lar/ler}$

Examples

(a) J: Yamamoto-san ya Sumisu-san ga tenisu o shite iru.

(Mr. Yamamoto, Mr, Smith and others are playing tennis)

U: Yamamoto, Simid ependim ler we bashqi lar pey top oynawatidu.

(b) J: Boku wa biru ya wain o nonda.

(I drank beer, wine and things like that)

U: Men piwe, sharap we bashqa nersi ler ni ichtim

But in Uyghur, the suffix ya sometimes expresses many possibilities in the sentence.

Examples

U: Siz shopurmu ya qassapmu? (Are you a driver or a butcher?)

When the Uyghur suffix $y\underline{a}$ ends a sentence, it becomes question. If it is comes at the beginning of the sentence it becomes an exclamation.

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Example:

U: Nime ish qildingiz-ya? (What have you done?)

U: Ya Allah! (My god!)

The Japanese and Uyghur suffix ya have many similarities and differences.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, we have analyzed two agglutinative languages, Japanese, Uyghur, which have many syntactical and morphological similarities and differences. And we can understand some similar points of these two languages through the comparison of particles "mo" and "ya".

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