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REPRESENTATION OF POSSESSIVENESS IN THE VERBS OF LANGUAGES OF DIFFERENT SYSTEMS

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ABSTRACT

The present paper is devoted to the study of languages, where verbs express possessiveness by special indicators of belonging contained in their word form. It is assumed that possessiveness at a certain stage of development could be expressed by forms of personal pronouns that served as its indicators. To achieve the purpose of the study, comparative-historical, comparative and context-typological methods were used within the diachronic approach, as well as interpretation and generalization. In many languages, verbs with special indicators of belonging, which are possessive, enclitic forms of personal pronouns, form possessive conjugation. The material identity of the considered indicators in verbs and nouns shows their common origin. Apparently, in the more ancient period of speech, the subject and the action were not opposed to each other and therefore had the same grammatical indicators. Subsequently, as the nominal parts of speech and the verb differentiated, these single formants were subjected to splitting: in the nominal parts of speech they remained in a personal possessive meaning, and in the verbs they began to express subject-object relations. The present article contributes to the development of general linguistics and is of interest to researchers of the theory and typology of languages.

Keywords: possessiveness, predicate affixes, possessive affixes, possessive prefixes, personal pronoun, possessive pronouns, possessive conjugation

INTRODUCTION

Possessiveness expressed by verbs usually implies the meaning expressed by such verbs as to have and to possess, i.e. by verbs that initially have the meaning of possessiveness (belonging). In the study of languages of other systems, it turned out that in many of them the possessive meaning is expressed with the help of special indicators-affixes (Ahland 2009), which can be attached to the verb as prefixes (Yenisei languages), or as suffixes (Turkic languages). It was found that both derive from personal pronouns, which served as the initial basis for the formation of personal-possessive indicators of verbs and nouns. In some languages, the indicators of belonging follow the verb and coincide with personal pronouns (Karvovskaya 2015). In many languages, when conjugating a verb, two groups of personal predicative indicators (personal endings) are used. It is noteworthy that verbs with possessive indicators do not always express belonging directly (Long 2018) as, for example, in Yenisei languages, where verbs denoting various kinds of noise are formed with indices of belonging. Often, the indicators of belonging and predication coincide, for example, prefixes and suffixes in verbs and nouns. The personal-possessive suffixes of the nominative (main) case of nouns are structurally completely identical with the personal formant of the verb in the subject-object conjugation of the indicative mood, but differ significantly in function. The former express the belonging of an object to a person or another object, while the latter characterize the transition of the action of the subject to a particular object.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze structurally different languages and identify the features of expression of possessiveness in verbs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The material of the research is the data of languages existing both in Russia and abroad. To achieve the goal, comparative-historical, comparative and context-typological methods were used within the diachronic approach, as well as interpretation and generalization.

RESULTS

The analysis of the expression of possessiveness in verbs of various languages, as well as possessive conjugation that exists in various languages, can show that in most of them verbs are formed by indicators of belonging, which are possessive, enclitic forms of personal pronouns. Later, these possessive affixes, while continuing to gradually change, were transformed into monosyllabic possessive morphemes. For example, in Tofalar language, nouns can act as a predicate when they denote what is being said. In this case, nouns, as well as other nominal parts of speech, are made up of special postpositive predication indicators showing the category of person. In the Khakass language, the first and second person pronouns, having lost the character of an independent word, merge with the predicate as its constructing element, i.e.

they become affixes, which confirms the existence in the past of a period when nominal parts of speech and verbs were formed with the same elements of possessiveness. This is confirmed by the data of the **Yenisei languages**, where the nominal and verbal indicators show almost complete similarity. The indicators of the genitive case of personal pronouns, possessive prefixes of nominal parts of speech and indicators of one of the groups of verbs coincide in the first and second person singular. Among the languages of the **Chukotko-Kamchatkan** group, remnants of this type of conjugation are registered only in Itelmen language. In the Yukagir and Eskimo-Aleut languages, verbs also have indicators of belonging. In the **Tungus-Manchu languages**, the verbs have two groups of personal predicative indicators. The indicators of one group coincide in form with the affixes of personal belonging of names and participles. Possessive suffixes coincide with those of nouns. In the **Samoyed languages** (the Finno-Ugric group) there is a complete coincidence of the personal-possessive suffixes of the nominative (main) case with the personal formants of the verb in the subject-object conjugation of the indicative mood. This similarity indicates the common origin of these languages. Apparently, in the more ancient period of development of the language, the subject and the action were clearly not opposed to each other and therefore were structurally similar. A characteristic feature of subject-object conjugation is that the predicate correlates with both the subject and the direct object: in the person and number it corresponds to the subject, in the number – to the direct object. Possessive suffixes coincide with the personal verb endings of the object conjugation forms. The indicators of the subject of the action could be possessive suffixes, the forms of which in the object conjugation system developed some deviations. In the languages of the Caucasus, for example, Adyghe and Abkhaz, there are also verbs that contain in their word form prefixes which serve as possessiveness indicators. Both persons can be expressed simultaneously in the verb: the person of the subject and the person of the direct object. The grammatical means of expressing person in a verb are personal affixes, which are always prefixes and denote along with the person the class and the number of the subject and object. As in other languages, these affixes go back to the corresponding personal pronouns.

DISCUSSION

The present study starts with the Turkic languages. Affixes of possessiveness in the **Turkic languages** have a close relationship with the forms of personal pronouns and in almost all languages of this group, two systems of personal affixes are presented. One series is personal pronouns in the nominative case, which are postpositive, the other series partially coincides with possessive affixes. The presence of two series of personal endings in Turkic languages can be explained from a semantic-syntactic point of view: in the preposition to the noun-pronoun "I", "you", etc., there can be the participle ("collecting firewood-me" > "I collect firewood"), the possessive nature of a personal indicator showing the name of the action ("my gathering of firewood") (Tenishev and Dybo 2006: 256). It is characteristic that in all Turkic languages and dialects, despite the change in the system of possessive affixes, the **-n-** element is retained in the possessive-nominal paradigm. The fact of such

stability against the background of a deforming system may indicate a very great antiquity and the initial deep-rootedness of the -n- element. Subsequently, the formed possessive affixes continued to gradually disappear, turning into monosyllabic possessive morphemes. For example, in the Yakut language, a number of verb conjugation forms contain affixes of belonging, which have lost this meaning and have been transferred into conjugation paradigm, for example: *barbyt-tar-a* (They have gone); *Bar-yaḡ-ym* 'I will go' (Korkina and Ubryatova 1982: 129). In the Yakut language, in addition to the affixes of belonging, verbs also have affixes of predication, differing in persons and numbers. However, these affixes are absent in the third person, and their form coincides with the form of the base morpheme of the noun: *sahabyn* 'I am Yakut', *uolgun* 'you are a boy', *kini nauchcha* 'he is Russian'. In the first person and partly in the second person plural, the form of predication coincides with the form of belonging. These forms differ only in context and sentence structure: *Bihigu oḡolorbut* (belonging) *kəllilər* 'Our guys have come; *Bihigu - mannaḡy oḡolorbut* 'We are local guys' (predication) (Korkina and Ubryatova 1982: 155-156). In **Tofalar language**, nouns can also act as predicates when they indicate who or what the subject (or person) is. Nouns, like other nominal parts of speech, are formed with special post-positive indicators of predication indicating the person. In form, they coincide with personal pronouns and do not correspond to the nominal part of the predicate, as is the case, for example, in Khakass or Kazakh languages, where these predicative pronouns have already become affixes of predication. Tofalar language in this regard is identical to the Tuvan language, which also contains similar predicative pronouns (Iskhakov and Palmbakh 1961: 222-223), for example: singular, Tofalar language – *men aḡshy men*, Tuvan language – *men aḡzhy men*, Khakass language – *min aḡchybyn* – 'I am a hunter'; Tofalar – *sen aḡshy sen*, Tuvan – *sen aḡzhy sen*, Khakass – *sin aḡchyzyn* – 'You are a hunter'; Tofalar – *ol aḡshy*, Tuvan – *ol aḡzhy*, Khakass – *ol aḡshy* – 'He is a hunter'; Tofalar – *bis aḡshy bis*, Tuvan – *aḡzhy bis*, Khakass – *pis aḡchybis* – 'We are hunters' (Rassadin 1978: 27). Tuvan – *men oorenikchi* **men**, Khakass – *min yḡrenchibin* – 'I am a student'; Tuvan – *sen oorenikchk* **sen**, Khakass – *sip yḡrenchizin* – 'You are a student', etc. (Iskhakov and Palmbakh 1961: 222).

In examples from the Tuvan language, the first words are personal pronouns, and the last (in the bold type) are predicative pronouns. In the examples from Khakass, the first words are also personal pronouns, and the parts of the second words in the bold type are predicate affixes. (Iskhakov and Palmbakh 1961: 223).

In the modern **Bashkir language**, in the first and second persons singular and plural, special affixes are used, with which not only the nominal parts of speech, but also some bits of auxiliary parts of speech (postpositions, particles) are formed. The predicate affixes of the first person of both singular and plural are also personal pronouns (*myn* - me, *bez* - we) that have lost the character of independent words, for example: *ukyusymyn* 'I'm a student', *bez iazyusy byz* 'We are writers'. The affix of the second person singular goes back

to the second person pronoun singular *hin* (you). The affix of predication of the second person plural in Turkic languages also derived from the personal pronoun: *siz > sez* (you) (Dmitriev 1948: 52-53).

In **Turkish**, the affix of belonging to the first person singular, in case of consonant base morphemes, in form coincides with the affixes of predication of the first person singular: *kardeşim* 'my brother' / 'I am brother'; the difference between these two affixes depends on the stress: affixes of belonging are stressed, while the affixes of predication are not. The affix of belonging of the second person singular in case of consonant base morphemes (-t ...) in form and stress coincides with the affix of the genitive case: *kardeşin* 'your brother' / 'brother', *kitapların* 'your books' / 'books. ... (Kononov 1956: 75).

In **Balkar**, the verb is formed by special affixes, which are divided into two groups: 1) possessive affixes 2) predicative affixes derived from personal pronouns. The possessive affix of the first person singular is -m; second person singular -ng; first person plural has the -k, k' indicator; second person plural -giz. There is no affix does in the third person (Filonenko 1940: 58).

Two groups of affixes for expressing the category of person in the structure of verbs exist in the **Karaim language**.

A similar situation is observed in other Turkic languages. The authors of the present paper believe that in the Turkic languages, in the absence of possessive pronouns, personal pronouns began to act as the indicators of "possessiveness" in the verbs (denoting the subject of the action). Subsequently, the genitive case of personal pronouns served as the basis for the formation of possessive pronouns in Turkic languages. Gradually, the personal pronouns, which served as indicators of belonging to verbs, were transformed into affixes of belonging and lost their independence. The data of the Tuvan language represent the initial phase of development: from an independent word to an affix, while in the Khakass language they can already be seen as affixes. In the study of the **Yenisei** (Paleo-Asian group) languages, it was noted that both nominal parts of speech (nouns) and verbs have possessiveness indicators, which were already traced by M.A. Castrén (Castrén 1858: 139) to possessive pronouns, and which are also used (in a slightly different phonetic version) as possessive prefixes of the nominal parts of speech: *ab* – 'my', *b-op* – 'my father', *ba-ga:bde* – 'I hear'; *uk* – 'your', *k-op* – 'your father', *ku-ga:bde* 'you hear'; *buda* – 'his', *d-a-op* 'his father', *a-ga:bde* 'he hears'. There are also cases when the verbal base morphemes (infinitives) in the Yenisei languages contain the indicated possessive prefixes: *ba:t* 'to look for me', *ka:t* 'to look for you', *daa:t* 'to look for him', *da: t* 'to look for her', *naa:t* 'to look for us' or in the South Ket languages: *ptar* 'to beat me' ('my beating'), *ktar* 'to beat you' ('your beating'), *datar* 'to beat him' ('his beating'), etc. These examples, along with other facts, make it possible to say that some time ago in these languages the forms *baga:bde* 'I hear', *ba-ksa:r* 'I am spending the night', *ba-xy-b-der* 'I am wearing this (clothing)', etc. were used to indicate the belonging of the action to a person (Kreinovich 1968: 121).

The data presented clearly demonstrate the almost complete identity of the nominal and verbal morphemes. In the first and second persons singular, the indicators of the genitive case of personal pronouns and the possessive prefixes of nominal parts of speech and of one of the verb groups coincide: a:ba ki:m 'my wife'; bop 'my father'; ba-yissal 'I will spend the night'; kop 'your father'; ukse:l 'your deer'; ku-t-ung 'sees you'; ku-yissal 'You will spend the night' (Werner 1997: 134-136).

In modern Ket language, verbs denoting sound and sound effects, as well as the modal verb qoj 'to desire, to want' are formed with possessive prefixes. Cf: ab onajbata 'I grumble', uk onajbata 'you grumble', buda onajbata 'he grumbles', ap kutol'ejbata 'I whistle', ab (uk, buda, bud, ʌtna, ʌkɲa, buɲna) nʌɣajbata 'I (you, he, she, we, you, they)' (Author 2 2008: 134-135). In the examples given, the verb is preceded by a possessive pronoun: "my, your, his, her, our, your, their". Cf: ab (uɣ, but, buda, ʌtna, ʌkɲa, buɲna) qoj 'I want, you want,' etc.; Ket – ɲajteän 'I want,' verbatim for 'My Desire' (Author 1 2006: 219-225).

The American researcher Ed. Wajda, who studies Yenisei languages, singled out special possessive conjugation for these verbs (Wajda 2000: 39). A similar situation is observed in other languages of Siberia, mainly Paleo-Asian.

In **Itelmen language**, possessive (indirect-objective) conjugation is the third type of verb conjugation. This type of conjugation has two subtypes - possessive and indirect-objective conjugation - and, obviously, is among the oldest elements of the Itelmen verb system. This type of conjugation is absent in other languages of the Chukotko-Kamchatkan group. A verb has been found in the Itelmen language that can be conjugated solely as a possessive type. This is the verb chikes 'available for someone'. The verb of possessive conjugation is the core of a three-element possessive syntagma, in which the object of possession is in the absolute case, and the possessor is in locative case. Thus, this syntagma is structurally analogous to Russian syntagmata like 'I have a boat,' 'You have a boat,' 'He has a boat,' etc. Special indicators in the possessive conjugation are used to denote the person and number of the possessor, first of all the third person. It is the third-person form of the possessor that is the most striking external feature of the possessive conjugation. The object of possession, as already indicated, does not differ in person (always the third person) and is differentiated only by number using the standard plurality indicator -ʔ (chizuen 'is this /one object/' - chizyeʔn 'are these /several objects/'). The subject of possession neither has differences in six of the twelve forms of the paradigm: in chizuen it is identified only by the substitution of the specifying pronoun (kəmmank chizuen 'I have this /one object/', knank chizuen 'you have this /one object/', etc.). Three forms are clearly differentiated in the paradigm: the form of the second person plural of possessor chis kishen 'you have' (in which we see the indicator -sh, a special pluralizer of the subject of the second person), and the forms of the third

person singular and plural: *chis kinen* 'he has this (one object)', *chiskipənen* 'they have this (one object)' (Volodin 1978: 256).

In the **Yukagir language**, according to E.A. Kreinovich, the question that is put in the affirmative-subjective form of conjugation of transitive verbs is *kin ai?* 'who shot?' structurally reminds the question about the possessor *kin ilə?* 'Whose deer is this?'

The similarity is noted not only in questions, but also in answers: *mət ilə* 'my deer', *mət ai* 'I shot'; *tət ilə* 'your deer', *tət ai* 'you shot'; *tud ilə* 'his deer', *tud ai* 'he shot'. In possessive constructions, the final -l in the third-person of personal pronouns is omitted when these pronouns are combined with case endings or nouns. Therefore, the base morphemes of the third person of personal pronouns should be considered *tud(ə)* 'he' and *tutt(ə)* 'they': *tudəl* he (personal pronoun) - *tudəl'ə* him (personal pronoun) – *tudəl'ə* his (possessive pronoun); *tuttəl* they (personal pronoun) – *tuttəl'ə* their (possessive pronoun). In possessive constructions: *tud-ilə* "his deer", *titt-ilə* "their deer".

The same can be seen in the sentences: *tud ai* 'he shot', *titt ai* 'they shot'. It seems that in the latter case it is not a sentence, not a subject and predicate, but an attributive phrase, an attribute with a defined word, like the phrase *tud-ilə* 'his deer'. This impression is reinforced by the fact that the verb *susəj(l)* 'quit', beginning with *s*, in the affirmative-subjective form of conjugation has the following forms: *kin susəj?* "who quit?" - *kədə sysəj* "a man quit"; *mə susəj* 'I quit' - *mi susəj* 'we quit'.

When combined with the initial *s* of nouns, the final *t* of personal pronouns can be omitted: *məsəl' bari* (*mət - + - + - sal' bari*) 'my tooth '. In the same position, in case of combination of the final vowel of the attribute with the initial *s* of the defined word, the latter alternates with *r* (Kreinovich 1982: 133).

All this seems to indicate that sentences like *mət ai* 'I shot' are not sentences, but attributive phrases. However, *mət ai* cannot be translated as 'my shooting', since this meaning is expressed by the attributive phrase *mət-ail*.

In addition, combinations like *mət ai* have indicators of aspect and tense: *mət ai* 'I shot', *mət ainu* 'I shoot', *mət ait* 'I will shoot'. This circumstance makes the researchers consider these phrases as sentences consisting of a subject and a predicate, and not as a combination of an attribute with the defined word (Author 1 2008: 88-95).

Between the subject and the predicate of such sentences can be placed secondary members of the sentences: *kin wuə?* 'who did ?'; *kin l'ukuol wuə*, *l'ukuol mäd'im* 'who works little, receives little'.

Subordinate members of the sentences can be placed between the subject and the predicate of such sentences: *kin wuə?* 'who did it?'; *kin l'ukuol wuə*, *l'ukuol mäd'im* 'who works little, gets little'. At the same time, one cannot help paying attention to

the structural similarity of sentences like *tud ai* 'he shot' with attributive and possessive phrases like *tud-ilə* 'his deer' (Kreinovich 1982: 134).

In **Greenlandic** (Eskimo-Aleut languages), verbs have two conjugation models: the subject and the subject-objective. There are six forms in subject conjugation, 28 in subject-object conjunction (there is no dual number). Possessive forms of nominal parts of speech and predicates of dependent predicative units have, in addition to the usual three persons, a reflexive ("fourth") person: *ayqa taiβaa* 'the name-his (the other person's) he-named'; *ayqi tuiβaa* 'the name (his own one) he named'; in a multipredicative sentence the fourth person is used when coreferencing objects, the third - in the absence of coreferency. (Vakhtin 1997: 97). Considering the expression of possessive relations with the help of verbs in various Paleo-Asian languages, it can be seen that in almost all languages (Yenisei, Chukotka-Kamchatkan and Yukagir) there are verbs with indicators of belonging, that is, they are the evidence that these languages passed through the period when affixes nominal parts of speech and verbs were had possessive affixes in their structure. According to the studies of the previous and contemporary researchers of the Ket languages (Kreinovich, Werner, Belimov, and Author 2), at the early stage of development in the Yenisei languages there was no difference between nominal parts of speech and verbs, more precisely, they did not exist at all, but there were only base morphemes that, when adding certain affixes, performed alternately the functions of the verb or noun. According to E.I. Belimov, "it is almost impossible to draw a line between a verb and a non-verb, since there is no verb outside a sentence" (Belimov 1991: 148). As noted by A.P. Dulson, "neither a Ket nominal part of speech nor a verb has any special indicators (suffixes) that would show their grammatical category" (Dulzon 1968: 585).

In the Paleo-Asian languages one can observe some processes that are interesting from the point of view of history and theory of language, which, for example, in European languages have ended long ago and it will never be possible to reproduce them with reliable accuracy. That is why the Paleo-Asian languages attract the attention of many researchers.

The Tungus-Manchu languages are considered below.

In the **Tungus-Manchu** languages, when conjugating the verb in all moods (with the exception of certain hortatory forms), two groups of personal predicative indicators (personal endings) are used.

For example, in **Even language**, the indicators of the first group in the verb system are presented as follows:

Singular	Plural
1 person -m	1 person (incl.) -n; 1 person (except.) -u
2 person -nni	2 person -s
3 person -n, -ni	3 person -r, -ra /-rə, -a /-ə

The indicators of the second group coincide in form with the affixes of personal belonging of the nominal parts of speech and participles:

Singular	Plural
1 person -w, -wy, -y	1 person -t; /-w.un

2 person -s	2 person -san /sən, -sni
3 person -n	3 person -tan./-tən, -tni

(Lebedev 1978: 85)

Predicative affixes of the first group are used only in the present and future tenses of indicative mood. Affixes of the second group are used in the past tense of the indicative mood and in other personal forms of the verb.

In **Nanai language**, the most universal and common verbal is participle. Participle refers to action as a real act, independent of the subjective assessment of the speaker, and is used in three functions: predicative (most often), attributive and substantive. The form of personal participle consists of at least two morphemes: root + tense suffix. Personal participles are used in simple and possessive forms. Simple form: base morpheme + tense suffix; possessive form: base morpheme + tense suffix + possessive suffix. Possessive suffixes are the same as those of nouns. The simple form has no declension; the possessive form declines according to the model of the possessive form of nouns but does not have an orientative case (Avrorin 1961: 78-79).

The possessive form of personal participle is used as a predicate, for example: Mi dangsawa holai 'I am reading a book'; Mi danghawa holahambi 'I have read a book, I read a book'. Sj debojsi 'You work'; Sj debohasi 'You worked', etc. The same form, in the process of declension, is used substantively: Mü tachiochii ələ hodini 'My teaching will end soon'; Si holajwasi maktami-da aja 'Your reading can be praised'. It can also be used attributively, denoting the characteristic of an object by an action external to the defined object, for example: mi holai dangsa 'my reading a book' ('a book read by me'-verbatim, 'I read a book'), si bisi de 'your dwelling is house' (the house in which you live); si dichisi pokto 'the way along which you came' (verbatim, 'you came the way') (Avrorin 1961: 82).

In **Ulchi language**, possessiveness indicators may appear in the subjunctive mood forms. The forms of the subjunctive mood are formed by the suffix -mcha- / mch, attached to the verb base morpheme, followed by personal-predicative endings, partially coinciding with the personal-possessive endings of nouns: bi anamcha-ji 'I would push', si anamcha-si 'you would push', nāni anamcha 'he would push', bi ʒəmchə-ji 'I would eat', si ʒəmchə-si 'you would eat', nāni ʒəmchə 'he would eat', etc. (Sunik 1968: 164-165).

The verbal adverb is represented by several frequently used forms. The present tense form (or single- temporal verbal adverb) is differentiated according to the number of the subject of the action: singular -mi'/-mi, plural -mari/-məri. The past tense form (or multi- temporal verbal adverb) has the following endings -ra/-rə, -da/-də, -ta/-tə; it is not differentiated according to the number. The conditional verbal adverb (multi-temporal) has endings, differentiated by the numbers of the subject of the action: singular -ni'/-ni; plural pari/-pəri, anami / anamari 'pushing', bȳmi / bȳməri 'giving', etc. Cf: anara "having pushed", bȳrə "has been given", ʒəptə "having eaten", birə "having been", etc. (Sunik 1968: 164-165).

In functional terms, the supine and the conditioned form (or the conditional-temporal form of the verb) are close to the verbal adverb. Supine is formed by the suffix -bda-/-bdə-, attached to the base morpheme of the verb, followed by personal or impersonal possessive endings: min anabdag 'so that I pushed', sin wəmbdəsi 'so that you said', nān bdəni 'so that he ate', mun ʒəbdepu 'so that we ate', sun bibdəsu 'so that you were', etc.

In the **Oroch language**, personal participle is used in simple and possessive forms. The possessive form is made of the base morpheme + tense suffix + possessive suffix. Possessive suffixes are the same as those of nouns (Avrorin 1968: 203).

The possessive form of personal participle is used as a predicate, for example: bū gunəiwi 'I say', bū guḡkimi 'I said', bū gun'ʒəmi (= gun'ʒəḡji) 'I will say', sū nədəisi 'you put', sū nəkkisi 'you put (in the past)', sū nəʒəsi (= nəʒəḡsi) 'you will put'. The same form, in the process of declension, is used substantively: Bū dəḡsūbi odiptauni 'My work (working) ends'; Wū sū dəḡsiəsi ichəiwi 'I see that (how) you work.' Finally, it can also be used attributively, denoting a feature of a subject by means of external action, for example: bū hoḡūbi suk 'the ax with which I hack' (literally, "I hack ax") (Avrorin 1968: 204).

Thus, in the languages of Siberia and the Far East, verbs containing suffixes belonging suggest that not only Paleo-Asian languages had a possessive declension and conjugation. For example, possessive declension (conjugation), is observed in Hungarian, Mordovian and other Finno-Ugric languages.

In **Samoyed languages** (the Finno-Ugric group), the personal possessive suffixes of the nominative (main) case are structurally completely identical with the personal formants of the verb in the subject-object conjugation of the indicative mood, but differ significantly in function. The former express the belonging of an object to a person or another object, while the latter characterize the transition of the subject's action to one or another object. Cf: Personal possessive forms of the noun in the nominative case, singular: Nganasan language - kətu 'nail, claw' kətu-mə 'my nail', kətu-rə 'your nail' - 'his nail', etc. The indicative mood of the verb in subject-object conjugation for an indefinite tense, singular: Nganasan language - kotu-dja 'kill', 'get' koʒa-a-mə 'I killed, I got' koʒa "a-rə 'you killed, you got' koʒa" a-tu 'he killed, he got', etc. (Tereshchenko 1979: 97).

Therefore, a distinctive feature of subject-object conjugation is that the predicate expressed by a transitional verb corresponds in person and number to the subject, and in number to the direct object and thus corresponds to the direct object in the same way as with the subject. In addition, in these languages, for example, Nganasan and Nenets, there are verbs of possession. As the name itself shows, verbs of this type contain in their base morpheme the name of the subject that the subject of action has, for example: Nganasan –

samu 'cap' - səma"təsa 'to have a cap, be in a cap'; sejmy 'eyes' - sejmy"təsy 'have eyes, look at something closely'. Practically, verbs of this type can be formed from any nominal base morpheme, if only it is possible from the point of view of meaning. The generating base for such verbs is the plural form of the genitive case (Tereshchenko 1979: 257).

Object conjugation exists in the **Finno-Ugric languages**. For example, in the Mordovian language, personal endings were initially of two types - some of them were used when the action was directed to a single object. These are endings like -my, -ty, (sy), -myk, -tyk, (syk). Other endings contained an indicator of the multiplicity of objects -n-, for example: -pty, -nty, (-nsy), -ptyk, -ntyk, (-nsyk). These endings were characteristic for verbs expressing action directed at several objects, for example kandə -n-tyk 'we are carrying several (or many) objects' (Serebrennikov 1967: 180).

An analysis of the forms of object conjugation in modern languages makes it possible to establish that only three elements were used as indicators: -m- for "me" and "us", -t- for "you (singular)" and "you (plural)" and -s- for 'his' and 'their'. Personal verb endings of object conjugation forms mostly coincided with possessive suffixes, cf. forms such as Erzyan kundasy-nek 'we will catch him', kundasy-nk 'you will catch him', kundy-ze 'he caught him', etc. (Serebrennikov 1967: 180).

The indicators of the subject of the action could be possessive suffixes, the forms of which in the object conjugation system acquired some deviations. Obviously, there was an epoch when the system of object conjugation represented some more harmonious and logically structured system, but this system was not fully preserved anywhere, even in dialects. In the Finno-Ugric and Samoyed languages, the remnants of this ancient system are preserved, allowing to make a conclusion about such a linguistic state when the class of possessive verbs has not yet been formed (Author 1 2013: 40-43).

The Caucasian languages are considered below.

In the **Adyghe languages** (West Caucasian languages), there are verbs containing possessiveness indicators in their word form as prefixes. These include: static verbs derived from nouns with a possessive prefix **i (jy)**; all two-person intransitive verbs: ar sə s-i-nybdzhəg'u - 'He is my friend (He my friend is)', ar sə s-i-unə - 'That is my house (That my house is)'; sə ashch sy-ri-nybdzhəg'u - 'I am his friend (I his friend am)', sə o sy-ui-nybdzhəg'u - 'I am your friend' ... (Rogava and Kerasheva 1966: 169-170).

In the **Abkhaz language**, the verb can simultaneously express (in the productive voice) both persons: the person of the subject and the person of the direct object. These, persons simultaneously expressed in the verb, are associated with different members of the sentence - with various additional words (Yakovlev 2006: 225).

The grammatical means of expressing the category of person in a verb are personal affixes, which are always prefixes and denote along with the person the class and the number of the subject and object. They go back to the corresponding personal pronouns (Aristava et al. 1968: 74).

The first person singular is indicated by the **s** prefix (derived from the personal pronoun **sapa** - I). In the plural, it is denoted by the **h** prefix (derived from the personal pronoun **hara** - we).

The first person, both singular and plural, can refer to the subject or object. In either case, it means the person speaking: sara ashkolah' stsoit 'I go to school', sara ashkolah' sryshtueit 'I am sent to school'.

The indicators of the second person singular are the prefixes **u-** (in the subclass of men) and **b-** (in the subclass of women): uara u-tsoit 'you (man) are going' bara b-tsoit 'you (woman) are going'.

In the plural, the second person is indicated by the prefix **shə** - (from the personal pronoun **shəara** - you) **shəara** ashəku shəatsəh, oit 'you are reading a book'.

Indicators of the third person singular are **i** in the subclass of men, **l** in the subclass of women, **d** in the human class, combining the subclass of men and the subclass of women, and **a / na, i** in the class of things (Aristava et al. 1968: 75).

In the Abkhaz language, can serve as possessive prefixes. For example: ian "his (man's) mother", lan "her (woman's) mother", etc. Person-class prefixes of the **L** series in the possessive function in case of relative forms are replaced by the relative prefix **3-**.

The possessive prefix is a relative prefix **3-** (possessive participle) **3->-gu...** 'that (feminine and masculine gender and those) (whose) whose heart...' 3ymch machu ibz duhoit 'He who is weak has a long tongue' 3gula izyp azhra zzhyz, iŋʃ, a dtahait 'The son of the one who dug a hole for his neighbor, fell into it'.

It should be said that the relative prefix **3-** in the function of the possessive element together with the name creates a composite syntagma, which necessarily includes the infinitive, cf. **3-təyəa** htsəou akambash ('a buffalo whose horn is broken'). The form **3-təyəa** without a verb in infinite form of hzhəou cannot be used here. At the same time, if the "person" denoted by the name and expressed by the relative (possessive) prefix **3** is repeated in the verb, it will be represented in it by the corresponding relative prefix, for example: 3yɯ'makua takny kuashara itsaz ieinʃsh 'like the one who after locking his goats, went to dance'... (Aristava et al. 1968: 70).

Here there are two different relative prefixes: on the one hand, the possessive prefix **3-** (3yɯ'makua 'the one whose goats', 'the one who ...his own goats ...') and, on the other hand, the subject prefix **i-** (itsaz 'the one who went, left...').

The relative prefix 3- (as a representation in the infinitive-participle formants of the subject in case of transitive verbs, indirect object and the category of possessiveness) performs approximately the same functions as the ergative, dative and genitive cases perform in the related Iberian-Caucasian languages.

CONCLUSION

Thus, possessiveness at a certain stage of development in different languages, due to the absence of possessive pronouns at the beginning, could be expressed using the forms of personal pronouns that served as indicators of belonging. This material makes it possible to see the evolution of the expression of personal possessiveness in the verb from the full form of a personal pronoun (Yukagir and Tuvan languages) to affixes: prefixes (Yenisei and Abkhaz-Adyghe languages) / suffixes (Turkic, Finno-Ugric, Tungus-Manchu, Mongolian, Chukotko-Kamchatkan languages), dating back to the main consonant component of the form of a personal pronoun. It is noteworthy that the possessive affixes of the nominal parts of speech and predicative indicators of verb forms (participles, adverbs, supine) coincide in a number of languages (Tungus-Manchu group). Summarizing the above, it can be concluded that the use of suffixes belonging in nouns and verbs indicates the possibility of the existence of the earlier possessive declension and conjugation in various languages.

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