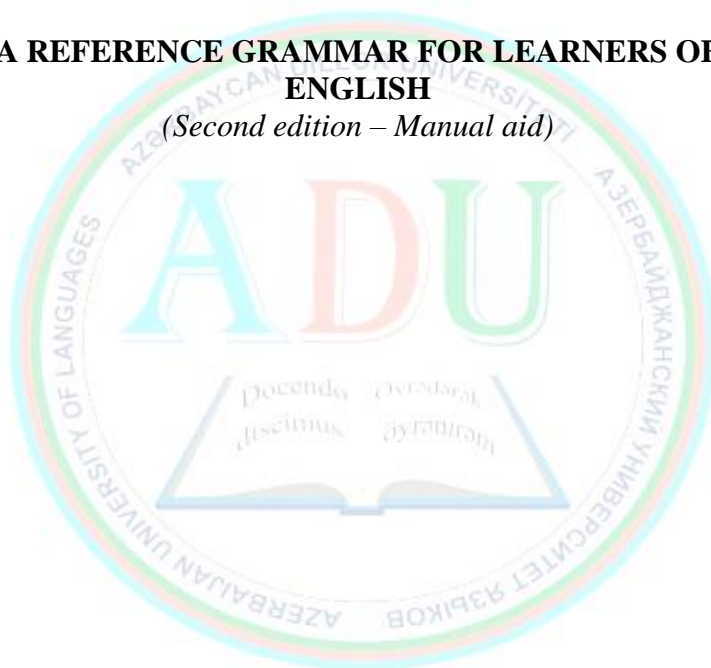


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MAMEDOVA SHALALA**

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ENGLISH**

*(Second edition – Manual aid)*

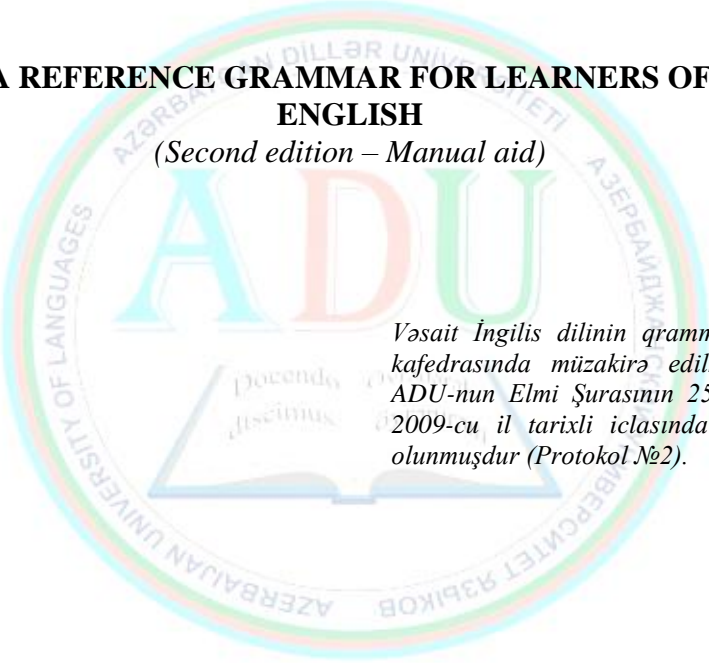


**BAKU – 2021**

**AZERBAIJAN REPUBLIC MINISTRY OF EDUCATION  
AZERBAIJANI UNIVERSITY OF LANGUAGES**

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*Vəsait İngilis dilinin qrammatikası  
kafedrasında müzakirə edilmiş və  
ADU-nun Elmi Şurasının 25 fevral  
2009-cu il tarixli iclasında təsdiq  
olunmuşdur (Protokol №2).*

**BAKU – 2021**

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*Nəzərdə tutulan vəsait ilk dəfə 2009-cu ildə oxuculara təqdim edilmişdir. Həmin vəsait əsasən abituriyentlər üçün nəzərdə tutulduğu üçün qrammatik qaydalar Azərbaycan dilində verilmişdir. Bu vəsaitdə qrammatik qaydalar sadələşmiş asan şəkildə ingilis dilində oxuculara çatdırılır. Hər iki dil arasında mövcud olan fərqləri nəzərə alaraq bəzi hallarda bu və ya digər dil nümunələrinin Azərbaycan dilində qarşılığı verilir. Vəsaitdəki qrammatik material əsasən proqram tələblərinə cavab verir.*

*Vəsaitdən yalnız ingilis dili öyrənən universitet tələbələri yox, eyni zamanda orta məktəb müəllimləri, eləcə də ingilis dilinin qrammatik quruluşu ilə maraqlanan hər bir şəxs maraqlana bilər.*

## GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

New theories or “models”, of grammar are constantly being developed. Yet facts of English usage remain and people need to know what the facts are. English grammar is largely a matter of sentence construction. It is information that we can apply, consciously or unconsciously, to form sentences that are acceptable as a whole. This grammar is relatively short. It aims at concentrating on frequently-used constructions.

The grammatical system of English, like that of any other language, possesses its own peculiar features. The manual consists of two parts: morphology and syntax. In the first part the parts of speech are characterized from practical point of view. Part two of this manual explains how an English sentence is built up. The order of elements in the English sentence is fixed to a greater degree than in Azerbaijani. The order *subject + predicate + object* is most characteristic of statements in English, but in Azerbaijani the order of elements is: *subject + object + predicate*. The difference in the order of elements acquires extreme importance.

According to the grammatical structure English and Azerbaijani differ from each other. As is known in English analytical forms dominate. Here the grammatical relations between words are expressed by means of form words and word order: *the book on the table, the cat under the table, Tom met Nick-Nick met Tom*. But in Azerbaijani synthetical forms dominate. The grammatical relations between words are expressed by means of inflexions: *stolun üstündəki kitab, stolun altındakı pişik, Tom Niki qarşılıdı, Nik Tomu qarşılıdı*.

One can meet a lot of differences existing between these two languages. That is natural because these languages belong to different language families: English – to Indo-European language family; Azerbaijani – to Turkic language family.

While teaching and learning English everybody must proceed from the peculiarities of the given language.

## GENERAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

According to their lexical meanings, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech.

One can find different classifications in different grammar books. Here we consider O.I.Musayev's classification more acceptable. According to him the parts of speech are classified in the following way:

1. *Notional parts of speech.*
2. *Free parts of speech.*
3. *Structural or functional parts of speech.*

Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, verb and adverbs are *notional parts* of speech, that is, they have independent meaning and function in the sentence.

Modal words and interjections are treated as *free parts of speech*. They are called free parts of speech because they may stand alone replacing a whole sentence. These words do not enter into the structure of the sentence as parts of the sentence. They have no grammatical connection with the sentence in which they stand. They serve to affirm or negative a whole sentence and must be set apart as words expressing affirmation and negation.

Prepositions, conjunctions, articles and particles are *structural or functional parts of speech*. They have no independent function in the sentence. They serve either to connect words or sentences (prepositions and conjunctions) or to specify or emphasize the meaning of words (articles and particles).

# Chapter I

## THE NOUN

### 1. Definition

The noun is a part of speech characterized by the following features:

1. Lexico-grammatical meaning of substance.

In the concept of substance we include not only names of living beings (*boy, girl, dog*) and lifeless things (*table, desk*), but also names of abstract notions, qualities, states, actions (*kindness, sleep, fight*), abstracted from their bearers.

2. The categories of number and case.

3. Typical stem-building morphemes, as in: *arrival, movement, freedom, service, friendship*, etc.

4. Left-hand connections with articles, prepositions, adjectives, pronouns, other nouns, etc. The combinability of nouns is variable. They have left-hand connections with articles (*a dog, the dog*), some pronouns (*my dog, that dog*), most adjectives (*a red apple, a clever boy*), numerals (*four matches, the first lesson*). With prepositions nouns have both left-hand and right-hand connections (*to London, at the age of ten*). With verbs nouns can form both right-hand and left-hand connections (*Tom met Nick*).

5. Nouns may be used in different syntactic functions in the sentence.

### 2. Classification of nouns according to their lexical meaning

Semantically all nouns can be divided into two main groups: **1. Common nouns; 2. Proper nouns.**

**Common nouns** are names applied to any individual of a class of persons or things. Common nouns in their turn, are subdivided into: **a) concrete nouns** and **b) abstract nouns**.

**a) Concrete nouns** in their turn fall under the following divisions:

a) class-nouns indicating things belonging to a class, such as *a book, a boy, a table*.

b) names of materials which do not express separate things but the whole mass of matter: *iron, snow, milk*.

**b) Abstract nouns** are often the names of actions, states or qualities formed from corresponding verbs and adjectives: *conversation, love, kindness, strength*.

To the group of class nouns belong also collective nouns which denote a number of things collected together so that they may be regarded as a single object: *family – ailə, crew - ekipaj, company – şirkət, crowd - izdiham*. These nouns have both numbers:

a) singular: *a family, a crowd*

b) plural: *families, crowds*.

*The two families were close neighbours. – İki qonşu yaxın dost idi.*

*My family is small. – Mənim ailəm kiçikdir.*

When the subject of the sentence is a collective noun in the form of the singular, the predicate verb may be either in the singular or in the plural. The verb is singular if the collective denoted by the noun is taken as a whole unit. The verb is plural if the persons (or things) which form the collective are considered separately.

*My family is small. – Mənim ailəm kiçikdir.*

*My family are having dinner. – Mənim ailəm (ayrı-ayrı üzvlər) nahar edir.*

*The crew have already accepted the decision. – Ekipaj artıq qərarı edib.*

*The crew consists of fifty sailors. – Ekipaj əlli dənizçidən ibarətdir.*



Some collective nouns (names of multitude), such as *cattle*, *police*, *poultry*, *clergy*, are always used as plurals (without the **s**-inflexion).

*The **cattle are grazing**.* – *Qaramal otlayır.*

*The **poultry are** in the yard.* – *Ev quşları həyətdədir.*

The noun *people* in the meaning of *adamlar* (a name of multitude) is always plural.

*There **are** a lot of **people** in the hall.* – *Zalda çoxlu adam var.*

The singular *a people* means *millət*, *xalq* (a collective noun). The plural form *peoples* means *xalqlar*.

*The French **are a** Romanic **people**.* – *Fransızlar roman millətidir.*

*Different **peoples** live in our country.* – *Ölkəmizdə müxtəlif xalqlar yaşayır.*

From the grammatical point of view most important is the division of nouns into **countables** and **uncountables**. Countables nouns denote objects that can be counted. They may be either concrete (*book*, *dog*, *cat*) or abstract (*word*, *answer*, *sentence*, *idea*). Uncountable nouns are names of objects that cannot be counted. They also may be concrete (*water*, *snow*, *wood*, *grass*) and abstract (*information*, *time*, *work*, *permission*).

**Countable nouns** have the following features:

1. These nouns have both numbers (singular and plural) which denote things that can be counted: *a book – books*, *a dog – dogs*, *a day – two days*.

2. Countable nouns may be used with the following words: *a lot of*, *many*, *a few*, *few*, *a lot of books*, *many books*, *a few books*, *few books*.

3. Countable nouns may be used with both articles.

*Give me **a book*** – *Mənə bir kitab ver.*

*Give me **the book*** – *Kitabı mənə ver.*

**Uncountable nouns** have the following features:

1. They are used only in the singular. They may be:

a) concrete nouns (names of material): *water*, *bread*, *snow*



b) abstract nouns: *friendship, love, hatred*

c) some collective nouns: *linen, furniture, machinery*

2. Uncountable nouns are never used with the indefinite article. But they may be used with the definite article.

*I like **meat**. **The meat** is on the table.*

3. Uncountable nouns take the predicate verb in the singular.

***The information** is very important.*

4. Uncountable nouns may be used with the following words: *a lot of, much, a little, little.*

*There is much **furniture** in the room.*

**Proper nouns** are names given to individuals of a class to distinguish them from other individuals of the same class.

Proper nouns are geographical names (*New York, the Thames, Asia, the Alps*), names of persons (*John, Tom, Mary*), names of the months and the days of the week (*March, Sunday*), names of ships, hotels, clubs, streets, parks (*Trafalgar Square, Regent Street, Hyde Park*).

### 3. Classification of nouns according to their morphological structure

According to their morphological composition nouns can be divided into: **a) simple nouns; b) derived nouns; c) compound nouns.**

**Simple nouns** consist of only one root-morpheme: *table, pen, man, cat, chair.*

**Derived nouns** are composed of one root-morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes. The main noun-forming suffixes are the followings:

<b>-al</b>	–	<i>arrival</i>
<b>-ance</b>	–	<i>acceptance</i>
<b>-ant</b>	–	<i>attendant</i>
<b>-ery</b>	–	<i>greenery</i>
<b>-dom</b>	–	<i>freedom</i>

<b>-ism</b>	–	<i>realism</i>
<b>-ity</b>	–	<i>nationality</i>
<b>-ment</b>	–	<i>movement</i>
<b>-ness</b>	–	<i>kindness</i>
<b>-ship</b>	–	<i>friendship</i>

<b>-er</b>	–	<i>reader</i>		<b>-tion</b>	–	<i>dictation</i>
<b>-ese</b>	–	<i>Japanese</i>		<b>-ar</b>	–	<i>beggar</i>
<b>-hood</b>	–	<i>childhood</i>		<b>-age</b>	–	<i>marriage</i>
<b>-ice</b>	–	<i>service</i>				

**Compound nouns** consist of at least two stems. The main types of compound nouns are:

1. Noun stem + noun stem: *seaman-dənizçi, raincoat-plaş, seaside-dəniz kənarı, armchair-kreslo, snowball-qar topu, headache-baş ağrısı.*

2. Adjective stem + noun stem: *blackbird-qaratoyuq, gentleman-centlemen, Holiday-bayram, nobleman-oristoqrat, highway-magistral.*

3. Verb stem + noun stem: *pickpocket-cibgir, washstand-ləyən, washbasin-əlüz yuyan, showcase-vitrin.*

4. Gerund =- noun stem: *looking-glass-güzgü, writing-table-yazı stolu, dancing-hall-rəqs zalı.*

5. Noun stem + preposition + noun: *father-in-law-qayınata, brother-in-law-qayın.*

6. Numeral + noun: *four-eyes, sixpence, ninepins.*

7. Self + noun: *self-control-təmkin, self-defence-özünü müdafiə, self-portrait-avtoportred.*

8. Lexicalized phrases: *forget-me-not-yaddaş çiçəyi, pick-up-təsadüfi tanışlıq, merry-go-round-yelləncək.*

#### 4. The category of number

Number is the grammatical category of the noun which shows whether we speak of one thing or of more than one. Accordingly, there are two numbers: the **singular** and the **plural**.

The singular is that form of the noun which indicates one thing: *a pen, a cat.*

The plural is that form which serves to denote more than one thing: *pens, cats.*

As is seen in Modern English the singular form of a noun is unmarked. The plural form is marked by the inflexion **-(e)s**. The spelling and the pronunciation of the plural morpheme vary.

The plural of most nouns is built up by means of the suffix **-s**. **-s** is pronounced [z] after vowels and voiced consonants, [s] after voiceless consonants and [ɪz] after sibilants:

*a bed – beds* [bedz] – çarpayı

*an answer – answers* [ˈɑːnsəz] – cavab

*a book – books* [buks] – kitab

*a horse – horses* [ˈhɔːsɪz] – at

*a rose – roses* [ˈrouzɪz] – qızıl gül

The suffix **-es** is added to nouns ending in **s, ss, sh, ch, tch, x** and is pronounced as [ɪz].

*bus – buses* [ˈbʌsɪz] – avtobus

*glass – glasses* [ˈglɑːsɪz] – stəkan

*bush – bushes* [ˈbuʃɪz] – kol

*match – matches* [ˈmætʃɪz] – kibrit

*bench – benches* [ˈbentʃɪz] – skameyka

*box – boxes* [ˈbɒksɪz] – qutu

If the noun ends in **y** preceded by a consonant, **y** is changed into **i** before **-es**:

*city – cities* – şəhər

*lady – ladies* – xanım

*study – studies* – kabinet

If the final **y** is preceded by a vowel the plural is formed by simply adding **-s** to the singular:

*boy – boys* – oğlan

*play – plays* – oyun

*toy – toys* – oyuncaq

The following nouns ending in **f** or **fe** have the ending **-ves** in the plural:

*wife-wives* – arvad-arvadlar *wolf-wolves* – canavar-canavarlar

*life-lives* – həyat-həyatlar *calf-calves* – buzov-buzovlar

*knife-knives* – bıçaq-bıçaqlar *shelf-shelves* – rəf-rəflər

*leaf-leaves – yarpaq-yarpaqlar*    *thief-thieves – oğru-oğrular*

But the other nouns ending in **f** or **fe** take only **-s** in the plural:

*roof-roofs – dam-damlar*

*safe-safes – seyf-seyflər*

*cliff-cliffs – qaya-qayalar*

*grief-griefs – kədər-kədərlər*

*gulf-gulfs – körfəz-körfəzlər*

*cuff-cuffs – manjet-manjetlər*

*proof-proofs – sübut-sübutlar*

*belief-beliefs – etiqad-etiqadlar*

The following nouns have both forms in the plural:

*scarf-scarfs/scarves – şərf-şərflər*

*hoof-hoffs/hooves – dırnaq-dırnaqlar*

*wharf-wharfs/wharves – körpü (gəminin yan alması üçün)-körpülər*

*handkerchief-handkerchiefs/handkerchieves – dəsmal-dəsmallar*

If the noun ends in **o** preceded by a consonant, the plural is generally formed by adding **-es**. Only a few nouns ending in **-o** preceded by a consonant form the plural in **-s**:

*tomato-tomatoes – pomidor-pomidorlar*

*cargo-cargoes – yük (gəmidə, təyyarədə daşınan) yüklər*

*potato-potatoes – kartof-kartoflar*

*echo-echoes – əks-sədə-əks-sədalar*

*hero-heroes – qəhrəman-qəhrəmanlar*

**BUT:**    *piano-pianos – pianino-pianinolar*

*solo-solos – solo-sololar*

*photo-hotos – şəkil-şəkillər*

*radio-radios – radio-radiolar*

*kilo-kilos – kilo-kilolar*

All nouns ending in **o** preceded by a vowel form the plural in **-s** and not in **-es**:

*cuckoo-cockoos – ququ quşu-ququ quşular*

*portfolio-portfolios – portfel-portfellər*

There are a few nouns ending in **o** which form the plural both in **-s** and **-es**:

*mosquito-mosquitos/mosquitoes – ağcaqanad-ağcaqanadlar*

Nouns ending in **th** [θ] after long vowels change it into [ð] in pronunciation (which does not affect their spelling):

*bath* [ba:θ] - *baths* [ba:ðz] – *vanna-vannalar*  
*path* [pa:θ] - *paths* [pa:ðz] – *yol-yollar*  
*oath* [ouθ] - *oaths* [ouðz] – *and-andlar*  
*mouth* [mauθ] - *mouths* [mauðz] – *ağız-ağızlar*

But [θ] is always retained after consonants (including **r**) and short vowels:

*smith-smiths* [smiθs] – *dəmirçi-dəmirçilər*  
*months-months* [mʌnθs] – *ay-aylar*  
*myth-myths* [miθs] – *əfsanə-əfsanələr*  
*birth-births* [bɜ:θs] – *doğma-doğmalar*  
*health-healths* [helθs] – *sağlamlıq-sağlamlıqlar*

One noun ending in [s] changes it into [z] (in pronunciation).

*house* [haus] – *houses* [ˈhaʊzɪz]

For historical reasons certain nouns form their plural differently.

A few nouns form their plural by a change of vowel. They are:

*man-men* – *kişi-kişilər*                      *mouse-mice* – *siçan-siçanlar*  
*woman-women* – *qadın-qadınlar*        *goose-geese* – *qaz-qazlar*  
*tooth-teeth* – *diş-dişlər*                      *louse-lice* – *bit-bitlər*  
*foot-feet* – *ayaq-ayaqlar*

Notice the peculiar plural form in the nouns:

*ox-oxen* – *öküz-öküzlər*  
*child-children* – *uşaq-uşaqlar*

Some nouns have double plurals used with some difference in meaning:

**brother** – 1) *brothers* (*sons of one mother*)  
              2) *brethren* (*members of one community*)  
              *They are her brothers.* –  
              *They are brethren in arms.* -

**genius** – 1) *geniuses* (*men of genius*)  
              2) *genii* (*spirits*)

**staff** – 1) *stuffs* (*military stuffs* (ştab), *stuffs* (ştat) of an  
*institution*  
              2) *staves* (*sticks*)

- penny** – 1) pennies (number of coins)  
 2) pence (amount of pennies in value)
- cloth** - 1) cloths (kinds of cloth)  
 2) clothes (articles of dress)
- index** – 1) indexes (tables of contents)  
 2) indices (in mathematics)

The following nouns have one form for both singular and plural:

a) Names of some animals and birds:

*sheep – qoyun – a sheep – two sheep*

*swine – donquz – a swine – two swine*

*deer – maral – a deer – two deer*

*grouse – tetra – a grouse – two grouse*

*The sheep is under the tree. – Qoyun ağacın altındadır.*

*The sheep are under the tree. – Qoyunlar ağacın altındadır.*

*I bought a grouse (three grouse). – Mən bir tetra quşu aldım.*

b) The noun *fish* and some sorts of fish = as *trout (ala balıq)*, *cod (treska)*, *pike (durna balığı)*, *salmon (qızıl balıq)*

*The fish are small. – Balıqlar balacadır.*

*The fish is on the table. – Balıq stolun üstündədir.*

*They caught ten salmon. – Onlar on qızıl balıq tutdu.*

In order to denote kinds of fish the form *fishes* is used.

*There were many fishes in the net.*

*Torda müxtəlif növ balıq var idi.*

c) Names indicating number such as: *pair (cüt)*, *couple (cütlük)*, *dozen (düyün)*, *score (hesab)*, *hand (baş) (50 baş inək)*, *stone (çəki vahidi 6,35 kq)* have the same form for both singular and plural when they are preceded by a numeral:

*five dozen of eggs – beş düyün yumurta*

*The child weighs two stone. – Uşağın 12,70 kq çəkisi var.*

*One thousand head of cattle. – Min baş mal-qara.*

But when they have no number they take the usual plural form:

*dozens of times, to go pairs*

*They went in pairs.*

*I have told you this dozens of times.*



d) Two nouns borrowed from Latin and one from French also have identical singular and plural:

*species-species* [ˈspi:ʃi:z] – *cins, nəsil, növ*

*series-series* [ˈsiəri:z] – *sıra, cərgə, silsilə*

*corps* [kɔ:] - *corps* [kɔ:z] – (*korpus, qoşun növü*)

*I grow a lot of beautiful species of roses in my garden.*

*What a pretty species of roses!*

e) Some nouns borrowed from Greek and Latin retain their original plural forms:

*basis* [ˈbeɪsɪs] - *bases* [ˈbeɪsi:z] – *bazis, əsas*

*crises* [ˈkraɪsɪs] - *crisis* [ˈkraɪsi:z] – *böhran*

*analyses* [əˈnæləsɪs] - *analyses* [əˈnæləsi:z] – *təhlil*

*thesis* [ˈθi:sis] - *theses* [ˈθi:si:z] – *tezis*

*criterion* [kraɪˈtɪəriən] - *criteria* [kraɪˈtɪəriə] – *meyar*

*phenomenon* [fiˈnɒmɪnən] - *phenomena* [fiˈnɒmɪnə] – *hadisə*

*datum* [ˈdeɪtəm] - *data* [ˈdeɪtə] – *tarix*

*formula* [ˈfɔ:mjʊlə] - *formulae* [ˈfɔ:mjʊli:] – *formul, düstur*

*medium* [ˈmi:djəm] - *media* [ˈmi:djə] – *mətbuat*

*memorandum* [ˌmeməˈrændəm] - *memoranda* [ˌmeməˈrændə]

– *memorandum*

These forms tend to be used in the language of science. In fiction and colloquial English the regular English plural form in *-(e)s* is generally used.

Thus in some cases two plural forms co-exist:

*antennae* – *antennas*

*formulae* – *formulas*

*memoranda* – *memorandums*

## 5. Plural in compound nouns

1. As a rule in compounds it is the second component that takes the plural forms:

*fellow-worker* – *fellow-workers* – *işçi yoldaşı*



*school-mate – school mates – məktəbli yoldaşı*  
*housewife-housewives – evdar qadın*  
*maid-servant – maid-servants – qadın qulluqçu*  
*boy-friend – boy-friends – cavan oğlan, sevgili*  
*watch-maker – watch-makers – saatsaz*  
*tooth-brush – tooth-brushes – diş şotkası*

2. When the compound noun does not contain any noun, the plural is formed by adding **-s** to the last word:

*forget-me-not – forget-me-not – yaddaş çiçəyi*  
*merry-go-round – merry-go-rounds – yelləncək*  
*grown-up – grown-ups – böyük yaşlı adam*  
*pick-up – pick-ups – təsadüfi tanışlıq*

3. In compound nouns formed by a noun plus a preposition or an adverb or an adjective only the first element takes the plural:

*passer-by – passers-by – yolçu, yoldan keçən*  
*looker-on – lookers on – tamaşaçı*  
*court-martial – cours-martial – hərbi məhkəmə, tribunal*  
*attorney-general – attorneys-general – baş prokuror*

4. Compounds in which the first component is *man* or *woman* have plurals in both first and last components:

*man-doctor – men-doctors – kişi həkim*  
*man-servant – men servants – kişi qulluqçu*  
*woman-teacher – women teachers – qadın müəllim*  
*woman-doctor – woman doctors – qadın həkim*

5. Compounds in *man* change *men* into *-men* in spelling, but in pronunciation there is no difference between the singular and the plural:

*postman [ˈpoustmən] - postmen [ˈpoustmən] – poçtalyon*  
*policeman [pəˈli:smən] - policemen [pəˈli:smən] – polis nəfəri*  
(*kişi*), *kişi polisi*

Such nouns as *German*, *Roman*, *Norman* are not compounds. They form their plural in usual way:

*German – Germans – Germanlar*  
*Roman – Romans – Romanlar*

*Norman – Normans - Normanlar*

6. In compounds originating from a prepositional noun phrase where the preposition is a linking element only the first noun takes the plural form:

*editor-in-chief – editors-in-chief – baş redaktor*

*brother-in-law – brothers-in-law – qayın, yezna*

*man-of-war – men-of-war – hərbi gəmi*

*commander-in-chief – commanders-in-chief – hərbi baş komandan*

7. Components in **ful** have the plural ending at the end of the word:

*handful-handfuls – əl dolusu*

*mouthful-mouthfuls – ağız dolusu*

*spoonful-spoonfuls – qaşiq dolusu*

**BUT:** *mouthsful* and *spoonsful* are also possible.

In *column-full* the first component takes the plural form:

*column-full-columns-full – sütun dolusu*

## 6. Singular invariable nouns

A considerable number of nouns are used only in the singular. The Latin term **singular tantum** is applied to them. Here belong all non-count nouns:

a) material nouns: *iron-dəmir, sand-qum, water-su, cheese-pendir, wine-şərab, chalk-mel*

b) abstract nouns: *work-iş, advice-məsləhət, permission-icazə, anger-hirs, information-informasiya*

Notice, however, that many of other abstract nouns may have both the singular and the plural forms:

*an answer – answers – cavab*

*an idea – ideas – ideya*

*a question – questions – sual*

c) some nouns ending in **-s**:

*news* – xəbər

*means* – pul, vəsait

*gallows* – dar ağacı

*summons* – çağırış

d) some disease:

*measles* – qızılca

*mumps* – parotit (qulaq dibindən şişməsi)

*riskets* – raxit

However sometimes the usage varies:

***Mumps is/are a medical problem.***

e) some games:

*billiards* – bilyard

*dominoes* – domino

*draughts* – şaşki

**BUT: a *billiard* table**

f) some proper nouns:

*Algiers* – [æɫ' dʒɪəz] – Əlcəzair

*Athens* – ['æθɪnz] – Afina

*Brussels* – ['brʌslz] – Brüssel

*Marseilles* – [mɑ:'seɪ] – Marsel

*Naples* – ['neɪplz] – Neapol

*Wales* – [weɪlz] – Uels

*The United Nations* – Birləşmiş Millətlər

*The United States* – Birləşmiş Ştatlar

In some nouns the final *s* loses the meaning of the plural inflexion and the noun with the names of sciences and occupations in **-ics**:

*linguistics* – linqvistika

*mathematics* – riyaziyyat

*phonetics* – fonetika

*athletics* – atletika

*ceramics* – keramika, duluzçuluq məmulatları

*ethnics* – etika

*politics* – siyasət

*tactics – taktika*

*optics - optika*

***Phonetics is the science of sounds.***

***Mathematics is his strong point.***

***Optics is a branch of physics.***

These nouns are treated as plurals when practical application is meant. Compare:

***Politics is not my line – What are your politics?***

***Tactics is the art of war – Your tactics are wrong.***

## 7. Plural invariable nouns

There are a number of nouns in English, more or less limited, which are used only in the plural. The Latin term **pluralia tantum** is applied to them. Plural invariable nouns comprise marked and unmarked plurals.

1. Invariable marked plurals:

a) these are for the most part names of tools or articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined:

*tongs – kəlbətin*

*trousers – şalvar*

*tights – reyruz*

*glasses – eynək*

*shorts – qısa tuman*

*scales – tərəzi*

*fetters – buxov*

*scissors – qayçı*

b) miscellaneous (qarışıq) nouns:

*goods – mal, mallar, əmtə*

*contents – həcm, tutum*

*earnings – qazanc*

*savings – əmanət*

*tidings – xəbərlər, yeniliklər*

*wages – maaş əmək haqqı*

*clothes – geyim*

*stairs – pilləkən*

2. Invariable unmarked plural:

a) *cattle – mal-qara, iribuynuzlu mal*

*clergy – ruhanilər*

*gentry – zadəganlar*

*people – adamlar*

*police – polis*

*vermin – parazitlər*

*poultry – ev quşları*

b) substantivized adjectives denoting people:

*the rich – varlılar*

*the poor – kasıblar*

*the old – qocalar*

*the young – gənclər*

It must be mentioned the plural invariable nouns take the predicative verb in the plural form.

***My glasses are on the table.***

***The rich live in that part of the city.***

## 8. Ways of showing partition

Many non-count nouns combine with a set of nouns showing some part of material or abstract notion. Here are some typical partitives for material and abstract nouns:

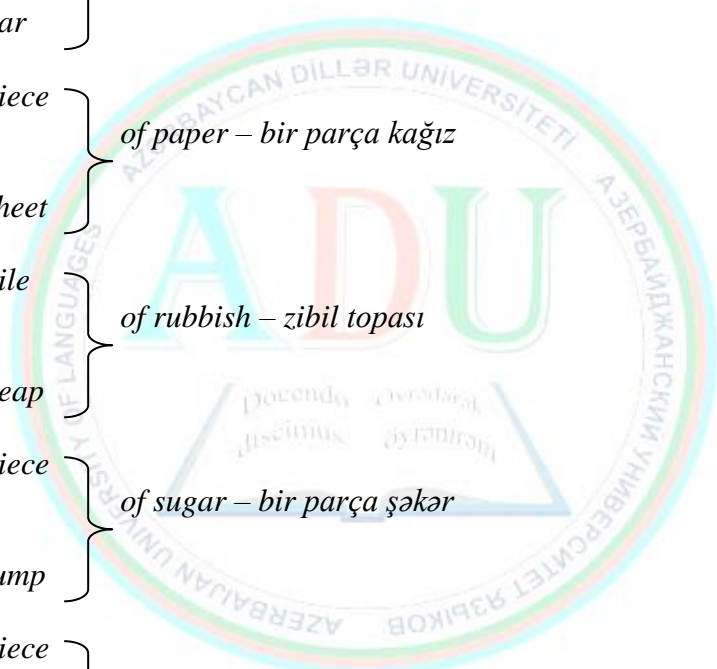
*a slice of bacon – bir dilim bekon (hisə verilmiş donuz əti)*

*a slice of cake – bir dilim pirojna (tort)*

*a piece*

*a loaf*

} *of bread – bir parça (bir buxanka) çörək*

- 
- a piece* }  
*a stick* } *of chalk – bir parça (bir plitka) təbaşir*
- a piece* }  
*a bar* } *of chocolate – bir parça (bir plitka) şokolad*
- a piece* }  
*a sheet* } *of paper – bir parça kağız*
- a pile* }  
*a heap* } *of rubbish – zibil topası*
- a piece* }  
*a lump* } *of sugar – bir parça şəkər*
- a piece* }  
*a lump* } *of coal – bir parça daş kömür*
- a piece* }  
*a block* } *of ice – bir parça buz, iri buz parçası*

<i>a piece</i>	}	<i>of land – bir parça yer, uzununa bölünmüş ensiz yer</i>
<i>a strip</i>		
<i>a piece</i>	}	<i>of news – xəbər, bir xəbər</i>
<i>an item</i>		
<i>a piece</i>	}	<i>of furniture – bir dəst mebel</i>
<i>an article</i>		
<i>a piece</i>	}	<i>of advice – bir məsləhət</i>
<i>a word</i>		
<i>a piece</i>	}	<i>of information – bir parça məlumat (bir az məlumat)</i>
<i>an item</i>		

## 9. The category of case

Case is the form of the noun built up by means of inflexion, which indicates the relations of the noun to the other words in the sentence. English nouns have two cases: **a) the common case; b) the genitive case.**



Not all English nouns possess the category of case. There are certain nouns, mainly nouns denoting inanimate objects which cannot be used in the genitive case.

**The common case** is unmarked. It has no inflection and its meaning is very general:

*The boy is running.*

*The boys are running.*

**The genitive case** is marked. It's formed by means of **the apostrophe s ('s)**. The noun in the genitive case precedes the noun which it modifies.

The suffix **'s** is pronounced in the same way as the inflexion **-(e)s** of the plural.

**[z]** after voiced consonants and vowels:

*the boy's book* – oğlanın kitabı

*the man's plan* – kişinin planı

**[s]** after voiceless consonants:

*the student's books* – tələbənin planları

**[ɪz]** after sibilants:

*the actress's sister* – aktrisanın bacısı

*the judge's advice* – hakimin məsləhəti

The genitive case inflexion is added:

a) to the stem of the noun in the singular:

*the boy's dog* – oğlanın iti

*the pupil's bag* – şagirdin çantası

b) to the stem of those nouns in the singular and plural which do not form their plural by adding the inflexion **-(e)s**:

*the child's toy* – uşağın oyuncağı

*the children's toys* – uşaqların oyuncaqları

*the man's car* – kişinin maşını

*the men's cars* – kişilərin maşınları

*the woman's book* – qadını kitabı

*the women's books* – qadınların kitabları

If the plural of the noun is formed by the inflexion **-(e)s** genitive case inflexion blends into one with the plural inflexion, and **-(e)s**

represents both the plural and the genitive case. In spelling, the apostrophe is placed after the noun:

*the boys' friends* – oğlanların dostları  
*the actresses' voices* – aktrisaların səsləri  
*the students' books* – tələbələrin kitabları  
*the girls' sisters* – qızların bacıları

When a proper name ends in **-s**, only an apostrophe is usually added in spelling, but the full inflexion [**iz**] is pronounced:

*Mr Fox' letters* [ˈfɒksɪz] – Foksun məktubları  
*Wells' works* – Velsin əsərləri  
*Burns' poems* – Bönün şeirləri

<p><b>BUT:</b> <i>It is also correct to add 's:</i> <i>Burns' s poems.</i> <i>Dickens (Dickens's) novels.</i></p>
---

The normal pronunciation with both variants appears to be [...**iz**], but normal spelling-with the apostrophe only.

Compound nouns have **'s** joined to the final component:

*the editor-in-chief's office* – redaktorun ofisi  
*my father-in-law's garden* – qayınatanın bağı  
*the passer-by's words* – yolçunun sözləri

A specific feature of the English genitive case is **the so-called group genitive** when **'s** can be joined:

a) to a group of two coordinated nouns:

*Tom and Brown's father* – Tom və Braunun atası  
*Tom and Brown are brothers*

<p><b>BUT:</b> <i>Tom's and Brown's fathers</i> – Tomun və Braunun ataları</p>
--

*Tom and Brown are not brothers*

b) to a noun (pronoun) + a pronoun group:

*someone else's care* – daha kiminsə qayğısı  
*Take somebody else's book.* – Daha kiminsə kitabını götürün.

c) to a group ending in a numeral:

*in an hour or two's time* – bir yaxud iki saatdan sonra  
*He will be back in an hour or two's time.*

As to its use the genitive case falls under: **a) The Dependent Genitive; b) The Absolute Genitive.**

**The Dependent Genitive** is used with the noun it modifies and comes before it:

*Tom's father is a worker.* – Tomun atası fəhlə fəhlədir.

In certain cases a noun in the genitive case is not followed by the second noun – this is the so-called **absolute genitive**.

The absolute genitive is used in the following cases:

1. When the second component is dropped to avoid unnecessary repetition:

*-Whose book is it?* – O, kimin kitabıdır.

*-It is Mary's.* – O, Merininkidir.

2. When the absolute genitive is introduced by the preposition **of** to denote “one of many”.

*He was a friend of my brother's (one of my brother's friends).* – O, mənim qardaşımın dostlarından biridir.

3. In conditions with an of-phrase to express emotional characteristics (such as disapproval, irony, neglect, etc.):

*That question of Pete's was not to the point.* – Petyanın o sualının mənası yoxdur.

*It was a wish of your friend's.* – O, sənin dostunun bir arzusudur.

*How do you like that silly joke of Tom's?* – Siz Tomun o axmaq zarafatını necə xoşlayırsınız?

4. When the word in the genitive denotes *a shop, a plant, a school, a house, a hospital, a church*, etc. It is mainly found in prepositional phrases:

*I met him in the grocer's.* – Mən onu mağazada qarşıladım.

*He liked living at his daughter's.* – O, qızıgildə yaşamağı xoşlayırdı.

*They were married at St. Paul's.* – Onlar kilsədə evləndilər.

5. Proper nouns with the genitive element 's are used to denote the place of residence:

*I went to the Browns' (place).* – Mən Braunlargilə getdim.

*We had dinner at the Browns'.* – Biz Braunlargildə nahar etdik.  
*This was his last cup of tea at Fatty's.* – Bu, onun Fətinin kafesində içdiyi sonuncu fincan idi.

**The use of the genitive case.** The genitive case is used:

1. With nouns denoting persons and animals:

*The girl's voice came from the next room.* – Qızın səsi o biri otaqdan gəldi.

*He rose from the bench at the sound of horses' hoofs.* – O, atların ayaq səmindən ayağa qalxdı.

*The boy destroyed the swallow's nest.* – Oğlan quşun yuvasını dağıtdı.

*She took the woman's hand and began to speak.* – O, qadının əlindən tutdu və danışmağa başladı.

It must be noted that the of-phrase may be used instead of the genitive case with nouns denoting living beings as well.

*The boy's friend has come. The friend of the boy has come.* – Oğlanın dostu gəlib.

<i>He left the city after his father's death.</i>	}	
<i>He left the city after the death of his father.</i>		Atasının ölümündən sonra o, şəhəri tərk etdi

With other nouns (denoting inanimate objects or abstract notions) the **of + noun** phrase is used:

*The leg of the table is broken.* – Stolun qızı sınıqdır.

*The window of the room is open.* – Otağın pəncərəsi açıqdır.

There is a tendency to use some other nouns denoting inanimate objects as the first component of the genitive.

2. With nouns denoting time and distance, such as *minute, moment, hour, day, week, month, year, foot, mile* and substantivized adverbs: *today, yesterday, tomorrow*, etc.

*a moment's silence* – bir anlığın sakitliyi

*a week's rest* – bir həftənin istirahəti

*a mile's distance* – bir millik məsafə  
*two weeks' rest* – iki həftəlik istirahət  
*two miles' distance* – iki millik məsafə  
*five days' rest* – beş günlük istirahət  
*a month's absence* – bir ayın yoxlayın  
*a year's absence* – bir ilin yoxluğu

3. With the names of *countries* and *towns*:

*Britain's interests* – Britaniyanın maraqları

*Canada's population* – Kanadanın əhalisi

*London's ambulance service* – Londonun təcili yardım xidməti

*Europe's future* – Avropanın gələcəyi

4. With names of *newspapers* and nouns denoting *different kinds of organization*:

*The Morning Star's famous column* – Moniq Starnın məşhur sütunu

*The Guardian's analysis* – Qadianın təhlili

*The company's plans* – Şirkətin planları

*The Geographical Society's gold medal* – Coğrafiya cəmiyyətinin qızıl medalı

*The United States' policy* – Birləşmiş Ştatların siyasəti

5. Often with the nouns *world, nation, country, city, town*:

*the city's parks* – şəhərin parkları

*the nation's future* – millətin gələcəyi

*the world's population* – dünyanın əhalisi

*the country's wealth* – ölkənin var-dövləti

6. With nouns denoting planets: *sun, moon, earth*:

*the sun's rays* – günəşin şüaları

*the moon's shadow* – ayın kölgəsi

*the earth's distance* – yerin məsafəsi

7. With the nouns *ship, boat, car*:

*The ship's crew stood on deck.* – Gəminun heyəti görətdə dayanmışdı.

*The car's door is locked.* – Maşının qapısı bağlıdır.

*What is the ship's name?* – Gəminin adı nədir?

What is **the name of the ship**?

8. With various nouns:

*the game's history* – oyunun tarixi

*the book's success* – kitabın müvəffəqiyyəti

*the play's style* – əsərin üslubu

*the game's popularity* – oyunun məşhurluğu

*the rocket's flight* – raketin uçuşu

*the river's bank* – çayın sahibi

*science's influence* – sakitliyin təsiri

*the needle's eye* – iynənin gözü

## 10. Genitive meanings

The meanings of the genitive can best be shown by sentential or phrasal analogues such as we present below. For comparison, a corresponding use of the **of-genitive** is given where this is possible.

### 1. Possessive genitive.

*My son's wife* – *My son has a wife.*

*Mrs. Johnson's passport* – *Mrs. Johnson has a passport.*

*the title of the book* – *The book has a title.*

### 2. Subjective genitive.

*the boy's application* – *The boy applied.*

*his parents' consent* – *His parents consented.*

*the rise of the sun* – *The sun rose.*

### 3. Objective genitive.

*the family's support* – *Somebody supports the family.*

*the boy's release* – *Somebody released the boy.*

### 4. Genitive of origin.

*the girl's story* – *The girl told a story.*

*the general's letter* – *The general wrote a letter.*

*The wines of France* – *France produced the wines.*

### 5. Discriptive genitive.

*a women's college* – *a college for women*



*a summer's day – a summer day / a day in the summer*  
*a doctor's degree* } – *a doctoral degree/a doctorate*  
*the degree of doctor* }

### 6. Genitive of measure and partitive genitive.

*ten days' absence* } – *The absence lasted ten days.*  
*an absence of ten days* }

*the height of the tower – The tower is (of) a certain height.*  
*Part of the problem – The problem is divisible into parts.*

### 7. Appositive genitive.

*the city of York – York is a city.*  
*The pleasure of meeting you – Meeting you is pleasure.*

## 11. The notion of gender

In ME there is no grammatical gender. The noun doesn't possess any special gender forms, neither does the accompanying adjective, pronoun or article indicate any gender agreement with the head-noun: *a red apple, red apples, the red apple.*

Gender in English is a division of nouns into three classes according to their lexical meaning: **a) masculine (referred to as he)** – names of male beings; **b) feminine (referred to as she)** – names of female beings; **c) neuter (referred to as it)** – names of lifeless things and abstract notions:

Masculine: *father, boy, brother*

Feminine: *mother, girl, sister*

Neuter: *table, lamp, chair*



The only exceptions are the nouns *child* and *baby* which are sometimes referred to as **it**.

*The child has broken its toy.*

*The baby fell and hurt its foot.*

### Personal masculine / feminine nouns.

#### 1. Nouns morphologically unmarked for gender.

*bachelor* – eblənməmiş subay kişi

*brother* – qardaş

*father* – ata

*gentleman* – cəntlmen

*king* – kral

*man* – kişi

*monk* [mʌŋk] – rahib

*uncle* – əmi, dayı

*spinster* – qarımış qız

*sister* – bacı

*mother* – ana

*lady* – xanım

*queen* – kraliça

*woman* – qadın

*nun* – *rahibə*

*aunt* – xala, bibi

#### 2. Nouns morphologically marked for gender.

There is practically only one gender-forming suffix in English, the suffix **-ess** expressing feminine gender. Its chief use is to distinguish persons:

<i>bridegroom</i> – yeni evlənmiş kişi, nişanlı oğlan	<i>bride</i> – gəlin
<i>duke</i> [dju:k] – hersoq	<i>duches</i> [ˈdʌtʃɪz] – hersoq qızı (arvadı)
<i>emperor</i> [ˈemprə] – imperator	<i>empres</i> [ˈemprɪs] – hökmdar qadın
<i>god</i> – Allah	<i>goddess</i> [ˈgɒdɪs] – ilahə
<i>hero</i> – qəhrəman	<i>heroine</i> [ˈheroun] – qəhərman qadın
<i>host</i> – ev sahibi	<i>hostess</i> – ev sahibəsi
<i>waiter</i> – ofisiant	<i>waitress</i> – qadın ofisiant
<i>widower</i> – dul kişi	<i>widow</i> – dul arvad
<i>usher</i> [ˈʌʃə] – sağdiş, solduş, qapıcı	<i>usheress</i> – bilet yoxlayan

### Personal dual gender.

This is a large class including the following:

<i>artist</i> – rəssam	<i>fool</i> – dəli
<i>chairman</i> – sədr	<i>foreign</i> – xarici
<i>teacher</i> – müəllim	<i>friend</i> – dost
<i>criminal</i> – cinayət	<i>guest</i> – qonaq
<i>doctor</i> – həkim	<i>inhabitant</i> – sakin
<i>enemy</i> – düşmən	<i>librarian</i> – kitabxanaçı

For clarity, it is sometimes necessary to use a **gender marker**: *boy friend, girl friend, man student, woman student.*

When such nouns are used generically, neither gender is relevant though a masculine reference pronoun may be used:

*If any **student** calls, tell **him** I'll be back soon.*

When they are used with specific reference, they must of course be either masculine or feminine and the context may clearly imply the gender in a given case:

*I met a (handsome) student (and he.....).*

*I met a (beautiful) student (and she.....).*

All animals may be considered neuter (referred to as **it**):

***The horse** moved **its** tail.* – At quyruğunu oynatdı.

***The sheep** returned to **its** fold.* – Qoyun (qoyunlar) arxaca qayıtdı.

Nouns denoting *birds, fishes and reptiles* (sürünənlər) are generally considered as neuter:

***The snake** crept into **its** hole.* – İlan (öz) yuvasına girdi (süründü).

***The butterfly** opened **its** wings.* – Kəpənək (öz) qanadlarını açdı.

In spoken English there is a tendency to associate the names of animals with the feminine or masculine gender:

a) When the noun indicates the sex of the animal it is generally spoken as **he** or **she**:

Masculine: *lion, tiger, bull*; also with proper names of animals: *Rover, Jack.*

Feminine: *lioness, tigress, cow; Jenny*

***The tiger** approached the camp. **His** dreadful **roar** made us shudder.*

*Our dog is called Jenny. She is very nice.*

Sex differences can also be indicated: *he – wolf, she – wolf; male – elephant, female elephant; cock – sparrow, hen – sparrow; he – goat, she – goat.*

Sometimes proper nouns are used with the names of animals to show the sex: *jack ass, jenny ass; billy – goat, nanny – goat.*

b) When the sex of the animal is not indicated by the noun, nouns denoting the *larger* animals are generally associated with the masculine gender, nouns denoting the *smaller* and *weaker* with the feminine:

Masculine: *elephant, horse, dog, eagle*

Feminine: *cat, hare, parrot*

<p><b>BUT:</b> <i>canary – he, fly – he</i> <i>The elephant lifted his mighty trunk.</i> <i>The eagle left his rocky nest.</i> <i>The cat has upset her milk.</i></p>
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The nouns *moon* and *earth* are referred to as feminine, *sun* as masculine:

*The sun came out in all his glory.*

*The earth awoke from her winter sleep.*

*The moon glittered as she rolled.*

The names of *vessels, vehicles* (ship, boat, steamer, carriage, coach, car) are feminine:

*She is a good boat.*

*We saw a ship in the distance. She was sailing west.*

*What a lovely ship. What is she called?*

Names of countries have different gender depending on their use:

1. As geographical units they are treated as inanimate:

*Looking at the map we see England. It is one of the countries of Europe.*

2. As political/economic units the names of countries are often feminine: *England is proud of her poets.*

3. In sports, the teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns: *England have improved their chance of winning the cup.*

When abstract notions are personified, the masculine gender is given to nouns suggesting such ideas as *strength, fierceness*, etc., while the feminine is associated with the idea of gentleness, beauty, etc.

Masculine: *anger, death, fear, war*

Feminine: *spring, peace, kindness, dawn.*

*The autumn* gave golden fruit to every garden, but to the Giant's garden *she* gave none.

*The hail* came. ... *His* breath was like ice.

**The combining of nouns.** A noun may combine:

1. With the articles – *a book, the book, a dog, the dog*
2. With a preceding and occasionally following adjective – *an interesting book, a clever boy, an apple eatable, time immemorial*
3. With a preceding noun in the common case – *a silver spoon, a kitchen door*, or in the genitive case – *the boy's book, the teacher's question.*
4. With a verb following it. *The books are on the table. Tom speaks.* With the preceding it. *Read the book. Take the pen.*
5. Occasionally with a following or preceding adverb the **then** government, the room *upstairs*.
6. With prepositions – *with the dog, before classes, the boy in the street.*
7. With some pronouns (possessive, demonstrative, indefinite, defining) – **my (this, some, every, the other)** book.
8. With numerals (both cardinal and ordinal) – *five* books, the *first* book, room *ten*.

## 12. Syntactic functions of nouns in the sentence

The noun in the common case may have various functions in the sentence, which are defined syntactically by means of word order and prepositions.

Thus when a noun in the common case precedes the predicate verb, it is usually the subject of the sentences; when it follows the predicate verb, it is usually the direct object: **Tom saw Nick.**

The noun in the common case may be used as a predicative: *My friend is **a doctor.***

The noun in the common case may be used as an indirect object, and a prepositional indirect object:

*He gave **Tom** the book.*

*He gave the look **to Tom.***

*He lives **with Tom.***

The noun in the common case may be used as an attribute:

*She took one of the **silver** spoons.*

*The door of **the kitchen** has been painted.*

The noun in the common case may be used as various adverbial modifiers (usually as part of prepositional phrases):

*The boy ran **to the river** (place).*

*They lived **near Victoria station** (place).*

*She spoke **in a whisper** (manner).*

The dependent genitive is mainly used in the function of an attribute:

*The old **man's** door opened and he came out.*

*He met his **father's** friend.*

The absolute genitive may be used in different functions:

*My dog is black. **Tom's** is white (subject).*

*My flat is on the second floor. **My friend's** is on the tenth floor (subject).*

*This is my book. That is **Tom's** (predicative).*

*Don't take his book. Take **Tom's** (object).*

*That question **of Tom's** surprised me (attribute).*

*A friend **of Tom's** told me all about it (attribute).*

*We went **to Tom's** (place).*

*We spent the night **at the Browns'** (place).*

## Chapter II

### THE ARTICLE

#### 1. General notion

The article is a structural part of speech used as a determiner of the noun. There are two articles in Modern English: the indefinite article *a (an)* and the definite article *the*.

**The indefinite article** has developed from the numeral *one* and retains some of its earlier meaning. Owing to its origin from the numeral *one* the indefinite article is not used before nouns used in the plural. Its use is limited to countable nouns in the singular.

The form *a* is used before the meaning beginning with a consonant: *a book, a dog, a cat* etc.

The form *an* is used before nouns beginning with a vowel: *an apple, an egg, an eagle* etc.

If the noun is preceded by an adjective the same rules are observed: *an interesting book, a red apple*.

**The definite article** has developed from the Old English demonstrative pronoun *that* and in some cases it has preserved this demonstrative meaning in Modern English:

*The man (this man) is waiting to see you.*

The definite article *the* is pronounced [ðə] before consonant sounds *the book [ðe buk]* and [ði] before vowel sounds *the apple [ði `æpl]*.

#### 2. Functions of the articles

The articles have morphological, syntactic and communicating functions.



*The morphological function* of the articles consists in serving as a formal indicator of the noun: the presence of the article signals that what follows is a noun: *a book, a map, an apple, etc.*

The articles have two syntactic functions:

1. The article separates the noun phrase from other parts of the sentence:

Tom bought } *a dog.*  
                  } *a black dog.*  
                  } *a very interesting black dog.*

2. The article may connect sentences within a text by correlating a noun it modifies with some word or a group of words in the previous context:

*I saw **a man**. **The man** was an old friend of mine.*

*Thus, the article in such a case has **the connecting** function.*

A noun with the indefinite article may introduce new information in the sentence: it is then the focus of communication:

*Suddenly **a little boy** appeared in the street.*

But a noun with the definite article is not the focus of communication:

***The little boy** appeared in the street.*

The meanings of the articles are definiteness and indefiniteness. Definiteness suggests that the object presented by the following noun is individualized and singled out from all the other objects of the same kind, whereas indefiniteness means a more general reference to an object.

Thus when saying *The girl took a book* or *The boy has a cat* or *The telephone is out of order*, the speaker treats the objects *girl, boy, telephone* as specific objects, while saying *a book, a cat* the speaker characterizes the objects in a more general way.

The notion of definiteness/indefiniteness determines the important role of the article in the process of communication. The definite article usually presents the notion as something already familiar before, whereas the indefinite article introduces a new item of information.

The presentation of objects as definite or indefinite, as already known or a new, depends on the speaker or the writer, who by using articles establishes mutual understanding between the speaker and the listener, the writer and the reader.

### 3. The use of the indefinite article with countable nouns

The indefinite article has *the nominating, classifying, numeric and generalizing meaning*.

The principal meaning of the indefinite article is to denote what kind of object (thing, person, etc.) the speaker has to do with:

*A young boy of 15 wants to see you.*

*They saw a house in the garden.*

*A voice called out "Come in!"*

This is the *nominating meaning* as we give a name to an object we have in mind. No more information is given to distinguish these nouns from others.

The indefinite article is used with a predicative noun, when the speaker refers the object to a certain class. This may be called *the classifying meaning* of the indefinite article:

*My sister is a student. He is a doctor. This is a book.*

It must be mentioned that in such cases the indefinite article is not translated into Azerbaijani:

*Mənim bacım tələbədir. O, həkimdir. Bu, kitabdır.*

#### NOTE:

The predicative with a limiting attribute is used with the definite article:

*This is the book, which you want.*

*Bu, sizin isdəyiniz kitabdır.*

*He is the doctor whom you want to see.*

*O, sizin görmək istədiyiniz həkimdir.*

Sometimes the indefinite article preserves its original numerical meaning of *one*. In such cases we can speak of the *numeric meaning* of the indefinite article.

*A month passed – Bir ay keçdi.*

*Two months passed – İki ay keçdi.*

*Wait a week – Bir həftə gözlə.*

*Wait two weeks – İki həftə gözlə.*

The indefinite article always has the numeric force before the numerals *hundred*, *thousand*, *million* and the nouns *dozen* and *score*:

*She bought a dozen eggs.*

*A hundred is enough.*

In the generalizing meaning the indefinite article indicates that the noun denotes a typical member of a class:

*A dog is a domestic animal (Every dog is a domestic animal).*

*A wolf is dangerous (Every wolf is dangerous).*

The generalizing meaning remains if we turn the nouns in the above-given examples into the plural. Plural nouns in the generalizing meaning are used without any article:

*Dogs are domestic animals. Wolves are dangerous.*

#### **4. The use of the definite article with the countable nouns**

The definite article is used with both singular and plural nouns. The definite article is used before a noun to show that in the mind of the speaker and the hearer the object denoted by the noun is marked as a *definite object*. That is why the definite article is describe as *an individualizing article*.

When the noun is used with the definite article the context or the situation of speech shows that the mind of the speaker is concentrated on that particular object:

*Tom is in the garden (the garden of that house). Please pass me the salt (the salt on the table). Give me the book (which is on the table). The man is waiting for you (whom you wanted to see).*

The definite article is widely used to refer back to an object which has already been mentioned in the text:

*Once upon a time there lived a man. The man was very rich. – Biri var idi, bir yox idi, bir kişi var idi. Bu kişi çox varlı idi.*

*I saw a boy. The boy came up to me. – Mən bir oğlan gördüm. Bu oğlan mənə yaxınlaşdı.*

*Suddenly they heard a loud cry. The cry was repeated several times. – Qəflətən onlar uca bir səs eşidilər. Bu səs bir neçə dəfə təkrarlandı.*

<p><b>NOTE:</b> Depending on the given situation a singular count noun may be used in the following ways: <i>Give me a book. – Mənə bir kitab ver.</i> <i>Give me the book. – Kitabı mənə ver.</i> <i>Give me books. – Mənə kitab ver.</i> <i>Give me the book. – Kitabları mənə ver.</i></p>
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The definite article is used in *the generic meaning* when the noun denotes the whole class:

*The dog is a domestic animal. The wolf is dangerous. The verb is a part of speech denoting an action.*

## 5. The use of the article with uncountable nouns

a) The use of the article with names of materials:

Names of materials have no articles when they are used in a general sense.

*I like milk. – Mən süd xoşlayıram.*

*Water is useful for everybody. – Su hər kəs üçün faydalıdır.*

*She doesn't like coffee. – O, qəhvə xoşlamır.*

Nouns of materials having descriptive attributes are also used without articles:

*The old man needs **fresh air**. – Qoca kişiyə **təmiz hava** lazımdır.  
He always drinks **boiled water**. – O, həmişə **qaynanmış su** içir.*

The indefinite article may be used with names of materials when they denote different sorts. In such a case they become countable nouns:

*It was **a** very good **cheese**. – O, çox yaxşı **pendir** idi.*

*It is **a** very rare **wine**. – O, olduqca qeyri-adi **şərabdır**.*

When a noun of material serves to denote an object made of that material, it turns into a countable noun and may accordingly be used with the definite or indefinite article:

*Give me **a glass** of water. – Mənə bir stəkan su ver.*

*Pass him **the glass**. – Stəkanı ona ver (ötür).*

*There is no **glass** in the window. – Pəncərədə **şüşə** yoxdur.*

***The glass** is very thick. – **Şüşə** çox qalındır.*

The definite article is used with names of material when they are narrowed in their meaning. This narrowing of meaning is shown by the context or the whole situation:

***The milk** (in the bottle) is hot. – **Süd** (butulkadakı) istidir.*

***The coffee** (in the glass) is strong. – **Qəhvə** (stakandakı) tündür.*

***The water** (in the jug) is fresh. – **Su** (bardaqdan) təzədir.*

b) The use of the article with abstract nouns:

Abstract nouns also have no articles when they are used in a general sense. Here belong such uncountable nouns as *work, weather, advice, news, information, progress, permission, business, knowledge, love, fear, truth, etc.*

*What fine **weather** we are having today. – Bu gün nə qəşəng **havadır**.*

*They want **freedom** and **independence**. – Onlar **azadlıq** və **müstəqillik** istəyir.*

*He enjoys **music**. – O, **musiqidən** zövq alır (musiqini xoşlayır).*

The definite article is used with abstract nouns when they are narrowed in their meaning:

***The news** was very strange. – **Xəbər** çox qəribə idi.*

*The weather is sunny today. – Bu gün hava günəşlidir.*

*The advice (he gave) is useful. – Məsləhət (onun verdiyi) faydalıdır.*

**NOTE:** As is known abstract nouns, like concrete nouns, fall into two classes: *countables* and *uncountables*. Countable abstract nouns may be used in the singular and in the plural: *a question-questions – sual-suallar, a story-stories – hekayə-hekayələr*. Generally the use of articles with countable abstract nouns does not differ from their use with countable concrete nouns:

*He asked the boy a question. – O, oğlandan bir sual soruşdu.*

*He asked the boy questions. – O, oğlandan bir neçə sual soruşdu.*

*He asked the boy the question. – O, oğlandan o sualı soruşdu.*

*He asked the boy the questions. – O, oğlandan o sualları soruşdu.*

It is sometimes difficult to draw a line of division between countable and uncountable nouns. Some abstract nouns are used in one meaning as countables and in another as uncountables:

Uncountable	Countable
<i>work – iş</i>	<i>a work – əsər</i>
<i>silence – sakitlik</i>	<i>a silence – fasilə</i>
<i>beauty – gözəllik</i>	<i>a beauty – gözəl</i>
<i>decision – qətiyyət, qətilik</i>	<i>a decision – qərar</i>
<i>nature – təbiət</i>	<i>a nature – xasiyyət</i>

*She was a beauty ten years ago. – On il əvvəl o, gözəl (xanım) idi.*

*We enjoy beauty. – Biz gözəllikdən zövq alırıq.*

*He was a man of decision. – O, qətiyyətli kişi idi.*

*He couldn't come to a decision. – O, bir qərara gələ bilmədi.*

*We can't understand his silence. – Biz onun sakitliyini başa düşə bilmirik.*



After a long **silence** he began to cry. – Uzun **fasilədən** sonra o, qışqırmağa başladı.

It was very hard **work**. – O, çox çətin iş idi.

People still enjoy the **works** of Shakespeare. – İnsanlar hələ də Şekspirin əsərlərindən zövq alır.

## 6. The use of articles with predicative nouns

Singular nouns in the function of a predicative are mostly used with the indefinite article and plural nouns without any article:

*He is a doctor.* – O, **həkimdir**.

*This are doctors.* – Onlar **həkimdirlər**.

Nouns used predicatively may have descriptive attributes:

*He is an experienced teacher.* – O, **təcrübəli həkimdir**.

*They are experienced teachers.* – Onlar **təcrübəli həkimdirlər**.

If a predicative noun is modified by a limiting attribute the definite article is used:

*He is the teacher we spoke about.* – O, haqqında danışdığımız müəllimdir.

*They are the books you advised me to read.* – Onlar sizin mənə oxumağı məsləhət gördüyünüz kitablardır.

When a predicative noun denotes a post (rank, occupation, state) by one person at a time, either no article or the definite article is used:

*He is (the) head of a great firm.* – O, böyük bir firmanın başçısıdır.

*She is (the) wife of the manager.* – O, sahibkarın arvadıdır.

With nouns **son** and **daughter** the definite article is typical:

He is the **son (the daughter)** of a teacher. – O, müəllim **oğludur (qızıdır)**.

**NOTE:** On the whole, with the nouns **son and daughter** used predicatively we find the following three variants:  
a) *He is the son of a teacher (which is the most common variant expressing mere relationship).*

b) He is **a son** of a teacher (which expresses the idea that the teacher has more than one son).

c) He is **son** of a teacher (which describes the social position of the person in question).

In the following cases predicative nouns are used without any article:

a) after the verbs:

to **turn** (traitor – *xain, satqın*; pirate – *quldur*; misez – *xəsis*)

to commence – *başlamaq*

to appoint – *təyin etmək*

He turned **sailor**. – *O, dənizçi oldu.*

She commenced **actress**. – *O, aktrisa kimi fəaliyyətə başladı.*

b) when predicative nouns are followed by the adverb **enough** they acquire an adjectival character and are used without any article:

He is **fool enough** to believe it. – *O, kifayət qədər axmaqdır ki, buna inansın.*

She is **woman enough** to understand it. – *O, kifayət qədər bunu başa düşən qadındır.*

c) when predicative nouns are used in clauses of concession with inverted word-order:

**Child** as she was, she had suffered much. – *Uşaq olmasına baxmayaraq, o, çox əziyyət çəkmişdi.*

**Boy** though he is, he is well-respected. – *Uşaq olmasına baxmayaraq, ona yaxşı hörmət edilir.*

## 7. The use of articles with nouns in apposition

Singular nouns in apposition are usually used with the indefinite article and plural nouns without any article. Here the indefinite article has the classifying meaning:

I am going to introduce you to **Nick, a friend of mine**. – *Mən sizi Nikə, dostlarımdan birinə, təqdim etmək fikrindəyəm.*

*They are Nick and Tom, new friends of mine.* – *Onlar mənim yeni dostlarım Tom və Nikdir.*

Nouns used in apposition may have descriptive attributes:

*Tom, a clever boy is my best friend.* – *Tom, ağıllı oğlan mənim ən yaxşı dostumdur.*

Nouns in apposition are used with the definite article if they are modified by a limiting attribute:

*Sunday, the day of our wedding, is unforgettable.* – *Bazar, bizim toyumuz olan gün, unudulmazdır.*

*Comrade Islamov, the manager of our firm, is very strict.* – *Yoldaş İslamov, bizim firmanın mənicəri, çox ciddidir.*

The definite article is also used if the noun denotes a well-known person or work of art:

*These stories have been written by W.S. Maugham, the famous short-story writer.* – *Bu hekayələr V.S. Moom, məşhur qısa-hekayə müəllifi tərəfindən yazılmışdır.*

*Hamlet, the tragedy by Shakespeare, has been translated into different languages.* – *Hamlet, Şekspir tərəfindən yazılan tragediya, müxtəlif dillərə tərcümə edilmişdir.*

But if the person or the work of art is not widely known the indefinite article is used:

*Mr. Brown, a neighbour of yours, will visit us tomorrow.* – *Cənab Braun, sizin qonşularınızdan biri, sabah bizə baş çəkəcək.*

*Have you ever heard of Caesar's wife, a play by Maugham?* – *Moom tərəfindən yazılmış Sezarın Arvadı pyesi haqqında eşitmişinizmi?*

When an appositive noun denotes a unique post (rank, occupation, state) it is used either with the definite article or without any article:

*Mr. Turner, (the) head of the firm, stayed there for some days.* – *Cənab Turner, firmanın başçısı, bir neçə gün orda aqaldı.*

Appositive nouns denoting titles (ranks, posts), family relations take no article before personal names:

*Dr. Ross – Həkim Ros*

*Lord Byron – Lord Bayron*

*Sir Brown – Cənab Braun*  
*Queen Anne – Şahzadə Anna*  
*President Aliyev – Prezident Əliyev*  
*Prof. Musayev – Prof. Musayev*  
*Colonel Tahirov – Polkovnik Tahirov*  
*Aunt Polly – Poli xala*  
*Uncle Tom – Tom dayı*  
*Cousin George – Corc dayı oğlu*  
*King Goerge – Kral Corc*  
*Academician Akhundov – Akademik Axundov*

Other appositive nouns take the definite article when used before proper nouns:

*the painter Salahov – rəssam Salahov*  
*the student Tom – tələbə Tom*  
*the geologist Salmanov – Geoloq Salmanov*  
*the dog Balthasar – it Baltasar*  
*the planet Mars – Mars planeti*  
*the novel War and Peacve – Müharibə və Sülh romanı*

In this case both the common noun and the proper name are stressed.

## **8. Special difficulties in the use of articles**

### *I. Articles with names of seasons.*

The use of articles with these nouns presents great difficulty because we find a good deal of fluctuation [ˈflʌktju`eɪʃn] (*dəyişiklik*) here.

Names of seasons (*winter, spring, summer, autumn* and American English *fall*) are mostly used without any articles though the definite article may be found even in a general statement:

*(The) winter is very long here. – Qış burada çox uzun olur.*

*(The) summer is a rainy season on the island. – Bu ada da yay yağışlı fəsildir.*

*People visit that place before (the) winter comes. – İnsanlar o yerə qış gəlməzdən əvvəl baş çəkirlər.*

The definite article is usually used when the name of the season has a limiting attribute:

*We shall never forget the autumn of 1999. – Biz heç vaxt 1999-cu ilin payızını unutmayacağıq.*

*The summer of 2010 was very hot. – 2010-cu ilin yayı çox isti idi.*

The definite article is generally used when names of seasons serve as an object in the sentence:

*He liked the winter there. – Orada qış onun xoşuna gəlmişdi.*

*She loves the spring. – O, yazı xoşlayır.*

The definite article is used after the prepositions *during, for, through*:

*They stayed in the city for the winter. – Onlar qışı şəhərdə qaldılar.*

*I was very busy through the summer. – Mən yay boyu çox məşğul idim.*

Names of seasons are used with the indefinite article when they have a descriptive attribute:

*It happened in a cold autumn. – Bu soyuq bir payızda (payız fəslində) baş verdi.*

*It was a hot summer. – İsti bir yay idi.*

When names of seasons are used as predicatives without descriptive attributes they have no article:

*It was summer when I was born. – Mən anadan olanda yay idi.*

*It was spring and the air was pleasant. – Yaz idi və hava xoş idi.*

When the names of seasons are modified by the adjectives *late* or *early*, there is no article:

*It was late autumn (the last month of autumn). – Payızın son ayı idi.*

*It was early summer (the first month of summer). – Payızın birinci ayı idi.*

**NOTE:** 1. In attributive of phrases names of seasons have no article: *the warmth of **spring*** – *yazın istiliyi*; *three months of **winter*** – *qışın üç ayı*; *the colours of **autumn*** – *payız rəngləri*

2. Notice the following set phrases used adverbially: *to work winter and summer* – *qış və yaz işləmək*; *early (late) in the autumn (summer)* – *erkən (gec) payızda (yayda)*; *all the winter (spring)* – *bütün qış (yaz) boyu*.

## II. Articles with names of parts of the day.

To this group of nouns belong: *day, night, morning, evening, noon, afternoon, midnight, dawn, twilight, dusk, sunrise, sunset, day-time, nightfall* and the like.

These nouns are used without any article in the following cases:

1. When the denote light or darkness.

*The sun set and soon **night** came.* – *Günəş batdı və tezliklə **qaranlıq** düşdü.*

*When we reached there **dusk** had already fallen.* – *Biz oraya çatanda artıq **qaş qaralmışdı.***

2. After the prepositions *at, after, before, by, till, until, towards, past.*

*He used to get up **at dawn.*** – *O, **dan yeri ağaranda** (erkən) yataqdan durardı.*

*We finished our work **till evening.*** – *Biz **axşamadək** işimizi qurtardıq.*

3. When these nouns are modified by nouns denoting days of the week or the words *yesterday* or *tomorrow*:

*It happened **yesterday morning.*** – *Bu **günən səhər** baş verdi.*

*We'll meet on **Sunday evening.*** – *Biz **bazar günü axşam** görüşəcəyik.*

4. In the function of a predicative:

*When they gathered under the tree it was **afternoon.*** – *Onlar ağacın altında toplaşanda **günorta** idi.*



5. In the combination of adverbial character *all day (long), all night (long), day after day, from morning till night, night after night, day and night, from day to day, late at night, etc.*

*They work **from morning till night**. – Onlar **səhərdən axşamadək** işləyirlər.*

6. If these nouns are modified by the adjectives *late, early*.

*It was **early morning** when we met. – Biz görüşəndə **erkən səhər** idi.*

Names of parts of the day are used with the indefinite article if they are modified by descriptive attributes:

*He left the city on **a cold morning**. – O, **soyuq bir səhərdə** şəhəri tərk etdi.*

*The man was found on **a frosty night**. – Kişi **şaxtalı bir gecə** də tapıldı.*

Names of parts of the day are used with the definite article in the following cases:

1. When a specific night or day, etc. is meant (the limitation is mostly clear from the context or situation; sometimes a limiting attribute is used):

***The night** was rainy and cold. – **Gecə** yağışlı və soyuq idi.*

***The morning of their arrival** was windy. – **Onların gəldiyi səhər** küləkli idi.*

2. After the prepositions *in, during, through* (in the morning, in the night, in the evening, in the daytime, in the afternoon, during the night through the night, through the day, etc.):

*The guests came **in the morning**. – Qonaqlar **səhər** gəldilər.*

*It rained **through the night**. – **Bütün gecə (gecə boyu)** yağış yağdı.*

3. When these nouns are preceded by the pronoun *other*:

*She saw me in the market **the other day**. – O, **bu günlərdə** məni bazarda gördü.*

*III. Articles with names of meals.*

Names of meals (breakfast, lunch, *dinner, supper*, tea) are generally used without any article:

*We have **dinner** at home. – Biz evdə **nahar** edirik.*

*I visit him after dinner. – Mən nahardan sonra ona baş çəkirəm.*

*It happened at dinner. – Bu, nahar vaxtı baş verdi.*

*We stayed there for dinner. – Biz orada nahar üçün qaldıq.*

The definite article is used when names of meals are modified by a limiting attribute or limitation is clear from the context or the situation:

***The dinner** (you gave) was very good. – Verdiyiniz nahar çox yaxşı idi.*

*I enjoyed **the dinner in the park**. – Mən **parkdakı nahardan** zövq aldım.*

***The supper** was excellent. – **Şam yeməyi** əla idi.*

The indefinite article is used when names of meals are modified by descriptive attributes:

*You can get **a good dinner** here. – Siz burada **yaxşı nahar** edə bilərsiniz.*

*She gave me **a good breakfast**, but **a bad supper**. – O, mənə **yaxşı səhər yeməyi**, amma pis qam yeməyi verdi.*

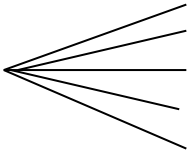
Sometimes names of meals are used as countable nouns and follow the rules of the use of articles for countable nouns:

*He has already paid **for two dinners**. – O, artıq **iki naharın** haqqını ödəyib.*

*In this hotel you pay for a room and **a breakfast**. – Bu mehmanxanada siz bir yer və **səhər yeməyinin** haqqını ödəyirsiniz.*

IV. Articles with the nouns school, college, hospital, etc.

The nouns *school, college, bed, prison, jail, class, university, table, church* are used without an article (usually after a preposition) when they lose their concrete meaning and express purpose for which the objects denoted by these nouns serve. The most common expressions with these nouns are:

to be in 

- hospital – xəstəxanada olmaq*
- bed – yataqda olmaq*
- prison (jail) – həbsdə olmaq*
- church – kilsədə olmaq*
- class – sinifdə olmaq*

<i>to be at school</i>	}	<i>məktəbli olmaq</i>
<i>to go to school</i>		
<i>to be at college</i>	<i>– kollecin tələbəsi olmaq</i>	
<i>to go to</i>	}	<i>hospital – xəstəxanaya getmək</i>
		<i>bed – yatağa getmək</i>
		<i>priso (jail) – həbsxanaya getmək</i>
		<i>church – kilsəyə getmək</i>
		<i>class – sinfə getmək</i>
<i>to leave</i>	}	<i>college – kolleci bitirmək</i>
		<i>school – məktəbi bitirmək</i>
		<i>university – universiteti bitirmək</i>
<i>to come from</i>	}	<i>school – məktəbdən gəlmək</i>
		<i>university – universitetdən gəlmək</i>
		<i>college – kollecdən gəlmək</i>
		<i>church – kilsədən gəlmək</i>

However, when these nouns denote concrete objects the articles are used according to the general principle. Compare:

*The child is **in bed**.* – *Uşaq yataqdadır.*

*The child is **on the bed**.* – *Uşaq çarpayının üstündədir.*

*He left **school** last year.* – *O, məktəbi keçən il bitirdi.*

*He left **the school** at six yesterday.* – *O, məktəbin binasını dünən saat altıda tərk etdi.*

V. Articles with nouns in some common expressions.

1. Names of musical instruments are used with the definite article when we speak about them in a general way:

*Tom plays the **piano** well.* – *Tom royalda yaxşı çalır.*

*I want to learn **the guitar** [gʷta:].* – *Mən gitaranı öyrənmək istəyirəm.*

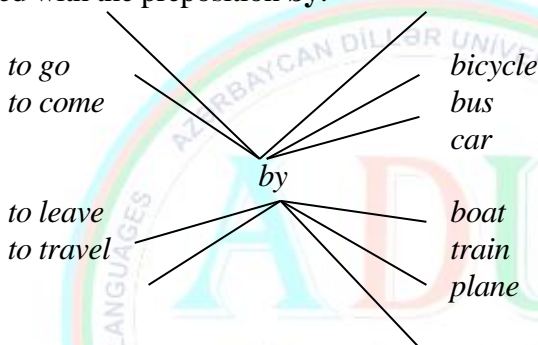
When these nouns have a concrete meaning they may be used with the definite and the indefinite article or without any article:

*Yesterday my father bought me **a piano**. – Dünən atam mənə **bir royol** aldı.*

*Where did you have **the violin** repaired? – Siz **skripkanı** harada təmir etdirdiniz?*

*There are two **pianos** in the hall. – Zalda iki royol var.*

2. Nouns denoting means of transport have no article when they are used with the preposition **by**:



*They went there **by car**. – Onlar oraya **maşınla** getdilər.*

*We travelled **by train**. – Biz **qatarla** səyahət etdik.*

However, in the following expressions articles are used in accordance with the general rules for countable nouns:

*to take **a/the train***

*to catch **a/the train***

*to miss* **a/the train**  
**a/the bus**  
**a/the plane**

*to be on **a/the bus** (plane)*

*to sit on **a/the bicycle***

*to sleep in **a/the train**, etc.*

*The boy sat on **a/the bicycle**. – Oğlan **velosipeddə** oturdu.*

*They were on **a/the bus**. – Onlar **avtobusda** idilər.*

*The child was sleeping in **a/the car**. – Uşaq **maşında** yatırdı.*

*The men were in **a/the boat**. – Kişilər **qayıqda** idilər.*

We took **a/the train**. – Biz **qatara** mindik.

He was on **a/the plane**. – O, **təyyarədə** idi.

In the following *by* phrases expressing manner or instrument nouns take no article either: *by air* (*təyyarə ilə*), *by land* (*quru ilə – to travel by land*), *by post* (*telefonla*), *by mail* (*by air mail – aviapoçtla*), *by phone* (*telefonla*), *by telegraph* (*teleqrafla*), *by hand* (*əllə*), *by chance* (*təsadiüfən*), *by mistake* (*səhvən*), *by accident* (*təsadiüfən*), etc.

They boy did it **by mistake**. – Oğlan onu **səhvən** etdi.

I enjoy travelling **by air**. – Təyyarə ilə səyahət etməkdən zövq alıram.

Nouns of various meanings are used without any article in adverbial prepositional phrases such as *in detail* (*ətraflı*), *on foot* (*piyada*), *on deck* (*göyərtədə*), *on holiday* (*məzuniyyətdə*), *on vacation* (*tətildə*), *on leave* (*məzuniyyətdə*), *at hand* (*əlinin altında, lap yaxında*), etc.

The examinations are **at hand**. – İmtahanlar yaxınlaşır.

They went there **on foot**. – Onlar oraya **piyada** getdilər.

3. Names of games are used without articles in combination with the verb **to play**:

<i>to play</i>	<i>tennis</i>	<i>tennis</i>	<i>oynamaq</i>
	<i>cricket</i>	<i>kriket</i>	
	<i>volley-ball</i>	<i>voleybol</i>	
	<i>hockey</i>	<i>xokkey</i>	
	<i>football</i>	<i>futbol</i>	
	<i>billiards</i>	<i>bilyard</i>	
	<i>cards</i>	<i>kart</i>	

I enjoy playing **tennis**. – Mən **tennis** oynamaqdan zövq alıram.

We never play **cards**. – Biz heç vaxt **kart** oynamırıq.

## 9. The use of the article with proper nouns

(1) *The use of articles with names of persons:*

a) Generally no article is used with names of persons:

*Mary was a girl of ten. – Meri on yaşlı qız idi.*

*Tom is a clever boy. – Tom ağıllı oğlandır.*

b) No article is used either if the names of persons are modified by such attributes *little, old, young, dear, poor, honest, lazy.*

*Poor Tom was often in trouble. – Yazıq Tom tez-tez əziyyəət çəkirdi.*

*Little Dot was with her baby. – Balaca Dot öz körpəsi ilə idi.*

*Old Emily went back to town. – Qoca Emili şəhərə qayıtdı.*

c) The names of members of a family, such as *Mother, Father, Aunt, Uncle, Grandfather, Grandmother, Baby, Nurse, Cook* are not used with articles when they are treated as proper names by the members of that family:

*Mother is in the next room. – Ana o birisi otaqdadır.*

*We visited Grandfather yesterday. – Dünən babamıza baş çəkdik.*

*Cook is in the kitchen. – Aşbaz mətbəxdədir.*

d) No article is used when a proper name is added to the nouns *aunt, sister, cousin, uncle:*

*Uncle John came to see me yesterday. – Con dayı dünən bizi görməyə gəldi.*

*Sister Carrie was at the party yesterday. – Kəri bacı dünən qonaqlıqda idi.*

*We met Aunt Polly. – Biz Polu xalanı qarşıladıq.*

e) The definite article is used before the names of persons in the plural if they denote a whole family:

*All the Forsytes gathered in the hall. – Bütün Forsaytlar zalda toplanmışdılar.*

*The Browns had a little daughter. – Braunların balaca bir qızı var idi.*

*The Jacksons were different from them. – Cəksonlar onlardan fərqli idi.*

The definite article is found with personal nouns modified by limiting attributes:

*He is not the Tom I knew. – O, tanıdığım Tom deyil.*



*He is the Mr. Brown about whom we often talk. – O, haqqında tez-tez danışdığımız cənab Braundur.*

f) The indefinite article is used to denote one member of the family:

*He was a Jackson. – O, Cəksonlardan biri idi.*

*He was a Forsyte. – O, Forsaytlardan biri idi.*

*He was a Brown. – O, Braunlardan biri idi.*

A personal name has the indefinite article if it is modified by the adjective certain:

*There was a certain Brown in the garden. – Bağda Braun adlı bir kişi var idi.*

g) No article is used with a proper name with a preceding noun to denote the title, rank or scientific degree:

*King Lear, Lord Byron, President Roosevelt, Professor Fox, Colonel Smith, Doctor Manson, Mr. Brown, Mrs. Brown, Miss Brown.*

h) Common nouns denoting professions followed by names of persons are generally used with the definite article:

*The painter Bahlulzade has left many fine pictures. – Rəsəm Bəhlulzadə çoxlu gözəl şəkillər qoyub getmişdir.*

(2) The use of the article with geographical names.

a) Geographical names like all other proper nouns are used without articles:

*London is the capital of Great Britain. – London Böyük Britaniyanın paytaxtıdır.*

*Baki is a nice city. – Bakı gözəl şəhərdir.*

b) There is no article if a geographical name is modified by an attribute in pre-position:

*My relatives live in North America. – Qohumlarım Şimali Amerikada yaşayır.*

*He was born in Latin America. – O, Latın Amerikasında anadan olub.*

*I shall go to Central Asia. – Mən Mərkəzi Asiyaya gedəcəyəm.*

c) Names of seas, oceans, rivers, straits [**streit**] – boğaz, canals are used with the definite article:

*The Baltic Sea is very stormy in winter.* – *Baltik dənizi qışda çox fırtınalı olur.*

*They went down the Amazon (a river).* – *Onlar Amazon çayı boyu aşağı getdilər.*

*Geneva is situated on the shores of the Leman (a lake).* – *Cenevrə Leman gölünün sahilində yerləşir.*

*They crossed the Atlantic Ocean last year.* – *Keçən il onlar Atlantik okeanını keçdilər.*

**the Magellan Strait** – Magellan boğazı

**the Bering Straits** [ˈbɛərɪŋ] – Berin boğazı

**the Torres Straits** – Tores boğazı

**the Kattegat** [kætiˈgæt] – Kateqat boğazı

**the Bosphorus** – Bospop boğazı

**the Dardanelles** [dɑːdæˈnelz] – Dardanel boğazı

**the Kiel Canal** [ki:l] – Kil kanalı

**the Suez Canal** [ˈsuːz] – Süveyş kanalı

**the Panam Canal** [ˈpænəmə:] – Panama kanalı

**the English Channel** [tʃænəl] – boğaz

**NOTE:**

1) The words *sea* and *ocean* may be dropped:

*The Baltic is very stormy in winter.*

*They crossed the Atlantic.*

2) Names of rivers sometimes take the word *river* after the first element:

*They went down the Amazon river.*

3) Names of lakes usually take the definite article: *the Leman, the Baikal, the Ontario, the Lodoga*

When names of lakes are preceded by the noun *lake* no article is used:

*They rested on the shores of Lake Leman.* – *Onlar Leman gölünün sahilində dincəldilər.*

d) Names of *bays* [beɪ] – buxta, kiçik körfəz generally have no article: *Hudson Bay, Baffin Bay*

e) Names of peninsulas [pə`nɪnsjələ] – yarımada have no article if the proper name is used alone. But we find the definite article if the noun *peninsula* is mentioned:

*Indo-China – the Indo-China Peninsula; Balkan – the Balkan Peninsula; Hindustan – the Hindustan Peninsula; Kamchatka – the Kamchatka Peninsula*

f) Names of mountain chains and groups of islands are used with the definite article:

*The Caucasus – Qafqaz Sıra Dağları*

*The Crimea – Kırım Sıra Dağları*

*The Himalaya(s) – Himalay Sıra Dağları*

*The Pamirs – Pamir Sıra Dağları*

*The Urals – Ural Sıra Dağları*

*The Philippines – Filippin adaları*

*The Canaries – Kanar adaları*

*The Bahamas – Baham adaları*

*The Kurils – Kuril adaları*

But names of separate peaks and separate islands are used without any article: *Elbrus, Everest, Mount Blank, Vesuvius (peaks), Cuba, Haiti, Cyprus, Madagascar (islands)*

g) Names of falls (şəlalə) and deserts (səhra) are generally used with the definite article: *the Sahara, the Gobi, the Kara-Kum (deserts), the Niagara Falls, the Swallow Falls (falls)*

*Freedom Square – Azadlıq Meydanı*

*Trafalgar Square – Trafalqar Meydanı*

*Westminster Bridge – Uestminster Körpüsü*

*Westminster Abbey – Uestminster Abadlığı*

*Greenwich Village – Qrinvıç Kəndi*

*Kennedy Airport – Kennedi Hava Limanı*

*Oxford Street – Oksford Küçəsi*

i) As a rule names of months and days are used without articles:

*I was born in June. – Mən iyunda anadan olmuşam.*

We saw them on **Monday**. – Mən onları **Bazar ertəsi** gördüm.

When these nouns are modified by a limiting attribute the definite article is used:

We shall never forget **the June of 1941**. – Biz heç vaxt **1941-ci ilin iyununu** unutmayacağıq.

It happened **on the Sunday when he left London**. – Bu, o **Londonu tərk etdiyi Bazar günü** baş verdi.

These nouns are used with the indefinite article when we mean *one of many Fridays or Junes*:

We moved to that city **on a Monday**. – Biz o şəhərə **bir Bazar Ertəsi** köçdük.

These nouns are also used with the indefinite article when modified by a descriptive attribute:

**A hot august** is the usual thing in Baki. – **İsti avqust** Bakı üçün adi şeydir.

We found him **on a cold Sunday**. – Biz onu **soyuq bir Bazar günü** tapdıq.

j) Names of ships, newspapers, journals, museums, etc. require the definite article:

*The Times, The Guardian, the Life, the Punch* – qəzet və jurnal adları.

*The Astoria, The Absheron* – mehmanxana adları.

*The Sedov, The Titanic* – gəmi və qayıq adları.

k) Names of languages are used without any article unless the noun *language* is mentimed:

We speak **English**. – Biz **ingiliscə** danışırıq.

I am going to learn **French**. – Mən **fransızca** öyrənməyə hazırlaşırım.

It is difficult to learn **Japanese**. – **Yaponca** öyrənmək çətinlidir.

When the word *language* is used it requires the definite article:

I like **the English language**. – Mən **ingilis dilini** xoşlayırım.

I am going to learn **the French language**. – Mən **fransız dilini** öyrənməyə hazırlaşırım.

**NOTE:**

Sometimes the word *language* may be dropped:

*He translated the article from **the German**. – O məqaləni **almancadan** tərcümə etdi.*

*What is the English for “**alma**”? – İngiliscə **alma** nədir?*

1) We find the definite article with name of some grammatical categories: *The Present Perfect, The Passive Voice, The Conditional Mood, The Genitive Case, The Category of Mood, The Category of Tense etc.*

## 10. The use of the article in some nominal phrases

a) *most* adjective:

(1) The definite article is used when *most* serves to form the superlative degree of an adjective:

*This is **the most interesting** book. – Bu, **ən maraqlı** kitabdır.*

(2) Sometimes *most* has the same meaning as *very* exceedingly.

*He is a **most (very) devoted** friend. – O, **olduqca səmimi** dostdur.*

In such cases *most* is an adverb of degree.

b) *most+of+noun*. When definite people or things are meant the noun is used with the definite article and *most* is followed by the preposition *of*:

***Most of the pupils** will help the old woman. – **Şagirdlərin əksəriyyəti** qoca qadına kömək edəcək.*

*Most+noun* is used when the noun has a general sense:

***Most children** like animals. – **Əksər uşaqlar** heyvanları xoşlayır.*

***Most boys** like football. – **Əksər oğlanlar** futbolu xoşlayır.*

c) *last (next)+noun*. Nouns modified by the adjectives *last* and *next* are generally used with the definite article:

*Repeat **the last** word again. – **Sonuncu** sözü yenidən təkrar et.*

*I could not hear **the last sentence**. – Mən **sonuncu cümləni** eşidə bilmədim.*

*He is in **the next** room. – O, o birisi otaqdadır.*



*Read **the next page** at home. – Növbəti səhifəni evdə oxu.*

But when these words modify nouns denoting time, actually coming or just past from the point of view of the speaker, there is no article at all:

***Last summer** I was in London. – **Keçən yay** mən Londonda idim.*

***Next time** we'll do it. – **Gələn dəfə** biz onu edəcəyik.*

d) *another (other)+noun*. The in definite article with *other* is spelled as one word *another*, which has the following meaning:

1) *different – başqa*

*Take **another book**. It is not my book. – Başqa bir kitab götür. O, mənim kitabım deyil.*

2) *one more, additional – daha bir. əlavə*

*Give me **another cup** of water. – Mənə daha bir fincan su ver.*

A noun (singular or plural) modified by a pronoun *other* is used with the definite article when two objects or two groups of objects are contrasted:

*He has two brothers: one is very hard-working, but **the other brother** is lazy. – Onun iki qardaşı var: biri çox çalışqan, o biri qardaşı isə tənbəldir.*

*We were sitting in the hall, and **the other students** were in the yard. – Biz zalda otururduq, o biri tələbələr isə həyətdə idilər.*

However, when the speaker is not sure that all the rest of the objects are meant the definite article is not used:

*Some boys and girls were bathing in the sea, **other holiday makers** were lying on the yellow sand. – Bir neçə oğlan və qız dənizdə çimirdi, başqa (digər) dincələnlər içə sarı qumun üstə uzanmışdılar.*

The same rules are applied to *other* when it is used as a noun-pronoun:

*The twins were talented; one was clever at studies, **the other** at sports. – Əkizlər bacarılı idi: biri oxumağa (təhsilə), o biri isə idmana marağ göstərirdi.*

*There were some men the room: one was a doctor, **the others** were engineers. – Otaqda bir neçə kişi var idi: biri həkim, o biriləri isə mühəndis idi.*



Some of his former friends forgot him, **others** thought he had died or left the country. – *Onun keçmiş dostlarından bəziləri onu unutdu, başqaları isə düşündü ki, o, ya vəfat edib, yaxud şəhəri tərk edib.*

**NOTE:** *The other day* is to be regarded as a set phrase.

*I saw him **the other** day.* – *Mən onu bu yaxınlarda gördüm.*

## 11. The use of articles with nouns in some set expressions

### 1. Set expressions with the indefinite article:

*to have a good time* – *yaxşı vaxt keçirmək*

*to have a rest* – *istirahət etmək*

*to have a swim* – *üzmək*

*to have a walk* – *gəzmək*

*to have a wash* – *yuyunmaq*

*to have a dance* – *rəqs etmək*

*to have a smoke* – *papiros çəkmək*

*to have a look* – *nəzər salmaq*

*in a low voice* – *alçaq səsə*

*It is a pity* – *əfsus ki...*

*It is a shame* – *eybdir*

*It is a pleasure* – *yaxşıdır.*

*in a loud voice* – *uca səsə*

*a few* – *bir az*

*a great many* – *çox(lu)*

*a great deal* – *çox(lu)*

*a little* – *bir az*

*to take a seat* – *əyləşmək*

*to be at a loss* – *çətin vəziyyətdə olmaq*

*as a result* – *nəticələr*

*to be in a hurry* – *tələsmək*

*for a short time* – *qısa müddətdə*

*all of a sudden* – *qəflətən*

## **2. Set expressions with the definite article:**

*in the original – orijinalda*

*to play the piano – pianino çalmaq*

*to play the violin – skripka çalmaq*

*to tell the truth – həqiqəti demək (söyləmək)*

*on the one (other) hand – bir tərəfdən...digər / o biri tərəfdən*

*to keep the bed – yataq rejimini qorumaq*

*to pass the time – vaxtı keçirmək*

*in the singular – təkdə*

*on the way home – evə gedərkən, yölüstü*

*on the right – sağda*

*on the left – solda*

*on the whole – əsasən*

*the day after to-morrow – o birisi gün*

*to keep the house – evdə qalmaq*

*to tell the time – vaxtı demək*

*in the plural – cəmdə*

*by the way – yeri gəlmişkən*

## **3. Set expressions without articles:**

*out of doors – həyətdə, küçədə*

*to give permission – icazə vermək*

*to get permission – icazə almaq*

*to ask permission – icazə xahiş etmək*

*at present – indi, hal-hazırda*

*from morning till night – səhərdən axşamadək*

*from beginning to end – başdan axıradək*

*at first sight – ilk baxışdan, ilk görüşdən*

*by chance – təsadüfən*

*by mistake – səhfən*

*by land – qatarla, maşınla*

*by air – təyyarə ilə*

*by sea – gəmi ilə*

*to go to sea – dənizçi olmaq*

*on deck – göyərtədə*  
*at sunrise – günəş çıxanda*  
*at sunset – günəş batanda*  
*at work – işdə*  
*at peace – sülh şəraitində*  
*by name – adında*  
*at night – gecə*  
*at home – evdə*  
*at first sight – ikl baxışda*  
*by heart – əzbər*  
*by name – adında*  
*at table – stol arxasında (nahar vaxtı)*  
*to go to bed – yatmaq, yatağa getmək*  
*to be in bed – yataqda olmaq*  
*from head to foot – başdan ayağa*  
*day and night – gecə və gündüz*  
*on sale – satışda*  
*to keep house – ev işlərini görmək*  
*in debt – borclu*  
*arm in arm – qol-qola*  
*hand in hand – əl-ələ*  
*day by day – günbə-gün*  
*face to face – üzbə-üz*  
*from west to north – qərbdən şimala*  
*from right to left – sağdan sola*

## 12. The place of articles

Since the article is the opening element of a noun phrase, it is usually placed before the noun if refers to or before all other noun premodifiers.

The exceptions to this rule are as follows:

1. Nouns with the definite article follow *all*, *both*, *half*:

**All the boys** were glad to see them. – Bütün oğlanlar onları görməyə şad oldular.

**Both the girls** will come. – Hər iki qız gələcək.

**Half the books** have been sold. – Kitabların yarısı gələcək.

If took me half an hour to finish my work. – İşimi yarım saata qurtardım.

The definite article after *both* may be dropped:

**Both boys** came. – Hər iki oğlan gəldi.

When the noun is used in a general sense, it does not need any article. Compare:

**All children** like ice-cream. – Bütün uşaqlar **dondurma** xoşlayır.

**All the children** (in the room) like ice-cream. – (Otaqdakı) bütün uşaqlar **dondurma** xoşlayır.

The definite article is not used if *all* is followed by a numeral:

**All three students** are good at English. – Hər üç oğlan ingilis dilini yaxşı bilir.

When *all* is followed by the preposition *of* the definite article is used before a numeral:

**All of the three boys** are good at English. – **Oğlanların üçü də** ingilis dilini yaxşı bilir.

2. Nouns modified by articles are preceded by *once*, *twice*:

I visit my uncle **once a month**. – Mən ayda **bir dəfə** dayıma (əməmə) baş çəkirəm.

We saw him **twice a week**. – Biz onu həftədə iki dəfə görürük.

She paid **twice the price** for the hat. – O, şlyapanın **haqqını ikiqat** ödədi.

3. The fractions one-third, three-quarters, etc. come before nouns with the definite article:

He did only **one-third of the work**. – O, yalnız **işin üçdə birini** etdi.

4. Nouns with the indefinite follow *such* and the exclamatory *what*:

It is **such an interesting book**. – Bu belə maraqlı kitabdır.

**What an interesting book** it is! – Bu, nə maraqlı kitabdır.

5. Nouns with the indefinite article are used after *quite* and *rather*:

*It is **rather a long distance**.* – *Bu **olduqca uzun məsafədir**.*

*She is **quite a beauty**.* – *O, **həqiqətən gözəldir**.*

However, *quite* and *rather* can be placed after the indefinite article:

*It is **a rather long distance**.* –

*She is **a quite beauty**.* –

6. The indefinite article is placed after an adjective if that adjective is preceded by *so*, *as*, *too*, *how* and *however*:

*It is **not so simple a problem** as it seems.* – *Bu, **göründüyü kimi, elə sadə problem deyil**.*

*That was **too difficult a problem** for the child to solve.* – *O, **uşağın onu həll etməsi üçün **olduqca çətin bir problem** idi**.*

7. The indefinite article is placed after *many* (and in this case the noun is used in the singular):

***Many a true word** is spoken in jest.* – *Zarəfatda **çoxlu** **həqiqi söz** deyilir.*

*I have heard **many a young girl** say that.* – *Mən **çox cavan qızların** onu deməyini eşitmişəm.*

## Chapter III

### THE ADJECTIVE

#### 1. Definition

The adjective is a part of speech characterized by the following features:

1. Lexico-grammatical meaning of a quality or state of a substance.
2. The adjective has certain stem-building affixes: *beautiful*, *homeless*, *childish*, *active*, *friendly*, etc.
3. The morphological category of the degrees of comparison.
4. The characteristic combinability with nouns (*a nice book*), link-verbs (*is angry*), adverbs, mostly those of degree (*a very clever boy*), the so-called *prop word one* (the red one).
5. Its function of an attribute and a predicative.

#### 2. Classification of adjectives according to their lexical meaning

According to their lexical meaning adjectives are divided into three groups: **1. Qualitative adjectives; 2. Relative adjectives; 3. Stative adjectives.**

**Qualitative adjectives** denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc. Qualitative adjectives in their turn may be differentiated according to their meaning:

1. Adjectives denoting *colour*:

*This was a horrible **red** and **white** man.*

*He was a young student with a **pink** and **white** face.*

*She had **blue** eyes...*

2. The adjectives denoting *size* and *shape*:



They live in a **large** room.

The guests are sitting at the **round** table.

There are a lot of **high** trees in our garden.

The **thin** man said...

The adjectives denoting size and shape often make antonyms to each other:

<i>new – old</i>	<i>təzə – köhnə</i>
<i>deep – shallow</i>	<i>dərin – dayaz</i>
<i>high – low</i>	<i>hündür – alçaq</i>
<i>long – short</i>	<i>uzun – qısa</i>
<i>tall – short</i>	<i>uca – alçaq</i>
<i>thick – thin</i>	<i>qalın – nazik</i>
<i>wide – narrow</i>	<i>geniş – dar</i>
<i>big – small</i>	<i>böyük – balaca</i>
<i>bright – dim</i>	<i>parlaq – tutqun</i>
<i>fat – thin</i>	<i>kök – arıq</i>
<i>heavy – light</i>	<i>ağır – yüngül</i>
<i>strong – weak</i>	<i>güclü – zəif</i>

3. Adjectives denoting age:

He loked at his large **young** hands.

In front of him he saw **a middle-aged** man.

She was a **young** lady.

4. Adjectives denoting various qualities of a substance, such as: *smell, taste, specific sound characteristics, anger, emotional attitude, intelligence, etc.*

He heard him say in a **loud** voice.

She could hear him singing to himself in **a monotonous** voice.

Tulip is an **odourless** flower.

She had a **peppery** beaf-steak.

She grew **furios**.

He grieved at the death of his **beloved** wife.

That was a strange question to be put by **darling** Jane.

She thought: “He is obviously a very **sensitive** man”.

It must be noted that it is impossible to classify all the adjectives according to their lexical meaning because each substance has its own specific quality.

**Relative adjectives** describe properties of a substance through to (1) materials (*woolen, wooden*), to (2) time (*daily, monthly*), to (3) place (**European, Italian**), (4) to some action (*defensive, preparatory*).

1) a **wooden** door – ağaj qapı      She bought a **silk** dress.  
O, ipək paltar aldı.

a **woolen** dress – yun parça      We saw an old **steel** bridge.

a **silver** watch – gümüş saat      Biz köhnə bir polad körpü  
an **iron** bridge – dəmir gördük.

körpü      The **stony** road was very  
My uncle wears a **gold** watch.  
clean.

Əmim qızıl saat gəzdirir.      Daş yol çox təmiz idi.

2) a **monthly** magazine – aylıq jurnal      **Daily** newspapers are  
published every day.

a **weakly** newspaper – həftəlik qəzet      Gündəlik qəzetlər hər gün nəşr  
edilir.

**daily** programme – gündəlik  
proqram

3) **Asian, African and Latin American** countries - Asiya, Afrika və Latin Amerikasını ölkələri.      Turkish coffee – türk qəhvəsi  
German plums – alman gavalısı  
European countries – avropa ölkələri

English walnut – ingilis qozu

4) **scientific progress** – elmi inkişaf

**industrial materials** – sənaye materialı

**preparatory courses** – hazırlıq kursları

**Stative adjectives** denote the state of a substance. Here belong: *angry, glad, alive, asleep, awake, afraid, afoot, ahead, alone, ashamed*, etc.

*This is the lost time I ever saw my mother **alive**.*

*There was a man **asleep** in the room.*

*That night after she seemed **asleep**, he lay **awake**.*

*...he should be **afraid** of his son's eyes.*

*I am not **aware** of it.*

### 3. Classification of adjectives according to their morphological structure

According to their morphological composition adjectives can be subdivided into: **a) simple; b) derived; c) compound**.

**Simple adjectives** are adjectives which have neither prefixes nor suffixes. They are indecomposable: *hot, good, bad, poor, little*, etc.

**Derivative adjectives** are adjectives which have derivative elements, suffixes or prefixes or both:

<i>rain – rainy</i>	<i>yağış – yağışlı</i>
<i>use – useful</i>	<i>fayda – faydalı</i>
<i>regular – <b>irregular</b></i>	<i>qaydalı – qaydasız</i>
<i>kind – <b>unkind</b></i>	<i>mərhəmətli – mərhəmətsiz</i>
<i>forget – <b>unforgetful</b></i>	<i>unutmaq – unudulmaz</i>
<i>bear – <b>unbearable</b></i>	<i>dözmək – dözülməz</i>

Adjective forming suffixes and prefixes are:

<b>-able</b>	<i>eatable</i>	<i>yeməli</i>
<b>-ed</b>	<i>moneyed</i>	<i>varlı, pullu</i>
<b>-ful</b>	<i>beautiful</i>	<i>gözəl</i>
<b>-ish</b>	<i>foolish</i>	<i>axmaq</i>
<b>-ive</b>	<i>active</i>	<i>fəal</i>
<b>-less</b>	<i>homeless</i>	<i>evsiz</i>
<b>-ly</b>	<i>friendly</i>	<i>dostluq (görüşü)</i>

<b>-ous</b>	<i>dangerous</i>	<i>təhlükəli</i>
<b>-some</b>	<i>handsome</i>	<i>qəşəng</i>
<b>-y</b>	<i>foggy</i>	<i>dumanlı</i>
<b>-en</b>	<i>woolen</i>	<i>yun (parça)</i>
<b>-al</b>	<i>medical</i>	<i>tibbi</i>
<b>anti-</b>	<i>anti-war</i>	<i>müharibə əleyhinə</i>
<b>post-</b>	<i>post-war</i>	<i>müharibədən sonra</i>
<b>a-</b>	<i>amoral</i>	<i>əxlaqsız</i>
<b>dis-</b>	<i>disagreeable</i>	<i>razılaşmayan</i>
<b>inter-</b>	<i>interchangeable</i>	<i>dəyişkən</i>
<b>over-</b>	<i>over-curious</i>	<i>hər şeylə maraqlanan</i>
<b>un-</b>	<i>unacceptable</i>	<i>qəbuledilməz</i>

**-able** forms adjectives from verbs and sometimes from nouns:

<i>to eat – eatable</i>	<i>yemək – yeməli</i>
<i>to suit – suitable</i>	<i>yaraşmaq – yaraşığı</i>
<i>to agree – agreeable</i>	<i>razılaşmaq – razılaşmış</i>
<i>to accept – acceptable</i>	<i>qəbul etmək – qəbul edilməli</i>
<i>to comfort – comfortable</i>	<i>sakitləşdirmək – rahat</i>
<i>to drink – drinkable</i>	<i>içmək – içməli</i>
<i>value – valuable</i>	<i>qiymət – qiymətli</i>
<i>peace – peaceable</i>	<i>sülh – sülhsevər</i>
<i>reason – reasonable</i>	<i>səbəb – ağlabatan</i>

**-ed** forms adjectives from nouns:

*salary-salaried – maaş, məvacib, maaşlı, məvacibli*

*instrument-instrumented – alət-alətli*

*gift-gifted – hədiyyə, bəxşiz, bəşəriyyətli, istedadlı,*

*wing-winged – qanad-qanadlı*

**-ful** forms adjectives from nouns:

*beauty-beautiful – gözəllik-gözəl*

*hope-hopeful – ümid-ümidverici*

*respect-respectful – hörmət-hörmətçil*

*care-careful – qayğı-qayğıkeş*

The opposite meaning of these adjectives have two forms:

*fruitful – meyvəli*

*fruitless – meyvəsiz*

*unfruitful – meyvəsiz*

**-ish** forms adjectives from nouns and adjectives:

*book-bookish – kitab-kitab dilində işlənən sözlər*

*child-childish – uşaq-özünü uşaq kimi aparan*

*fool-foolish – axmaq-ağılsız*

*girl-girlish – qız-qız kimi, qızsayağı*

*man-mannish – kişi-kişisayağı*

*woman-womanish – qadın-qadınsayağı*

*red-reddish – qırmızı-qırmızımtıl*

*green-greenish – yaşıl-yaşımtil*

**-ive** forms adjectives from nouns:

*to act-active – hərəkət etmək-fəal*

*to compare-comparative – müqayisə etmək-müqayisəli*

**-less** forms adjectives from nouns:

*window-windowless (building) – pəncərə-pəncərəsiz (bina)*

*home-homeless (boys) – ev-evsiz (oğlanlar)*

*meat-meatless (day) – ət-ətsiz (gün)*

*father-fatherless (home) – ata-atasız (ev)*

*pain-painless (operation) – ağrı-ağrısız (əməliyyat)*

*help-helpless (men) – kömək-köməksiz (adamlar)*

**-less** is used as the opposite meaning of **-ful**:

*fruitful-fruitless – meyvəli-meyvəsiz*

*careful-careless – diqqətli-diqqətsiz*

*useful-useless – faydalı-faydasız*

*hopeful-hopeless – ümidverici-ümitsiz*

**-ly** forms relative adjectives from nouns:

*month-monthly – ay-aylıq*

*day-daily – gün-gündəlik*

*friend-friendly – dost-dostluq*

*love-lovely – sevgi-xoşagələn*

**-ous** forms adjectives from nouns:

*danger-dangerous – təhlükə-təhlükəli*

*joy-joyous – sevinj-sevinjli*

*mountain-mountainous – dağ-dağlı*

*poison-poisonous – zəhər-zəhərli*

*fame-famous – şöhrət-şöhrətli*

*courage-courageous – qeyrət-qeyrətli*

**-y** forms adjectives from nouns:

*cloud-cloudy – bulud-buludlu*

*rain-rainy – yağış-yağışlı*

*wind-windy – külək-küləkli*

*ice-icy – buz-buzlu*

*fun-funny – şənlik-gülməli*

*fog-foggy – duman-dumanlı*

*snow-snowy – qar-qarlı*

*dirt-dirty – çirk-çirkli*

**-en** forms relative adjectives from nouns:

*wood-wooden – ağac-ağacdən qayrılmış*

*wool-woolen – yun-yundan olan*

*gold-golden – qızıl-qızılı, qızıl rəngli*

**-al** forms relative adjectives from nouns:

*centre-central – mərkəz-mərkəzi*

*culture-cultural – mədəniyyət-mədəni*

*medicine-medical – dərman-tibbi*

*biology-biological – biologiya-bioloji*



**-anti** forms adjectives with opposite meaning:

*anti-American* – Amerika əleyhinə

*antilogical* – məntiqsiz

*antigrammatical* – qrammatikaya zidd

**-dis** forms adjectives with opposite meaning:

*disagreeable* – xoşagəlməz

*disobedient* – sözəbaxmayan

**Compound adjectives** are adjectives built from two or more stems. The main types of compound adjectives are as follows:

**1. Noun-stem+adjective-stem:**

*life-long* – ömürlük

*blood-thirsty* – bərkəsusuz

*frost-bound* – şaxtadan donmuş

**2. Adjective-stem+adjective-stem:**

*red-hot* – isti, alovlu

*dead-alive* – darıxdırıcı

*blue-black* – göy-qara

**3. Noun (adjective, pronoun)+participle:**

*freedom-loving* – azadlıq sevən

*oil-forming* – yağ əmələ gətirən

*all-knowing* – hər şeyi bilən

*good-looking* – xoşagələn

**4. Noun (adjective)+participle:**

*smoke-dried* – hislənmiş, bişmiş

*weather-beaten* – möhkəmlənmiş

*fresh-painted* – təzə rənglənmiş

*stone-built* – daşdan tikilmiş

**5. Noun (adjective, numeral)+noun+ed:**

*grey-headed* – başı ağarmış

*shame-faced* – utanjaq

*cold-hearted* – daş ürəkli

*slate-roofed* – şiferlə örtülmüş

*four-wheeled – dördtərkibli*  
*round-faced – dəyirmisifət*  
*curly-haired – qıvrım-saçlı*

#### 4. The category of degrees of comparison of adjectives

Most adjectives have three degrees of comparison: **positive**, **comparative** and **superlative**.

The **positive degree** is the plain stem of an adjective: *interesting, clever, black, green, hot, dark, etc.*

*This is an **interesting** book. – Bu, maraqlı kitabdır.*

*Tom is a **clever** boy. – Tom ağıllı oğlandır.*

*Bob has a **black** dog. – Bobun qara iri var.*

The comparative and the superlative degrees are formed in two ways:

a) by adding the suffixes **-er [ə]** and **-est [ɪst]** (synthetical forms).

b) by using *more, less* and *most, least* before the adjective (analytical forms).

The **comparative degree** denotes a higher degree of a quality. It is formed in the following ways:

1. Monosyllabic adjectives take the suffix **-er**:

*This boy is **taller** than that boy (that one). – Bu oğlan o oğlandan (o birindən) ucadır.*

*Our street is **wider** than their street. – Bizim küçə onların küçəsindən genişdir.*

*Her flat is **larger** than my flat. – Onun mənzili mənim mənzilimdən böyükdür.*

*A mountain is **higher** than a hill. – Dağ təpədən hündürdür.*

2. Disyllabic adjectives ending in **-er, -ow, -y, -le** take the suffix **-er**:

*clever-cleverer – ağıllı*

*tender-tenderer – zərif*

*shallow-shallower – dayaz*

*simple-simpler – sadə*

*bitter-bitterer – acı*                      *noble-nobler – alicənab*  
*hollow-hollower –deşik, ovur*        *happy-happier – xoşbəxt*  
*narrow-narrower – dar*

*This text is **simpler** than text 5. – Bu mətn beşinci mətndən sadədir.*

*Your little son is **cleverer** than hers. – Sizin balaca oğlunuz onunkundan ağıllıdır.*

3. Disyllabic adjectives with the stress on the second syllable take the suffix **-er**:

*polite-politer – incə*  
*complete-completer – bütöv*  
*concise-conciser – yığcam, qısa*

*This dictionary is **conciser** than the old one.*

*Bu lüğət köhnə lüğətə nisbətən yığcamdır.*

4. All other adjectives form their degrees of comparison by adding **more** or **less**.

*difficult-more difficult-less difficult*  
*interesting-more interesting-less interesting*  
*active-more active-less active*

*careful-more careful, less careful*

*Exercise 10 is **more difficult** than exercise 11.*

*Onuncu tapşırıq on birinci tapşırıqdan çətindir.*

*She is **more careful** than her sister.*

*O, bəyisina nisbətən (bəyisindən) diqqətlidir.*

*She is **less careful** than her sister.*

*O, bacısına nisbətən az diqqətlidir.*

The superlative degree denotes the highest degree of a quality. It is formed in the following ways:

1) Monosyllabic adjectives and adjectives ending in **-er**, **-ow**, **-y**, **-le** and disyllabic adjectives with the stress on the second syllable form their superlative by adding **-est** to the positive form.

*long-longer-longest*                      *concise-conciser-concise**st***

*dark-darker-dar**kest***                      *It was **the darkest** room.*

*clever-cleverer-clever**est***                      *O, ən qaranlıq otaq idi.*

*narrow-narrower-narrowest*     *He was **the cleverest** boy at school.*  
*simple-simpler-simplest*         *O, məktəbdə ən ağıllı oğlan idi.*  
*pretty-prettier-prettiest*     *This is **the concisest** dictionary.*  
*polite-politer-politest*        *Bu ən yığjam lüğətdir.*

2) All other adjectives form their superlative by putting **most** or **least** before the positive.

*careful – more careful – most careful – less careful – least careful*

*interesting – more interesting – most interesting – less interesting – least interesting*

*He is **the most active** boy in our form.*

*O, sinifimizdə ən diqqətli oğlandır.*

*He is **the least active** boy in our form.*

*O, sinifimizdə ən az fəal oğlandır.*

A few adjectives have irregular forms for the degrees of comparison. They are:

<i>good-better-best – yaxşı</i>	<i>old-older-oldest – yaşlı</i>
<i>bad-worse-worst – pis</i>	<i>elder-eldest</i>
<i>near-nearer-nearest – yaxın</i>	<i>far-father-farthest – uzaq</i>
<i>next</i>	<i>further-furthest</i>
<i>late-later-latest – gec</i>	<i>They were on the <b>nearest</b> bank of the</i>
<i>latter-last</i>	<i>river</i>
	<i>Onlar çayın ən yaxın sahilində idilər.</i>

**Nearest** refers to distance, **next** is used when **order** is ment.

*It is the **nearest** way to the **next** village.*

*Bu, növbəti kəndə gedən ən yaxın yoldur.*

*They live in the **nearest** village.*

*Onlar yaxınlıqdakı kənddə yaşayırlar.*

*The **next** village is very attractive.*

*O birisi (növbəti) kənd çox cəlbedicidir.*

Notice the following combinations: *next Monday, next year, next week, next month, next day* etc.

*Late* and *later* refer to time. *Latest* has also the meaning of *most recent*. *Latter* and *last* are used with reference to *order*.

*This is the **latest** book of the writer.*

*Bu yazığın sonuncu kitabıdır (Həmin yazıçı hələ yaşayır).*

*This is the **last** book of the writer.*

*Bu yazığın sonuncu kitabıdır (Həmin yazıçı artıq yaşamır).*

*The two boys entered the room. **The former** was Tom, **the latter** was Nick.*

*İki oğlan otağa daxil oldu. Birinci oğlan Tom idi, sonuncu isə Nik idi.*

*Elder and oldest denote age and long duration.*

*He is **older** than you.*

*O, sizdən yaşlıdır.*

*It is the **oldest** bridge in our city.*

*Bu, bizim şəhərimizdə ən qədim körpüdür.*

*Elder and eldest are used to distinguish members of the same family, also when speaking of people higher in rank and authority.*

*His **elder** sister is five years **older** than I am.*

*Onun böyük bacısı məndən beş yaş böyükdür.*

*He is the **eldest** member of our University.*

*O, universitetimizin ən böyük (ən yaşlı) üzvüdür.*

*Elder is always an adjective. It is used with the conjunction **than**:*

*I am **older than** my sister.*

*Mən qardaşımdan yaşlıyam.*

*Elder is never followed by **than**.*

*I am **the elder** of three brothers.*

*Mən üç qardaşın böyüyüyəm.*

*Elder can be used as a noun, too.*

*He is our **elder** – O, bizim böyüyümüzdür.*

*They are our **elders** – Onlar bizim böyükklərdir.*

*Farther, farthest, further, furthest are used with reference to distance.*

*The club is in **the farthest (furthest)** corner of the park.*

*Klub parkın ən uzaq künjündədir.*

*But only **further** is used to express that sometimes will follow.*

**Further** discussion will be on Monday.

Növbəti müzakirə bazar ertəsi olajaq.

We expect **further** information.

Biz növbəti informasiya gözləyirik.

**The use of degree forms.** The positive degree is used in the following cases:

1. To show the quality of an object.

This is a **wide** street.

Bu, geniş küçədir.

This is an **important** problem.

Bu, mühüm (əsas) problemdir.

2. To show the equal quality of two objects. In this case comparison is expressed by **as+adjective+as**:

He was **as old as** my father.

O, mənim atam kimi yaşlı (qoca) idi.

This book is **as interesting as** your book.

Bu kitab sizin kitab kimi maraqlıdır.

3. To show the unequal quality of two objects. The negative comparison may be expressed in two forms: a) **as+adjective+as**;

b) **so+adjective+as**:

This book is **not so interesting as** that book.

This book is **not as interesting as** that book.

Bu kitab o kitab kimi maraqlı deyil.

This apple is **not so red as** that apple.

This apple is **not as red as** that apple.

Bu alma o alma kimi qırmızı deyil.

4. The comparative is used when there are two objects compared or contrasted. In such cases the adjective is followed by the conjunction **than**:

She is **taller than** her sister.

O, bacısından ucadır.

She is **cleverer than** her sister.

O, bəyisindən ağıllıdır.

This article is **more important than** that one.



*Bu məqalə o birisinə nisbətən (o birisindən) daha mühümdür.*

Note the use of pronouns and verbs after **than** and **as**.

a) When *than* or *as* is followed by a third person pronoun the verb is usually repeated:

*We are stronger **than they are**.*

*Biz onlardan güjlüyük.*

*I am not as strong **as he is**.*

*Mən onun kimi güclü deyiləm.*

b) When *than* or *as* is followed by a first or second person pronoun, it is usually possible to omit the verb:

*I am not as tall **as you**.*

*Mən sizin kimi uca deyiləm.*

*He is lazier **than I**.*

*O, mənə nisbətən tənbəldir.*

c) In informal English the pronoun is often used in the objective case.

*He is more talented **than me**.*

*O, mənə nisbətən istedadlıdır.*

*They are happier **than us**.*

*Onlar bizə nisbətən xoşbəxtdirlər.*

5. The superlative degree is used when an object is compared or contrasted with more than two objects.

*Tom is **the cleverest boy** in the class. – Tom sinifdə ən ağıllı oğlandır.*

*This is **the most popular** film. – Bu ən maraqlı filmidir.*

*This is **the least popular** film. – Bu ən maraqsız filmidir.*

As a rule a noun with an adjective in the superlative degree has the definite article. Sometimes the noun is omitted and instead of the noun **of all** is used.

*Tom is **the cleverest of the boys**.*

*Tom oğlanların hamısından ağıllıdır.*

*Tom is **the cleverest of all**.*

*Tom hamıdan (oğlanların hamısından) ağıllıdır.*

## 5. Substantivized adjectives

The substantivization of adjectives is a kind of conversion. Adjectives, when substantivized, lose all or part of the characteristics of the adjectives and acquire all or part of the characteristics of the noun.

Thus in Modern English adjectives may be either **wholly** or **partially** substantivized.

**Wholly substantivised** adjectives have acquired all the characteristics of the noun: they have the plural and genitive case suffix and may be associated with the articles. Here belong the following groups of words:

1. Words denoting classes of persons:

<i>a relative</i> – yaxın (qohum)	<i>a radical</i> – əsas, əsaslı
<i>a savage</i> – vəhşi, qəddar	<i>a conservative</i> – mühafizəkar
<i>a criminal</i> – cinayətkar, cani	<i>a noble</i> – nəjib, alicənab
<i>a black</i> – qara, qaralar	<i>a favourite</i> – əziz, ən çox sevilən
<i>a white</i> – ağ, ağlar	<i>a silly</i> – gic, ağılsız
<i>a liberal</i> – liberal, əliaçıq, genişqəlbli	

2. Words denoting nationalities:

*an American-two Americans* – bir amerikalı-iki amerikalı  
*an Italian-two Italians* – bir hindi-iki hindli  
*a German-two Germans* – bir alman-iki alman  
*a Norwegian-two Norwegians* – bir norveçli-iki norveçli

Such words in the plural form may be used with the definite articles:

*The Germans* - almanlar

*The Bulgarians* - bolqarlar

*The Norwegians* – norveçlilər

*The Germans mustn't forget their crimes in the World War II.*

Names of nations ending **-se**, **-ss** have one form for both numbers:

*a Chinese-two Chinese* – bir çinli-iki çinli

*a Japanese-two Japanese – bir yaponlu-iki yaponlu*  
*a Swiss-two Swiss – bir isveçrəli-iki isveçrəli*  
*a Vietnamese-two Vietnamese – bir vyetnamlı-iki vyetnamlı*  
*a Portugese-two Portugese – bir portuqaliyalı-iki portuqaliyalı*  
 Such words may also be used with the definite article:

*the Chinese – çinlilər*  
*the Japanese – yaponlar*  
*the Swiss – isveçrəlilər*  
*the Portugese – portuqaliyayılar*

3. Words denoting languages:

*the English language-English – ingilis dili-ingiliscə*  
*the French language-French – fransız dili-fransızca*  
*The German language-German – alman dili-almanca*

4. Some adjectives fully converted into nouns are used only in the plural:

*goods – mal, mallar, məmulat*  
*greens – göy-göyərtilər, tərəvəz*  
*sweets – sevinc, kef, ləzzət*  
*valuables – qiymətli şey, daş-qaş*  
*movables – daşınan əmlak (mebel)*

5. Names of colours:

**Red** suits you best.

**Blue** is my favourite colour.

**The yellow** of the trees was attractive in autumn.

The trees in the garden were turning **yellows** and **brouns**.

**Partially substantivized** adjectives take only the definite article.

They are used in a generic sense:

<i>the blind – korlar</i>	<i>the dead – ölümlər</i>
<i>the sick – xəstələr</i>	<i>the foolish – axmaqlar</i>
<i>the young – gənclər</i>	<i>the unemployed – işsizlər</i>
<i>the deaf and dumb – lal və karlar</i>	<i>the wealthy – varlılar</i>
<i>the rich – varlılar</i>	<i>the homeless – evsizlər</i>
<i>the poor – kasıblar</i>	<i>the wounded – yaralılar</i>

These words are used as plural nouns and are followed by a plural verb.

*The rich live in that part of the city.*

*Varlırlar şəhərin o hissəsində yaşayır.*

If we wish to denote a single person we must add a noun:

*The old receive pensions. – Qocalar təqaüd alır.*

*The old man told us an interesting story. – Qoca kişi bizə maraqlı bir hekayə danışdı.*

*An old man usually receives a pension.*

Words denoting nationalities ending in **-sh** and **-ch** are also partially substantivized adjectives.

*the French – fransızlar*

*the Dutch – hollandiyalılar*

*the English – ingilislər*

*the Spanish – ispaniyalılar*

*the Scotch – şotlandlar*

*the Irish – irlandiyalılar*

If we want to denote a single person we must use **man** or **woman**:

*an Englishman-two Englishmen – bir ingilis kişisi-iki ingilis kişisi*

*a Frenchman-two Frenchmen – bir fransız kişisi-iki fransız kişisi*

*an Englishwoman-two Englishwomen- bir ingilis qadını-iki ingilis qadını*

**BUT:** *bir İspaniyalı – a Spaniad  
iki ispaniyalı – two Spaniards*

Some abstract notions are also treated as partially substantivized adjectives.

*the good – yaxşılıq, xeyirxahlıq*

*the beautiful – gözəl adamlar, gənclər*

*the useful – faydalı*

*the impossible – çətin iş, mümkün olmayan şey*

*the unknown – tanınmazlıq, naməlum şəxs (şey)*

*the opposite – əks, əks olan*

*the inevitable – labüd, qaçılmaz, zəruri*

These words are used as singular nouns and are followed by a singular verb.

*The opposite is very strong.*  
*Əks tərəf çox güclüdür.*

## 6. Syntactic properties of the adjective

**Pattens of Combinability.** Adjectives are combined with the following parts of speech:

1) with nouns: *an interesting book – maraqlı kitab, a black dog – qara it, a clever boy – ağıllı oğlan*

2) with the indefinite pronouns: *something funny – nə isə gülməli, something difficult – nə isə çətin*

3) with adverb of degree: *very nice – çox yaxşı, quite difficult – tamamilə çətin*

4) with link verbs: *to look tired – yorğun görünmək, to taste good – yaxşı dadmaq, to be healthy – sağlam olmaq.*

5) with the so-called prop word one: *the red one – o biri qırmızı (alma)*

### **Syntactic functions.**

1) Mainly adjectives are used in the functions of an attribute.

*He was an old, white-haired man – O, ağ saçlı qoca bir kişi idi.*

2) Adjectives are also used in the functions of a predicative.

*Her voice was clear – Onun səsi aydın idi.*

*The food tasted good – Ərzaq yaxşı tam verirdi (dadırdı).*

*He turned pale – Onun rəngi qaçdı (soldu).*

3) Adjectives may also function as objective predicatives in complex constructions.

*We thought him very clever. – Biz onun çox ağıllı olmasını fikirləşdik.*

*I drink tea hot. – Mən çayı isti içirəm.*

*Better eat apples ripe. – Yaxşı olar ki, almanı yetişmiş halda yeyəsən.*

## Chapter IV

### THE NUMERAL

#### 1. Definition

The numeral is a part of speech characterized by:

- 1) Its lexico-grammatical meaning of **number** and **order** of persons or things.
- 2) Such stem-building suffixes as **-teen**, **-ty**.
- 3) Its combinability with nouns.
- 4) Its functioning as an attribute, less frequently as some other part of the sentence.

According to their lexical meaning numerals are divided into (1) **cardinal** numerals (cardinals), (2) **ordinal** numerals (ordinals), (3) **fractional** numerals (fractionals).

#### 2. Cardinal numerals

Cardinals indicate exact number of persons and things they are used in counting.

According to morphological structure the cardinals are divided into **simple**, **derivative** and **composite**.

**Simple cardinals** are cardinals which have neither prefixes nor suffixes. Here belong: - cardinals from *one to twelve and hundred, thousand, million*.

**Derivative cardinals** are cardinals which have suffixes. Numerals from thirteen to nineteen are derived from the corresponding simple ones by means of the suffix **-teen**, and numerals denoting tens are derived from the corresponding simple ones by means of the suffix **-ty**: *thirteen, fourteen, seventeen, etc., twenty, thirty, fifty, sixty, etc.*



**NOTE:** *Mind the difference in the spelling of the stem in **three** and **thirteen** (thirty), **four** and **forty**, **five** and **fifteen** (fifty).*

The cardinals from *twenty one to twenty nine*, from *thirty one of thirty nine*, etc. and those over *hundred* are **composite** cardinals.

The numerals *hundred*, *thousand* and *million* are always preceded by the indefinite article (**a**) or the numeral **one**. The latter is generally used when these numerals are followed by some other numerals.

*a hundred, one hundred*

*a thousand, one thousand*

*a million, one million*

*one hundred and twenty five (125)*

*one thousand eight hundred and twenty (1820).*

Care should be taken to remember the followings:

*five hundred workers – 500 fəhlə*

*hundreds of workers – yüzlərlə fəhlə*

*two thousand houses – 2000 ev*

*thousands of houses – minlərlə ev*

*three million of students – 3000000 tələbə*

*millions of students – milyonlarla tələbə*

In chronology we may count:

*1965 – nineteen hundred and sixty five or nineteen sixty five*

*8696 – eight thousand six hundred and ninety six or eighty six ninety six*

*1950 – nineteen hundred and fifty or nineteen fifty*

*It happened nineteen hundred and fifty or It happened in the year nineteen fifty.*

Notice the following:

a) to count by *tens*, *hundreds*, *thousands*

b) *a dozen* – 12, *a score* – 20, *three score* – 60

c) *half-an-hour*; *three miles and a half* or *three and a half miles*; *a quarter of an hour*

### 3. Ordinal numerals

Ordinal numerals indicate the order or persons or things.

According to morphological structure the ordinals are also divided into **simple**, **derivative** and **composite**.

**The simple ordinals** are **first**, **second** and **third**.

**The derivative ordinals** are those derived from the simple ones by means of the suffix **-th**: *ten – tenth, sixteen – sixteenth, thirty – thirtieth*.

**NOTE:** *Before the suffix -th the final y is replaced by ie forty – fortieth.*

*Mind the difference: five – fifth, nine – ninth.*

The composite ordinals are those formed from composite cardinals. In this case only the last component has the form of the ordinal **-th**: *twenty one – twenty first, fifty five – fifty fifth*, etc.

Notice the following:

*the first chapter-chapter one – birinci fəsil-fəsil bir*

*the thirty second page-page thirty two – otuz ikinci səhifə-səhifə otuz iki*

*15<sup>th</sup> May, 2007 – The fifteenth of May, two thousand and seven*

*May 15<sup>th</sup>, 2007; May 15, 2007 – May the fifteenth, two thousand and seven*

### 4. Fractional numerals

The words for common fraction are also composite. They are formed from cardinals denoting the numerator and substantivized ordinals the denominator. In other words the numerator is a cardinal and the denominator is an ordinal.

If the numerator is a numeral higher than **one**, the ordinal in the denominator takes the plural forms:

$$\frac{3}{5} = \text{three fifths}; \quad \frac{2}{8} = \text{two eighths}; \quad 20\frac{3}{9} = \text{twenty and three ninths}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = \text{one third}; \quad \frac{1}{6} = \text{one sixth}; \quad \frac{2}{5} = \text{two fifths}$$

In decimal fractions the numerals denoting fractions are joined to those denoting whole numbers by means of the words **point** or **decimal**:

0,5 zero point (decimal) five; 2,3 – two point (decimal) three;  
3,45 – three point four five

## 5. Syntactic properties of the numeral

### Patterns of combinability:

1) Numerals combine mostly with nouns. If a noun has several attributes numerals come first, as in:

*two little children – iki balaca uşaq*  
*the first pale little boy – birinci solğun balaca oğlan*

2) If a noun has an adjective, a numeral and a pronoun, pronouns come first, as in:

*her first interesting book – onun birinci maraqlı kitabı*  
*those four nice rooms – o dörd qəşəng otaq*

3) If both a cardinal and an ordinal refer to one noun the ordinal comes first:

*the first two books – birinci iki kitab*  
*the second two red apples – ikinci iki qırmızı alma*

4) Nouns premodified by ordinals are used with the definite article:

*the first man in the village – kənddəki birinci kişi*  
*the second boy in the street – küçədəki ikinci oğlan*

The indefinite article may also be used with *first, second, third*, etc. In such cases cardinals mean *an additional one – başqa biri, daha biri*.

*A second boy came in – Daha bir oğlan içəri daxil oldu.*

5) Ordinals may also be used after proper names denoting the members of well-known persons.

*King Henry VIII – King Henry the Eighth*

*Peter I – Peter the First*

Notice the following combinations.

*one of the boys – oğlanlardan biri*

*every three days – hər üç gün*

*the last three weeks – axırncı üç həftə*

*just four days ago – dörd gün əvvəl*

*only three books – yalnız üç kitab*

**Syntactic functions.** The numeral is used in the following functions:

1) as an attribute:

*She has got **three** English books.*

*He took the **second** book.*

Unlike Azerbaijani in English the noun agrees with the numeral in number:

*one book – bir kitab*

*two books – iki kitab*

2) as a subject:

***Five** is more than three.*

***The fifth** began to cry.*

3) as a predicative:

*Five times five is **twenty five**.*

*Brown was **twenty six**.*

4) as an object:

*How many books did you read last year?*

*I read **three**.*

5) as an adverbial modifier of time:

*We meet at the station **at six**.*

*We had done the work **by six**.*

## Chapter V

### THE PRONOUN

#### 1. Definition

A part of speech which is used to point out objects, their qualities or quantities without naming them is called a pronoun.

#### 2. General notion

Pronouns have very general, relative meaning. Thus, the indication of a person by means of a personal pronoun varies depending on the speaker, e.g., one and the same person may be denoted by **I, you, he** etc.: *when a person speaks of himself, he calls himself I; addressing him, the speaker calls him you; speaking about somebody or something we call it as he, she, it.*

In the same way possessive pronouns indicate relative possessiveness depending on the actual speaker, and one and the same thing possessed by a certain person may be referred to as **my, his, her** etc. such as: *My book, his book, her book* etc.

Being substitutes of other parts of speech pronouns are used frequently and form a considerable part of any text or conversation, though as a class of words pronouns are not numerous.

There are several features that pronouns have in common, which distinguish them from other parts of speech. They are:

1. They don't have determiners.
2. They are often used in objective case.
3. Most of them have person distinction.
4. They often have gender contrast.
5. Singular and plural forms are not morphologically marked.

According to their meaning and syntactical functions pronouns are traditionally divided into *noun-pronouns* and *adjective pronouns*.

Noun pronouns substitute for nouns: their syntactical functions are similar to those of nouns, such as:

**Tom** studies English. **He** studies English.

**Tom** met **Mary**. **He** met **her**.

Adjective pronouns substitute for adjectives; their syntactical functions are similar to those of adjectives, such as: *a red pencil*, *my pencil*, *that pencil*, etc.

Most pronouns can be used both noun and adjective-pronouns, such as:

<b>Noun pronouns</b>	<b>Adjective pronouns</b>
<b>Some</b> are present.	<b>Some</b> students are present.
<b>That</b> is correct.	<b>That</b> sentence is correct,

Pronouns in contemporary English differ in their morphological structure and lexical meaning. Accordingly, they are classified on two principles: a) according to their morphological structure, b) according to their meaning.

### **3. Classification of pronouns according to their morphological structure**

According to their morphological structure pronouns are divided into the following groups: **1. Simple Pronouns; 2. Derivative Pronouns; 3. Compound Pronouns; 4. Composite Pronouns.**

#### **1. Simple Pronouns.**

*Definition:* Pronouns consisting only one word are called simple pronouns, such as: **I, you, he, she, we, they, this, that, some, any, no, none, such**, etc.

#### **2. Derivative Pronouns.**

*Definition:* Pronouns consisting of root and suffix are called derivative pronouns, such as: **another, myself, yourself, himself, ourselves**, etc.



### 3. Compound Pronouns.

*Definition:* Pronouns consisting of two roots are called compound pronouns, such as: **somebody, someone, anything, nobody, everybody, everything**, etc.

### 4. Composite Pronouns.

*Definition:* Pronouns consisting of two roots used distantly are called composite pronouns, such as: **one another, no one, each other**, etc.

## 4. Classification of pronouns according to their meaning

According to the meaning they have pronouns in contemporary English are divided into the following groups: **1. Personal Pronouns; 2. Possessive Pronouns; 3. Reflexive Pronouns; 4. Reciprocal Pronouns; 5. Demonstrative Pronouns; 6. Interrogative Pronouns; 7. Relative Pronouns; 8. Conjunctive Pronouns; 9. Defining Pronouns; 10. Indefinite Pronouns; 11. Negative Pronouns.**

### Personal Pronouns.

*Definition:* Pronouns which are used to denote persons or non-persons from the point of view of their relation to the speaker without naming them are called personal pronouns.

Personal pronouns in contemporary English are the following: **I, you, he she, it, we, you, they.**

Personal pronouns are used only as noun pronouns.

Depending on the context and situation personal pronouns may be divided into three groups:

- 1) pronouns denoting concrete persons: *I, you he, she, it, we, you, they;*
- 2) pronouns denoting indefinite persons: *you, we, they, one;*
- 3) a pronoun denoting non-person: *it.*

Personal pronouns belonging to the first group have the category of number and case. The pronouns of the third person discriminate gender: (a) masculine (*he*); (b) feminine (*she*); (c) neuter (*it*). But in the third person plural the form *they* serve for all three genders.

**Examples:**

(a) *The boy was very clever. He was a friend of my brother's.*

(b) *The woman came up to me. She was my friend's mother.*

(c) *I bought an interesting book. It was published ten years ago.*

The grammatical properties of the personal pronouns can be seen in the following table.

Number	Singular		Plural	
	Nominative case	Objective case	Nominative case	Objective case
I person	I	me	we	us
II person	you	you	you	you
III person	1) masculine he	him		
	2) feminine she	her	they	them
	3) neuter it	it		

**I** and **we** are said to be the pronouns of the first person, i.e. a person (or persons) who speaks (speak); **you** is said to be the pronoun of the second person, i.e. a person (persons) spoken to. The plural and the singular forms of **you** are differentiated only in the text. **Examples:**

*Are you a teacher, John?*

*Are you teachers, my friends?*

**He, she, it** and **they** are said to be the pronouns of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person, i.e. a person (persons) or a thing (things) spoken about.

We distinguish (a) singular and (b) plural personal pronouns: (a) **I, he, she, it**; (b) **we, you, they**.

Personal pronouns have two cases: (a) the nominative case; (b) the obkective case. There is no inflexion for the objective case of personal pronouns, such as: **I-me, we-us, she-her** present

suppletive systems; in **he-him**, **they-them** there is a vowel interchange and the inflexion **-m**; **it-it**, **you-you** have homonymous forms for both cases.

The nominative and the objective cases of **you** and **it** are differentiated by their position in the sentence. **Examples:**

***You** meet me. I meet **you**.*

***The door** opened. **It** opened.*

*I opened **the door**. I opened **it**.*

As noun-pronouns personal pronouns substitute for nouns. Their syntactical functions are similar to those of nouns. They can be used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative and (3) an object.

**Examples:**

(1) ***He** walked down the street. **She** watched him in silence. **They** went into his bedroom.*

(2) *Who is there? It's **me**. It's **I**. It's **her** I am saving.*

When personal pronouns are used as predicatives the nominative case is considered to be very formal. But the use of the objective case is preferred in spoken English.

(3) *The man met **me** in the park (direct object).*

*The boy gave **her** some red flowers (indirect object).*

*We don't know anything about **him** (prepositional object).*

The function of an adverbial modifier is possible but not common. It is found with a very limited number of prepositions in sentences like the following:

*He stood **in front of us** (adv. mod. of place)*

*He reached there **before me** (adv. mod. Of time)*

Pronouns belonging to the second group denote indefinite persons. They have a highly general meaning, i.e. with indefinite reference. These are the pronouns **you**, **we**, **they** and **one**.

The pronouns **we**, **you**, **they** are often used with general or indefinite force. **Examples:**

***They** say that he is going to leave the city.*

***You** ought be very careful while crossing the street.*

*We want peace and freedom.*

The pronoun **we** is often used by authors and speakers instead of **I**. It is the so-called editorial **we**.

*We consider (I consider) that there are two case forms in ME.*

The pronoun **one** is always used as a noun-pronoun. **One** indicates a person in the most general sense. In other words, **one** refers to nobody in particular. **Examples:**

*One must do one's duty.*

*One must be careful while driving a car.*

The pronoun **one** may be used in the possessive case. **Examples:**

*It is very easy to lose one's way in the thick forest.*

*His sincerity excited one's sympathy.*

When used as a prop-word, **one** is applied to both things and persons and may be used in the plural. **Examples:**

*The last one (the last book) is very interesting.*

*My little ones (my little children) are playing in the yard.*

*I prefer red roses to white ones.*

The prop-word **one** can be preceded by the definite article.

*The one (the boy) you wanted to see is in the next room.*

There are cases when the pronoun **it** is not used for concrete things, abstract notions and animals.

The pronoun **it** is very often used as a formal subject in impersonal statements about weather conditions, time, distance and all kinds of measurements: **Examples:**

*It often rains in autumn.*

*It is always windy in Baku.*

*It is five minutes past ten.*

*It is ten miles to the nearest village.*

*It is three feet deep here.*

The pronoun **it** as a subject is also found in sentences in which the predicate is modified by an infinitive phrase (1), or an **-ing-**form phrase (2), or a clause (3). We usually find nominal predicates in this kind of sentences: **Examples:**

(1) *It is pleasant to walk in the open air.*

- It is interesting to read funny stories.*
- (2) *It is not easy playing in such weather.*  
*It is useless helping him. He is not a good man.*
- (3) *It is necessary that they should go there.*  
*It was evident that they didn't know him.*

The formal **it** may be used not only as the subject of the sentence but also as an object followed by an adjective or a noun which is modified by (1) an infinitive phrase, (2) an **ing-** form phrase or (3) a clause. **Examples:**

- (1) *He found it difficult to meet her.*
- (2) *She thought it no use staying with him.*
- (3) *She thought it strange that he hadn't written to her.*

The pronoun **it** is also used in the so-called emphatic constructions, i.e. a special sentence pattern that serves to emphasize some word or phrase in the sentence. **Examples:**

- It was he who saved my son.*
- It was my words that made him angry.*

### **Possessive Pronouns**

**Definition:** Pronouns denoting possessiveness are called possessive pronouns.

Unlike Azerbaijani in contemporary English there exists a separate group of possessive pronouns. They are the followings: **my, your, his, her, our, their, its.**

According to their combinability and syntactic function possessive pronouns are divided into two groups: 1) *Conjoint forms*; 2) *Absolute forms*.

1) *Conjoint Forms of Possessive Pronouns.* In contemporary English the conjoint forms of possessive pronouns are the following: **my, your, his, her, its, our, your, their.**

Possessive pronouns like personal pronouns have the categories of person, number, and in the third person singular gender. This can be seen in the following table.

Person number	I person	II person	II person		
			masculine	feminine	neuter
<b>Singular</b>	my	your	his	her	its
<b>Plural</b>	our	your	their		

As a rule, the conjoint forms of possessive pronouns are used as adjective-prnouns in the function of an attribute in phrases and sentences. **Examples:**

*She took **his** arm led him to the door. I will miss **my** sausage and mash at all hours of the night. Wash the sleep out of **your** face, the others will be here any minute now. She slipped **her** arm through his and forced a smile to **here** lips. The bus picked **its** way through District Six and dropped him at the top end.*

The conjoint form is much more often used before nouns denoting parts of the body, clothes and various other personal belongings. **Examples:**

*He took **his** handkerchief and put it into **his** pocket. She dropped **her** hand on **his** arm. He held out his hand.*

If a thing or a part of body belongs not to the doer but to the person who is the object of an action, the definite article is used.

**Examples:**

*The hit the child in **the** face.*

*He kissed her on **the** lip.*

*He took her by **the** arm.*

2) *Absolute Forms of Possessive Pronouns.* In contemporary English the absolute forms of possessive pronouns are the following: **mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.**

Absolute forms like conjoint forms have the categories of person, number, and in the third person singular gender. This can be seen in the following table.

Person number	I person	II person	II person		
			masculine	feminine	neuter
<b>Singular</b>	mine	yours	his	hers	
<b>Plural</b>	ours	yours	theirs		



As can be seen from the given table, there is no absolute form corresponding to the personal pronoun **it**.

The absolute forms of possessive pronouns are used as noun-pronouns. They are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative and (3) an object. **Examples:**

(1) "**Yours** must be a wonderful existence", said the prince. **Ours** is a real feeling. And **hers** said: "Why didn't you come?"

(2) "The hat is **yours**", said mother. The land is **ours**. The dog is **hers**.

(3) You have no book. I can give you **mine**. They found my dog but couldn't find **his**. You may take **theirs**.

The absolute forms of possessive pronouns can also be used in the function of **an attribute** when it is used with a preposition.

**Examples:**

*He is a very old friend of mine. It is no business of yours. I don't like that silly joke of his.*

Notice the phrase *of mine* means *one of my friends*.

*a sister of hers = one of her sisters*

*a friend of ours = one of our friends*

Absolute forms are used anaphorically, i.e. their use depends on the previous context or situation.

### **Reflexive Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which indicate identity between the persons or non-persons they denote with those denoted by the subject of the sentence are called reflexive pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns are formed by adding **-self** to possessive pronouns in the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> persons and to the objective case of personal pronouns in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person.

Reflexive pronouns are the following: **myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.**

Like personal and possessive pronouns reflexive pronouns have the categories of number, person, and in the third person singular gender. This can be seen in the following table.

Person number	I person	II person	III person		
			masculine	feminine	neuter
<b>Singular</b>	myself	yourself	himself	herself	itself
<b>Plural</b>	ourselves	yourselves	themselves		

There is one more reflexive pronoun which is formed from the pronoun **one-onese**. Unlike other reflexive pronouns **oneself** has no person, number and gender.

As a rule, reflexive pronouns are used as noun-pronouns. They are mainly used as a **direct object**. **Examples:**

*His mother pulled **herself** together and smiled. Don't upset **yourself**. He'll undo **himself**. The rabbit tore **itself** free. One must not deceive **oneself**. I wanted to find out if you could behave **yourself** better. He raised **himself** till he sat erect. One mustn't fool **oneself**. She tried to see **herself** as a colored person.*

Reflexive pronouns can also be used in the function of an **indirect object**. **Examples:**

*She poured **herself** out a glass of hot tea. He bought **himself** a new car.*

Reflexive pronouns are used as a **prepositional object** when they are preceded by a preposition. **Examples:**

*I also talk **to myself** sometimes. She was surprised **at herself** for accepting the equality. "You can smile, my son, and say **to yourself**: The old man is dreaming in words again". At last he came **to himself**. I have bought a new car **for myself**.*

Reflexive pronouns at the same time are used as (1) a predicative, (2) an adverbial modifier, and (3) an attribute.

**Examples:**

(1) *She was not quite **herself**. The woman was **herself**.*

(2) *He had to live **by himself** on the other side of the farm. She can do it **by herself**. Colored people never talk about it **among themselves**.*

(3) *While looking through the books the other day, I found a picture **of myself**. She showed me a dress **of herself**.*

Reflexive pronouns can also perform the function of an apposition in the sentence. In this case reflexive pronouns are used for emphasis. They can be placed either immediately (1) after their head word or (2) at the end of the sentence. **Examples:**

(1) *You **yourself** told me about that. He **himself** did the translation. The general **himself** gave him the medal. She **herself** met the guests.*

(2) *I didn't even understand the difference **myself**. Now he must find it **himself**.*

### **Reciprocal Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which denote mutual relations between two or more persons are called reciprocal pronouns.

There are two reciprocal pronouns in contemporary English. Both of them are composite pronouns: **each other**, **one another**.

Reciprocal pronouns are used to show that something is done mutually. **Each other** generally implies only two persons (1), **one another**, more than two persons (2).

(1) *You and I can talk to **each other** and understand **each other**. Lanny and Sarie stood looking at **each other**. The two men circled **each other** slowly. They clung to **each other**. In the light of the lamp the girls studied **each other** closely. They saw only **each other**.*

(2) *They (more than two persons) often quarrelled with **one another**. The moon was high and all the children could see **one another** by moonlight. Still they worked on, whispering to **one another**.*

But this distinction is not always strictly observed, both **each other** and **one another** can be used when speaking of two persons.

However, when more than two persons are meant, only **one another** is normally used. **Examples:**

*The two families supported **one another**.*

*John and Mary like **each other** (**one another**).*

Reciprocal pronouns are used as noun-pronouns. They have only one grammatical category-the category of case. This can be seen in the following table.

Common case	Genitive case
each other	each other's
one another	one another's

Syntactical functions of reciprocal pronouns depend on their case forms. Common case forms are used as (1) **objects** (direct, indirect, prepositional), genitive case forms are used as (2) an **attribute**.

**Examples:**

(1) *They held hands and looked **at each other** in silence. They smiled **at each other**. They gave **one another** their addresses. The two friends liked **each other**. They met **one another**.*

(2) *We didn't understand **each other's** language. They were glad to see **one another's** parents.*

As the subject of the sentence in which the reciprocal pronouns are used implies two or more than two persons.

*The love **each other**. The boys help **one another**.*

**Demonstrative Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which point out what is nearer in time or space, or what is farther away in time or space are called demonstrative pronouns.

There are four demonstrative pronouns in English. They are the following: **this, that, such, same**.

The pronouns **this** and **that** have the category of number: **this-these, that-those**.

Unlike Azerbaijani demonstrative pronouns **o, bu** the pronouns **this (these), that (those)** agree in number with the nouns they modify:

*this dog – bu it  
that dog – o it*

*these dogs – bu itlər  
those dogs – o itlər*

The pronoun **this (these)** refers to what is near in space, time (1), but the pronoun **that (those)** usually points to something relatively remote in space and time (2). **Examples:**

(1) **This** was his last cup of tea at Fatty's. **This** is the end of the Eight. **This** man in front of him had to dominate him. **This** is the road home.

(2) **That** was something he could not make her understand. **That** cluster of houses was home. **That** was your son. **Those** are foolish ones.

The pronoun **that (those)** may be used instead of a noun already mentioned. **Examples:**

I entered by the door opposite to **that** opening into the garden (I entered **by the door** opposite to **the door** opening into the garden).

I wanted to find out if the garden was the same as **that** I had seen years before.

In some cases **this (these)** may refer to what is to follow (1), **that (those)** to what precedes (2). **Examples:**

(1) I know **this**. She has already left the city.

(2) Her things had been stolen. **That** made her angry.

The pronouns **this (these)** and **that (those)** are often used with nouns indicating time. **Examples:**

**This** year they are going abroad.

It happened **that** morning.

**This** year is a Presidential election one.

In **those** days people were not so rich.

The demonstrative pronoun **such**. **Such** means **of this** or **that kind**. **Such** is followed by the indefinite article before singular countable nouns. **Such** is never used with the definite article.

**Examples:**

It was **such** an interesting book.

She used to read to me **such** funny stories.

Like other demonstrative pronouns **such** is generally used anaphorically (1). It can also be used with anticipatory force (2).

**Examples:**



(1) *He was a silent clever boy. **Such** boys usually succeed. Her hat was very nice. She used to wear **such** hats.*

(2) ***Such** was the answer. "I shall never forget him".*

The meaning of **such** is often completed by a clause introduced by **that** (1) or a phrase introduced by **as** (2). **Examples:**

(1) *We had **such** a busy day **that we couldn't even ring him up.***

(2) *I have never seen **such** a handsome man **as Tom's father.***

The demonstrative pronoun **same**. (**The**) **same** means identical. It is always preceded by the definite article. **Examples:**

*They were staying at **the same** hotel.*

*He said **the same** thing two or three times.*

The meaning of same is often completed by a clause introduced by **that** (1) or **as** (2). **Examples:**

(1) *She asked **the same** question **that I** disliked.*

(2) *He met his friend in **the same** place as I did.*

Demonstrative pronouns as noun-pronouns are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative, (3) an object, but as adjective-pronouns they are used as (4) an attribute.

(1) ***That** was good. **This** was the first chance for him. **Such** was his decision. **The same** is used every day.*

(2) *Your mark is **this**. Your problem is **that**. Her desire was **such**. The answer was **the same**.*

(3) *Compare these books **with those** on the shelf. "You must do **the same**", he said. I have never heard of **such**. Nobody knew who had done **this** to Sam.*

(4) *What do you want to do to **these** people? I don't remember **such** a name. We heard the **same** answer again.*

### **Interrogative Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which are used to form special questions are called interrogative pronouns.

The interrogative pronouns are the following: **who, whose, whom, what, which.**



Interrogative pronouns indicate persons, non-persons or their properties as unknown to the speaker. They are used in inquiry.

Of interrogative pronouns only the pronoun **who** has the category of case, like personal pronouns. **Who** has two case forms: (1) nominative case: **who**; (2) objective case: **whom**.

1) The interrogative pronoun **who**. Who asks about persons. It doesn't distinguish gender or number. **Who** is mainly used when the question is put to the subject of the sentence. **Examples:**

*Who moved away from the fire? Who looked at him and nodded? Who smiled and held out his hand?*

**Who** is usually followed by a singular verb. **Examples:**

*Who has done it? Who is in the next room? Who is to go there?*

**Who** also may take the predicate verb in the plural if it has a plural reference. **Examples:**

*Who are in the room? Tom and John.*

*Who are to join us? Tom and John.*

**Who** may be used as a **predicative**. In such cases the link verb agrees with the subject in number. **Examples:**

*Who is he? Who are you? Who were those people?*

**Whom** is used when the question is put to the object of the sentence. It may function as (1) a direct object, as (2) an indirect object, and as (3) a prepositional object. **Examples:**

(1) *Whom did you see there? Whom did she meet at the party?*

(2) *Whom did she give the key?*

(3) *Whom does the old man live with?*

**Whom** is generally used in writing. In conversation **whom** is replaced by **who**. **Examples:**

*Who did you meet?*

*Who has he invited to the party?*

When **who** is used as a prepositional object, the preposition is placed at the end of the sentence. **Examples:**

*Who did you give the book to?*

*Who was the letter written by?*

2. The interrogative pronoun **whose**. **Whose** is a possessive interrogative pronoun. It is used as an adjective-pronoun, mostly in the function of an attribute (1), though sometimes **whose** is also used as a predicative (2). **Examples:**

(1) *Whose cases did he pick up?*

(2) *Whose is the land going to be?*

3. The interrogative pronoun **what**. **What** refers to things. It is used as a noun-pronoun and as an adjective pronoun. As a noun-pronoun it is used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, and as (3) a predicative. As an adjective-pronoun it is used as an attribute (4). **Examples:**

(1) *What has happened to him.*

(2) *What did you see in the park? What did they speak about?*

(3) *What is your friend's name?*

(4) *What film did you like most of all?*

When **what** is used as a prepositional object, the preposition is usually placed at the end of the sentence. **Examples:**

*What are you laughing at?*

When **what** is used as a subject, it is always followed by a singular verb. **Examples:**

*What is in the box? What is there on the table?*

When **what** is used in the function of a predicative, the link verb usually agrees with the subject. **Examples:**

*What is it? What are their names?*

**What** may also refer to persons when it inquires about occupation. **Examples:**

*What is she? What is your friend?*

As an adjective-pronoun **what** refers to both persons (1) and things (2). **Examples:**

(1) *What man saved the child?*

(2) *What books have been translated into English?*

4. The interrogative pronoun **which**. **Which** implies choice among a certain number of (1) persons or (2) things. **Examples:**

(1) *Which man is her father, this or that?*

(2) **Which** is your car. **Which** would you like, tea or coffee?

**Which** is often followed by an of-phrase. **Examples:**

**Which** of them lives in the country?

**Which** of the flowers would you like?

**Which** of us can help the old man?

Compare the use of **what** and **which** in the following sentences:

**What** car have you got? **Which** car is yours?

**What** examination did you pass? **Which** of them was difficult?

Which is used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative, (3) an object, and (4) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) **Which** of them left the room.

(2) **Which** of the girls is her sister?

(3) **Which** do you like best, apples or peaches?

(4) **Which** dog is yours?

Special attention should be paid to the use of **who**, **what**, **which** when these three pronouns are used as predicatives and refer to persons, there is a great difference between them.

**Who** inquires about a person's name or parentage of a person, as in:

**Who** is she? – *She is Mary. She is my sister.*

**What** inquires about the occupation or profession of a person.

**What** is she? – *She is a teacher.*

**Which** inquires about particular person as singled out of a certain group, as in:

**Which** is son? – *The one by the fire.*

The interrogative pronouns **who**, **what** and **which** may be made emphatic by adding **ever**. Depending on the situation, questions introduced by the emphatic forms in **-ever** expresses different emotions, such as surprise, anger, despair, indignation, etc. The use of the form in **-ever** is distinctly colloquial. They are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative, and (3) an object. **Examples:**

(1) **Whoever** has been here?

(2) **Whichever** is it?

(3) **Whatever** are you going to do?

## Relative Pronouns

*Definition:* Pronouns which are used to introduce attributive clauses are called relative pronouns.

In contemporary English the subclass of relative pronouns comprise the following items: **who, whose, which, that, as.**

Relative pronouns perform two functions in the sentence: (a) they connect the subordinate clause to the principal one; (b) they all have an independent syntactic function in the subordinate clause.

### Examples:

In the sentence *The book **which** you are reading is very interesting* the relative pronoun **which** connects the attributive clause with the principal one, and at the same time **which** is the object of the attributive clause.

Generally relative pronouns serve to introduce attributive clauses. The word they refer is called their antecedent. It may be (1) a noun, or (2) a pronoun. **Examples:**

(1) *The boy **who** is answering questions is very talented.*

(2) *Those **who** are afraid of difficulties must stay at home.*

1. The relative pronoun **who** is used in the reference to human beings and occasionally to the higher animals (usually when the animal is referred to as **he** or **she**). **Who** has the function of a subject. The predicate verb agrees in number and person with its antecedent. **Examples:**

*The boy **who** is running is Tom.*

*The boys **who** are running are Tom and Sam.*

*Rover, **who** is a good dog, never lets a stranger into the house.*

The objective case form **whom** has the function of an object in the attributive clause. **Examples:**

*The boy **whom** you saw yesterday is my brother. The man **whom** he met is a talented painter.*

The objective **whom** is considered very formal. In spoken English **whom** is replaced by **who** (1), and it is still common to omit the relative pronoun altogether (2). **Examples:**

(1) *The man **who** I saw is called Sam.*

(2) *The man I saw is called Sam.*

When **whom** is used as a prepositional object, the preposition may be placed either (1) before **whom** or (2) after the predicate verb. **Examples:**

(1) *This is the student **about whom** I told you.*

(2) *This is the student **whom** I told you **about**.*

2. The relative pronoun **whose**. **Whose** is mainly used for people (1), animals (2), and things (3). **Whose** is used in the function of an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) ***The woman whose** sister lives in London is Mrs. Smith.*

(2) *She has **a dog whose** name is Foby.*

(3) *There are a lot of **newspapers whose** pages are filled with news of sports.*

3. The relative pronoun **which** is used for things and animals. **Which** has the function of (1) a subject, (2) an object, and (3) an adverbial modifier. **Examples:**

(1) ***The book which** is on the table is very interesting. **The books which** are on the shelves are hers.*

Like attributive clauses with **who**-subject, the predicate verb in attributive clauses with **which**-subject agrees in number with its antecedent (see the above sentences).

(2) *The house **which** you saw in the village is my brother's. Here is the letter **which** I told you **about**.*

(3) *I met him in the room **in which** Strickland lived.*

4. The relative pronoun **that** is used for persons and things, singular and plural. **That** has the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, and (3) an adverbial modifier. **Examples:**

(1) *He looked at the guests **that** were standing by the wall. She took the book **that** was on the shelf.*

When **that** is used in the function of a subject the predicate verb agrees in number with its antecedent (see the above sentences).

(2) *It is the best picture **that** I have ever seen. This is the story **that** I spoke of.*

(3) *The house **that** you live **in** was built ten years ago.*



**NOTE: That** never has a preposition placed before it. The preposition is put at the end of the attributive clause.

**Examples:** *The man **that** you are talking **about** has left this message.*

Notice only **that** (not **which**, **who** or **whom**) is used in the following cases:

a) When the antecedent is modified by adjectives in the superlative degree, by ordinal numerals, by the pronouns **all**, **any** or by the adjective **only**, as well as by **first** or **last**: **Examples:**

*She was **the prettiest girl that** I had ever seen.*

*He was **the first man that** had seen us.*

*He has got **all that** he needs.*

*She was **the only woman there that** can be trusted.*

b) After most indefinite pronouns: **Examples:**

*He told me **everything that** he knew.*

*There is not **much that** can be done.*

c) After the noun modified **by same**:

*She showed me **the same picture that** I had seen several times.*

d) When the antecedent is both a person and a thing:

*He talked of **the people and the places that** he had visited.*

### **Conjunctive Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which are used to introduce subject, predicative and object clauses are called conjunctive pronouns.

Unlike Azerbaijani in contemporary English there exists a separate group of conjunctive pronouns. They are the following: **who**, **whose**, **what**, **which**.

Conjunctive pronouns are used to connect subordinate clauses with the principal clause. They perform two functions: (a) they connect subordinate clause with the principal one, (b) they have an independent syntactic function in the subordinate clause. **E.g.** *In the sentence **I don't know who has taken my book** the conjunctive pronoun **who** connects the object clause with the principal one, and at the same time **who** is the subject of the subordinate object clause.*



In contemporary English conjunctive pronouns are used to connect (1) subject, (2) object, and (3) predicative clauses with the principal clause. **Examples:**

(1) ***What** I said is true. **Who** went there is not clear. **Which** book he has taken is not interesting for me.*

(2) *She wondered **what** he was doing then. Tell me **who** did it. "You know **who** did it", she said slowly. He couldn't even remember **what** she looked like.*

(3) *That is **what** I tried to prove. That wasn't **what** I came to see you about. The problem is **which** of you will do that.*

In the subordinate clause conjunctive pronouns are used as (1) a subject, (2) an object, and (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) *I don't remember **who** took my book yesterday.*

(2) *She couldn't hear **what** the old woman said.*

(3) ***Whose** friend saved the man is clear.*

### **Defining Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which are used to indicate a group of persons or things are called defining pronouns.

In contemporary English the defining pronouns are the following: **all, each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, either, other, another.**

1. The defining pronoun **all**.

**All** has a generalizing force. It shows a group of more than two objects. All is both (1) a noun pronoun, and (2) as an adjective pronoun. **Examples:**

(1) ***All** were present at the meeting.*

(2) ***All** the guests were around the table.*

As a noun-pronoun **all** is used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative, and (3) an object, as an adjective-pronoun it is used as (4) an attribute, and as (5) an apposition. **Examples:**

(1) ***All** were in blue uniforms.*

(2) *It was **all** I could say. That is **all**.*

(3) *We know **all**.*

(4) *All the way they talked about that incident.*

(5) *They all went away.*

**All** used as a noun-pronoun standing for persons is followed by a plural verb (1), **when all** refers to things (2) it takes a singular verb.

**Examples:**

(1) *All will take part in the competition.*

(2) *All was clean. All that glitters is not gold.*

When **all** is used as an adjective-pronoun, the verb may be (1) singular or (2) plural depending on the noun modified by **all**.

**Examples:**

(1) *All the money has been spent.*

(2) *All the rooms have been occupied.*

There are a few peculiarities in the use of **all**:

(1) When **all** is followed by a noun, there is no preposition between them. **Examples:**

*All the people heard it.*

*All the boys were glad to see one another.*

(2) When **all** is followed by a personal pronoun, the preposition **of** must be used. **Examples:**

*All of them were ready to help us.*

*All of us like to join him.*

2. The defining pronoun **each**.

**Each** refers to all the members of persons, things or notions mentioned before. As an adjective-pronoun **each** is used with a singular countable noun. **Examples:**

*They were in the yard. Each wanted to run away. The teacher examined each student.*

**Each** as an adjective pronoun is a synonym of **every**, but there is some difference in meaning between them.

**Each** has an individualizing meaning and can be used as both a noun-pronoun and an adjective pronoun. **Every** has a generalizing meaning. It can only be used as an adjective-pronoun. They are both followed by a singular verb. **Examples:**

*Every apple was wrapped in paper.*

*Each student is eager to pass his examination.*

As a result of its specific meaning, **each** may be followed by an **of** – phrase, which is not possible in the case of **every**. **Examples:**

*Each of them knew about that incident.*

*Each of these grammar rules must be revised.*

As a noun-pronoun each is used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, as an adjective pronoun – an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) *Each of the cats has its own place. The two boys entered. Each was carrying a suit-case.*

(2) *She gave an apple to each.*

(3) *There were green trees on each side of the river.*

3. The defining pronoun **every**.

The pronoun **every** is used only as an adjective pronoun. It modifies singular countable nouns when there are more than two objects of the same description. **Examples:**

*Every man must do his duty.*

*She had every reason to believe that he was right.*

*He visited his old friend every day.*

*Every time I ring him up, he is away.*

**Every** is a synonym of **all** when the latter is used attributively. The use of **every** is, however, more restricted than that of **all** because it cannot be used with uncountable nouns.

With countable nouns, their use appears to be parallel.

*The storm broke all the trees.*

*The storm broke every tree.*

**Every** as an adjective-pronoun is only used as an attribute. **Examples:**

*Every house has its own form. They met there every morning.*

4. The defining pronouns **everybody** and **everyone**. These pronouns are compound and synonym words. They can substitute each-other. **Examples:**

*Everybody was glad to see that man.*

*Everyone was glad to see that man.*

But still there is a slight difference in meaning between them. **Everybody** refers to persons collectively, whereas everyone refers to individuals. That's why only **everyone** can be followed by an **of** – phrase. **E.g.**

*Everyone of us was aware of that.*

**Everybody** and **everyone** have two case forms: 1) common case: *everybody, everyone*; 2) genitive case: *everybody's, everyone's*

The common case of these pronouns are used in the functions of (1) of a subject, and (2) an object. When **everybody** and **everyone** are used as a subject, the predicate verb is in the singular.

**Examples:**

(1) *Everybody was present. Everyone in the group was ready to answer.*

(2) *She believes everybody. He greeted everyone in the yard.*

**Everybody** and **everyone** may function as a prepositional object. In this they are used with the preposition. **Examples:**

*He spoke to everybody in such a manner.*

*She knows everything about everyone in the group.*

The genitive case of these pronouns is used in function of an attribute. **Examples:**

*Everybody's children play in this park.*

*Everyone's composition has been checked up.*

5. The defining pronoun **everything**.

Everything is a compound pronoun. It denotes a group of more than three objects treated as a whole. It is a noun-pronoun with non-personal reference. It may function as (1) a subject, (2) a predicative, (3) an object. **Examples:**

(1) *Everything goes wrong in this house. Everything is all right.*

When **everything** is used as a subject, the predicate verb is in the singular.

(2) *She is everything to him.*

(3) *One can't have everything at the same time.*

6. The defining pronoun **both**.

The pronoun **both** is plural in meaning. **Both** points out two persons, things or notions mentioned before. **Examples:**

***Both** were at the party.*

***Both** doors were open.*

*We could hardly see **both** men.*

**Both** is never used in negative sentences, the idea of negative duality being expressed by **neither**. **Compare:**

***Both** were present – **Neither** was present.*

***Both** of them came – **Neither** of them came.*

*They **both** spoke to me – **Neither** of them spoke to me.*

***Both** the boys came – **Neither** of the boys came.*

*I remember **both** – I remember **neither**.*

*He knew **both** of us – He knew **neither** of us.*

*You saw them **both** – You saw **neither** of them.*

**Both** is used as noun-pronoun and as an adjectives pronoun. As a noun-pronoun **both** functions as (1) a subject, (2) an object, as an adjective-pronoun **both** functions as (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) ***Both** want to help you. **Both** were eager to leave us.*

(2) *These are nice things. I like **both**.*

(3) ***Both** books were published two years ago.*

**Both** sometimes functions as an apposition. In this case **both** is generally used with the pronouns **we, you, they** functioning as a subject. **Examples:**

*We **both** helped him to finish the work.*

*They **both** agreed to join us.*

*You **both** are afraid of difficulties.*

Appositive **both** can also occur with the same pronouns (**we, you, they**) functioning as an object. **Examples:**

*I found them **both** in the yard.*

*I'll give you **both** my new address.*

Constructions with the appositive **both** are synonymous to constructions with **both** as head-word followed by an **of** – phrase:

**Compare:**

*We both – both of us            you both = both of you*

They **both** went there = *Both of us went there.*  
They **both** were ill = *Both of them were ill.*

7. The defining pronoun **either**.

**Either** points out two persons or things mentioned before.

**Examples:**

*Which flower would you like? **Either** will do.*

***Either** suit will do.*

**Either** has two meanings:

(1) *One or the other of two (but not **both**).*

***Either** of these books is interesting.*

*You can take **either** hat. I don't mind which.*

(2) **Both**

*There was snow on **either** side.*

*There were green trees on **either** banks of the river.*

**Either** as a noun-pronoun functions as (1) a subject, (2) an object, as an adjective-pronoun, (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) ***Either** of these machines is suitable for the work.*

(2) *He has taken **either** of the books.*

(3) *There were small lakes on **either** side. And on **either** side of the line stretched greenish grass.*

**Either** is not used in negative sentences. Here the negative pronoun **neither** is used instead:

***Either** of them will do – **Neither** of them will do.*

8. The defining pronoun **other**.

**Other** denotes some object (objects) different from the one (ones) mentioned before. The defining pronoun **other** has two cases: (1) common case – **other**; (2) genitive case – **other's**.

**Examples:**

(1) *He was beside the preacher at the **other** end of the table. In the **other** room he was drinking coffee.*

(2) *He lived at the expence of **other's** pockets.*

The defining pronoun **other** has two numbers: (1) singular – **other**, (2) plural – **others**. **Examples:**



(1) *This is mine, **the other** is yours. She has got two sisters. One of them is a doctor, **the other** is a teacher.*

(2) ***The others** hung back. When **others** had spoken about home he had been silent. **Others** wanted to know what he intended doing.*

**Other** can be used as a noun-pronoun, and as an adjective-pronoun. A noun pronoun **other** functions as (1) a subject, (2) an object, an adjective-pronoun – (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) ***Others** told her what a lucky woman she was. And around them **others** danced and laughed and talked.*

(2) *She is against me, she believes **others** instead of me. “You are making me out bad in front of **others**”, she cried.*

(3) *She got to her feet and went to the **other** room. There are **other** things too, but that is the first.*

**NOTE:** Unlike the majority of pronouns **other** (**both** as a noun-pronoun and as adjective pronoun) can combine with the definite article and some other determiners.

**Examples:**

*The **other** book was not translated.*

*Then she gave me her **other** hand.*

*That **other** problem upset me.*

*His sister's **other** child was only ten.*

*I have sent one of the letters, **the other** is on the table.*

9. The defining pronoun **another**.

**Another** is a derived word. The pronoun **another** is made up of **other** and the indefinite article and therefore used only with countables in the singular. **Examples:** *another book, another table, another dog*, etc.

**NOTE:** When the noun is used in the plural **other** is used instead of **another**.

**Compare:** *another book – other books, another table – other tables, another dog – other dogs.*

**Another** means: (1) a different one; (2) an additional one.  
**Examples:**

(1) Give me **another** book (not this one). Take another cup, this one is too small.

(2) She asked me a question, then **another**. She took **another** pen.

**Another** can be used as a noun-pronoun and as an adjective-pronoun. A noun pronoun **another** functions as (1) a subject, (2) an object, an adjective-pronoun – (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) **Another** is that colored people are half white. **Another** was not suitable.

(2) You may take **another**. He tore the letter and wrote **another**.

(3) Rosa recalled **another** incident. I have seen it happen in **another** place.

### **Indefinite Pronouns**

*Definition:* Pronouns which point out some person or thing indefinitely are called indefinite pronouns.

The subclass of indefinite pronouns comprises the following items: **some, any, somebody, something, anybody, anyone, anything.**

1. The indefinite pronouns **some** and **any**.

**Some** is commonly used in affirmative and imperative sentences. It has the following meanings:

(1) **Some** usually expresses an indefinite number or amount or indefinite quality. **Examples:**

*Give me **some** water.*

*They gave us **some** nice pictures.*

*They have got **some** information on the subject.*

(2) **Some** used with a singular count noun, may mean a particular but unidentified person or thing. **Examples:**

***Some** boy has written the new words on the board. They have bought **some** old house in the country.*

(3) **Some** is very often used for contrast. Then it is strongly stressed. **Examples:**

*There were a lot of guests in the hall.*

***Some** were dancing, **some** were not.*

*Some boys don't like noisy games.*

(4) **Some** also means approximately. **Examples:**

*He left her **some** ten years.*

(5) **Some, not any**, is used in special and general questions expressing some request or proposal. **Examples:**

*Do you want **some** water?*

*Why don't you have **some** apples?*

All these questions show that the speaker expects positive answers or actions.

(1) **Any** is commonly used in negative and interrogative sentences. **Examples:**

*Did you see **any** books on the table.*

*We didn't like **any** of them.*

*He never had **any** luck.*

(2) **Any** may also be used in affirmative sentences in the following cases:

(a) In affirmative sentences **any** means it doesn't matter **who, what or which**. **Examples:**

*You may take **any** book you like.*

*He was interested in **any** experiment.*

*Which newspaper would you like to read?*

***Any** will do.*

***Any** who wants to go there must come in time.*

(b) **Any** is used when some doubt or condition is implied. This often occurs (1) in object clauses introduced by **if** or **whether** or (2) in conditional clauses. **Examples:**

(1) *I don't know if she has got **any** time.*

*I wonder if you know **any** of these boys.*

(2) *If you have **any** free time, ring me up.*

**Some** and **any** can be used as a noun-pronoun and as an adjective-pronoun. As a noun-pronoun they are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, as an adjective-pronoun – (3) an attribute.

(1) ...**some** were drinking coffeee, others were dancing. **Any** will do.

(2) There is a lot of bread. You may take **some**. Though he had a lot of interesting books, he didn't want to give **any**.

(3) I managed to make **some** conversation till tea was brought in. Is there **any** chance of seeing him.

2. The indefinite pronouns **somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, anything**.

These indefinite pronouns are compound words. These words are formed by means of the pronouns **some, any** and the words **-body, -one** and **-thing**.

**Somebody, someone, anyone, anybody** are used when speaking of persons. They have two case forms: (1) the common case – **somebody, someone, anyone**; (2) the genitive case – **somebody's, anybody's, someone's, anyone's**. **Examples:**

The difference between the compounds in – **body** and those **one** is that the latter are, as a rule, more individualizing, i.e. the compounds in – **body** refer to persons collectively, whereas those in – **one** refer to individuals.

*Somebody is sure to get interested in the job (some people).*

*There is a letter from someone interested in the job (one person).*

The pronouns **something, anything** refer to things. They are used only in the common case. **Examples:**

*There was somethings under the table. Did anything happen to him? He doesn't believe anything.*

The difference in meaning between pronouns beginning with **some** and those beginning with **any** – is similar to that between **some** and **any**, i.e. those beginning with **some** – are generally used in affirmative sentences, whereas those beginning with **any** – are generally used in interrogative and negative sentences. In the common case they are used as noun-pronouns, but in the genitive case they are used as adjective-pronouns. As noun-pronouns they are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, as adjective-pronouns – (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) *Someone* brought him a piece of meat. I think *somebody* had called me a child. *Something* had happened to her, of that he was sure. Has *anything* happened?

(2) The police couldn't find *anybody* in the room. I saw *something* strange in the darkness. Not a man would know *anything* about it.

(3) It wasn't *anybody's* business. *Anybody's* decision will do. He has taken *somebody's* book.

As noun-pronouns they may be used with prepositions in the function of a prepositional object. **Examples:**

Strickland can't work *with anyone* else in the studio. He is not afraid of *anything*. I saw him *with someone*.

3. The indefinite pronouns **many, much**.

**Many** means a large number. As a noun-pronoun, it takes a plural verb. As an adjective-pronoun, it is used with countable nouns in the plural (1). **Much** means a large amount. As a noun-pronoun, it takes a singular verb. As an adjective-pronoun it is used with uncountable nouns in the singular (2). **Examples:**

(1) Do *many* men appear there as usual?

(2) They did not make *much* difference to the major.

**Many, much** are usually used in interrogative and negative sentences. In affirmative sentences **many, much** are replaced by such expressions as: **a lot of, plenty of, lots of, a great deal, a large number, a great deal of**. **Examples:**

Now I have *a lot of* work to do.

They have taken *lots of* books from the library.

*A number of* boys came to help the old man.

At the same time **many, much** can be used in affirmative sentences in the following cases: **Examples:**

(1) When they are used as the subject or modify the subject of the sentence.

*Many* knew about it.

*Many* people gathered in the garden after the rain.

*Much* depends on their coming.

**Much water** was taken from the well.

(2) When **much, many** are modified by adverbs of degree as: **so, too, very, as.**

We have **too many** problems to solve.

He has made **so many** mistakes in his test.

There is **too much** snow in the yard.

(3) When **much** and **many** have emphatic stress:

She thought of **many** reasons why he had left her.

(4) When **much** is used alone as a noun-pronoun in the function of an object.

She meant **much** to him.

Unlike other indefinite pronouns, **much, many** as adjective-pronoun have degrees of comparison. In the comparative and superlative degrees both pronouns have the same form. It can be seen in the following table:

Positive degree	Comparative degree	Superlative degree
many, much	more	most

**Examples:**

He translated **more** articles than we thought.

**Most** students got excellent marks.

**Many** and **much** have a partitive meaning if they are followed by an **of** – phrase. **Examples:**

**Many** of the guests have already come.

**Much** of the cotton has been saved from the fire.

**Many, much** as noun-pronouns are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, as adjective-pronouns – (3) an attribute.

**Examples:**

(1) **Many** knew everything about him. **Much** has been done lately.

(2) He took **too many** things and left the room.

(3) They will want more food and **many** other things.

4. The indefinite pronouns **little, few.**

**Little** means a small amount. As a noun pronoun, it takes a singular verb (1). As an adjective-pronoun, it is used with uncountable nouns (2). **Examples:**



(1) **Little** was said about it.

(2) There was **little** water in the bottle.

**Few** means a small number. As a noun-pronoun, it takes a plural verb (1). As an adjective-pronoun it takes a plural verb in the plural (2). **Examples:**

(1) **Few** know her new address.

(2) **Few** students took part in that competition.

As noun-pronouns **little, few** are used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, as adjective-pronouns – (3) an attribute.

**Examples:**

(1) **Little** was known about his life. **Few** are interested in that problem.

(2) There were very many toys in the box but she took **few**.

(3) I was English and she knew **few** English people. I gave up my small apartment, sold my **few** belongings.

Like **many, much, little, few** have degrees of comparison when they are used as adjective-pronouns. This can be seen in the following table.

Positive degree	Comparative degree	Superlative degree
few	fewer	fewest
little	less	least

**Little, few** may be used with the indefinite article. In this case they have a positive meaning. **A little, a few** means (1) **bir az, bir neçə, little, few** – (2) **az**. **Examples:**

(1) I have **a little** money, so I can buy this suit for you. I have **a few** books, so you may take two of them.

(2) I have **little** money, so I can't buy this suit for you. I have **few** books, so I can't give you any.

### Negative Pronouns

*Definition:* Pronouns denoting negation are called negative pronouns.

Negative pronouns are the following: **no, none, nobody, no one, nothing, neither.**

**No, none, neither** are simple, but **nothing, nobody, no one** are compound words.

Unlike contemporary Azerbaijani, contemporary English admits of but one negation in a verbal construction. Therefore negative pronouns are used with affirmative verbs to form negative sentences. **Examples:**

*I saw **nothing** in the room – Mən otaqda **heç nə** görmədim.*

*Nobody met us there – **Heç kəs** bizi orada qarşılamadı.*

1. The negative pronoun **no**.

**No** is only used as an adjective-pronoun. It is used with all subclasses of nouns both in the singular (1) and in the plural (2). In such cases the noun is used without any articles. **Examples:**

(1) *There was **no** booking office at the little siding. The coloreds have **no** post of their own.*

(2) *They have **no** real roots of their own. There were **no** families likeness.*

As an adjective-pronoun **no** is used in the function of an attribute. **Examples:**

***No** sound came from her. Only they have **no** chance. There was silence everywhere; **no** motion anywhere. **No** need for either of them to say. They took **no** note for the world was theirs.*

2. The negative pronoun **none**.

**None** is the absolute form of the negative pronoun **no**.

**Examples:**

*I have **no** book. I have **none**.*

*She ate **no** apples. She ate **none**.*

**None** may refer to both (1) things and (2) persons. Depending on the context and situation the verb following **none** may be singular or plural. **Examples:**

(1) ***None** of his **books** has/have been translated into English.*

(2) ***None** of her **sisters** was/were at the party.*

**None** is used as a noun-pronoun. **None** is used in the functions of (1) a subject, and (2) an object. **Examples:**

(1) *There was **none** in the box. **None** of them was there. **None** could answer.*

(2) *They have **none**.*

3. The negative pronoun **nobody**.

**Nobody** is derived from two words: **no** and **body**. It refers to persons only.

**Nobody** has two cases: (1) common case – **nobody**; (2) genitive case – **nobody's**. **Examples:**

(1) ***Nobody** had ever found out who had done this to Sam.*

(2) *That was **nobody's** plan.*

The common case of the pronoun **nobody** may be used as (1) a subject, and (2) an object. But the genitive case is used as (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) ***Nobody** will ever look at me like that. **Nobody** could have seen him.*

When **nobody** is used as a subject, the predicate verb is in the singular.

***Nobody** ever knows anything here.*

*The police found **nobody** in the room.*

*It was **nobody's** decision.*

4. The negative pronoun **no one**.

**No one** consists of two words – the negative pronoun **no** and indefinite personal pronoun **one**. It refers to persons only.

**No one** has two cases: (1) common case – **no one**; (2) genitive case – **no one's**. **Examples:**

(1) ***No one** knew his new address.*

(2) ***No one's** parents were at the party.*

The common case of the pronoun **no one** may be used as (1) a subject, (2) as an object. But the genitive case is used as (3) an attribute. **Examples:**

(1) *He thought that **no one** would know about it. **No one** spoke in the room.*

When **no one** is used as a subject, the predicate verb is in the singular.

*No one has a good word for him except the old man.*

*I remember no one in that family.*

*We could find no one's telephone number.*

5. The negative pronoun **nothing**.

**Nothing** consists of the negative pronoun **no** and the noun **thing**.

It refers to things only. As a noun-pronoun **nothing** is used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) a predicative, and (3) an object.

**Examples:**

*(1) There was nothing else to know. Nothing happened. Nothing could alter that.*

*(2) "It's nothing", she said.*

*(3) I tell you I've done nothing and the day has almost gone. They have nothing you can take from them.*

When **nothing** is used with the preposition it functions as a prepositional object. **Examples:**

*They will be locked up in the big house with nothing to eat.*

6. The negative pronoun **neither**.

**Neither** refers to **two** persons or things and therefore correlates only with count nouns. **Neither** means **none of the two**. It can be postmodified by an **of** – phrase. **Examples:**

*Neither of them answered.*

*Neither of you know about it.*

As a noun-pronoun **neither** is used in the functions of (1) a subject, (2) an object, as an adjective-pronoun – (3) an attribute.

**Examples:**

*(1) Neither of them paid any more attention to the food.*

*(2) I like neither of them.*

*(3) Neither book interested him.*

# Chapter VI

## THE VERB

### 1. Definition

The verb is a part of speech characterized by the following properties:

1. Its lexico-grammatical meaning of action, process.
2. Certain typical stem-building elements, such as **-en** (*widen*), **-fy** (*intensify*), **-ize** (*realize*), **dis-** (*disjoin*), **mis-** (*misunderstand*) etc.
3. Its grammatical categories: tense, voice, aspect, order, mood, person and number.
4. Its characteristic combinability; a verb can be combined with a noun and noun equivalents.
5. Its syntactical function of the predicate. Non-finite forms have other functions.

### 2. Classification of verbs according to different principles

In English verbs are classified according to the following principles: *1. According to their morphological. 2. According to their combinability. 3. According to the formation of Past Indefinite and Participle II. 4. According to their lexical meaning and syntactical function. 5. According to the aspective nature. 6. According to the category of person and number.*

1) According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into: *simple, derivative, compound, composite.*

*Simple verbs* consist of only one root morpheme each: *take, come, put, go, see, meet* etc.

*Derivative verbs* consist of one root morpheme and one or more derivational morphemes (prefixes and suffixes): *wide-widen* (*geniş-genişləndirmək*), *real-realize* (*həqiqi-həyata keçirmək*), *large-enlarge* (*geniş-genişləndirmək*), *appear-disappear* (*peyda olmaq-qeyb olmaq*) etc.

*Compound verbs* consist of at least two stems:

*whitewash* – *ağartmaq*

*broadcast* – *radio ilə xəbər vermək*

*sightsee* – *görməli yerlərə baxmaq*

*fulfill* – *yerinə yetirmək*

*Composite verbs* consist of a verbal stem and an adverbial particle:

*look for* – *axtarmaq*; *give up* – *tərgitmək*

*look after* – *qayğısına qalmaq*; *put on* – *geymək*

*bring up* – *tərbiyə etmək*; *get on* – *minmək*

*take part in* – *iştirak etmək*; *get off* – *düşmək*

2) According to their combinability verbs are divided into two groups: *intransitive*, *transitive*.

*Intransitive* verbs combine with the subject. They cannot take direct object: *come*, *go*, *sleep*, *sit* etc.

*Tom came* – *Tom gəldi.*

*He went* – *O, getdi.*

*He is sleeping* – *O, yatır.*

*Transitive* verbs can take a direct object: *take*, *see*, *give*, *send*, *push* etc.

*He took the book* – *O, kitabı götürdü.*

*The boy broke the window* – *Oğlan pəncərəni sındırdı.*

*We met the man* – *Biz kişini qarşıladıq.*

But there are verbs which in different contexts can be transitive or intransitive: *open*, *move*, *grow*, *begin*, *drop* etc.

*The car stopped* – *Maşın dayandı* (*intransitive verb*).

*The driver stopped the car* – *Sürücü maşını dayandırdı* (*transitive verb*).



*Many flowers **grow** in our garden – Bağımızda çoxlu güllər bitir (intransitive verb).*

*My father **grows** a lot of flowers in our garden – Atam bağımızda çoxlu güllər becərir (transitive verb).*

*The meeting **began** at six yesterday – İclas dünən saat altıda başladı (intransitive verb).*

*They **began** the meeting at six yesterday – Onlar iclası dünən saat altıda başladılar (transitive verb).*

3) According to the ways of forming the Past Indefinite and Participle II the verbs are divided into two groups: *regular* and *irregular*.

Regular verbs form the Past Indefinite and Participle II by adding the suffix **-ed** to the stem of the verb.

*He **opened** the door – O qapını açdı (Past Indefinite).*

*He is sitting at the **opened** door – O, açılmış qapının yanında oturur. (Participle II)*

**-ed** is pronounced in the following ways:

1. **[d]** after voiced consonants except **[d]** and after vowels:

open – opened [ˈoʊpnd]

answer – answered [ˈɑːnsəd]

play – play [pleɪd]

2. **[t]** after voiceless consonants except **[t]**:

work – worked [wɜːkt]

finish – finished [ˈfɪnɪʃt]

3 **[ɪd]** after the consonants **[t, d]**:

*last – lasted [ˈlɑːstɪd] – davam etmək*

*intend – intended [ˈɪntendɪd] – niyyətində olmaq*

Spelling rules of the verb forms with **-ed**:

1. The letter **-d** is added to stems ending in **-e**:

*live – lived*

*skate – skated*

*believe – believed*

2. The final **-y** is changed into **-i** if it is preceded by a consonant:

*study – studied; cry – cried; reply – replied; carry – carried*

3. If **-y** is preceded by a vowel, it is not changed:

*stay-stayed; play-played*

4. If a verb ends in a consonant preceded by a short stressed vowel, the final consonant is doubled:

*stop – stopped; nod – nodd**ed**; plan – plan**ned**; sob – sob**bed**;  
drop – dropp**ed**; stir – stirr**ed**; refer – refer**red**; permit – permit**ted**;  
prefer – prefer**red**; occur – occur**red***

But: *appear – appear**ed***

5. Final **-l** is doubled if it is preceded by a short vowel, stressed or unstressed:

*compel – comp**elled**; quarrel – quarr**elled**; compell – comp**elled***

Irregular verbs form their Past Indefinite and Participle II forms in different ways.

*go – went – gone*

*give – gave – given*

*cut – cut – cut*

*send – sent – sent*

4) According to their lexical meaning and syntactic functions verbs are divided into: 1. *Notional verbs*. 2. *Auxiliary verbs*. 3. *Link verbs*. 4. *Modal verbs*.

**1. Notional verbs** have a full lexical meaning of their own and can be used in a sentence as a simple predicate: *go, take, do, eat, come, teach, speak*.

*Come! – Gəlin!*

*He came yesterday – O, dünən gəldi.*

**2. Auxiliary verbs** are used to make up analytical forms of the verb. Here belongs: *to be, to have, to do, shall (should), will (would)*:

*He is writing now – O, indi yazır.*

*He has already written – O, artıq yazıb (yazmışdır).*

*He does not write every day – O, hər gün yazmır.*

*He will write tomorrow – O, sabah yazacaq.*

**3. Link verbs** have partly lost their lexical meaning and are used as a part of a compound nominal predicate. Here belong: *to be, to turn, to become, to seem, to look, to grow* etc.

*He was ill* – *O, xəstə idi.*

*He looked angry* – *O, hirsli görünürdü.*

*He turned pale* – *Onun rəngi qaçdı.*

**4. Modal verbs** make up a special group of verbs: they cannot be used independently unaccompanied by notional verbs, though they have a lexical meaning of their own. About modal verbs see: page \_\_\_\_.

5) According to aspective nature verbs are divided into two groups – *terminative* and *non-terminative verbs*.

*Terminative verbs* imply a limit beyond which the action cannot continue. In other words, they have a final aim in view: *open, close, take, break, bring* etc.

*Non-terminative verbs* do not imply any such limit and the action can go on indefinitely: *live, carry, sit, know, hate, love* etc.

6) According to the category of person and number verbs are divided into two groups – *finite forms* and *non-finite forms*.

*I like books* – *Mən kitabları xoşlayıram.*

*He likes books* – *O, kitabları xoşlayır.*

*The finite forms* have the function of the predicate in the sentence and may also be called the *predicative forms* (şəxslı forma).

*The non-finite* or *non-predicative forms* (şəxssız forma) can have various other functions, see page \_\_\_\_\_. *Non-finite forms* are: *infinitive, gerund, participle*.

*I like reading books* – *Mən kitab oxumağı xoşlayıram.*

*He likes reading books* – *O, kitab oxumağı xoşlayır.*

*He liked reading books* – *O, kitab oxumağı xoşlayırdı.*

### 3. The verb *to be*

The verb *to be* has suppletive forms for different persons (singular and plural).

<i>I am</i>	}	<b>is</b>	<i>We</i>	}	<b>are</b>
<i>He</i>			<i>You</i>		
<i>She</i>			<i>They</i>		
<i>It</i>					

The forms of the verb *to be* has the following meanings:

**am** – (*I şəxs tək*) **am<sup>2</sup>, yam<sup>2</sup>**

**is** – (*III şəxs tək*) **dır<sup>4</sup>**

**are** – (*I şəxs cəm*) – **ıq<sup>4</sup>; yıq<sup>4</sup>**

**are** – (*II şəxs cəm*) – **sınız<sup>4</sup>**

**are** – (*III şəxs cəm*) – **dırlar<sup>4</sup>**

<i>I <b>am</b> a teacher</i> – <i>Mən müəlliməm.</i>	<i>We <b>are</b> teachers</i> – <i>Biz müəllimik.</i>
<i>You <b>are</b> teacher</i> – <i>Sən müəllimsən.</i>	<i>You <b>are</b> teachers</i> – <i>Siz müəllimsiniz.</i>
<i>He <b>is</b> a teacher</i> – <i>O, müəllimdir.</i>	<i>They <b>are</b> teachers</i> – <i>Onlar müəllimdirlər.</i>
<i>She <b>is</b> a teacher</i> – <i>O, müəllimdir.</i>	
<i>It <b>is</b> a book</i> – <i>O, kitabdır.</i>	

In the interrogative form the forms of the verb *to be* is used before the subject.

**Are** you a teacher? – *Sən müəllimsən?*

**Is** he a teacher? – *O, müəllimdir?*

**Are** they teachers? – *Onlar müəllimdirlər?*

In the negative form the negative particle **not** is used after the forms of the verb *to be*.

*I am **not** a teacher* – *Mən müəllim deyiləm.*

*He is **not** a teacher* – *O, müəllim deyil.*

*They are **not** teachers* – *Onlar müəllim deyillər.*

**To be** in the imperative sentences is used without the particle *to*.

*Be careful* – *Diqqətli ol (olun).*

*Be clever* – *Ağıllı ol (olun).*

The negative form of the imperative is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to do*.

**Don't** be late – *Gecikmə.*

**Don't** be angry – *Hirsişənmə.*

The verb *to be* is used in the following cases.

**1. The verb *to be*** used as a notional verb means *mövcud olmaq* (to exist), *baş vermək* (to happen), *getmək* (to go), *baş çəkmək* (to visit):

*There is a book on the table – Stolun üstündə kitab var.*

*There are a lot of trees in our garden – Bizim bağımızda çoxlu ağac var.*

*Have you ever been to London? – Siz heç Londonda olmusunuzmu?*

When the verb *to be* has the meaning of *to go, to visit* it is used only in the perfect tenses:

*I have been to the library twice this week – Mən bu həftə iki dəfə kitabxanaya getmişəm (kitabxanada olmuşam).*

*Have you ever been to London? – Siz heç Londonda olmusunuzmu?*

**2. The verb *to be*** as an auxiliary verb is used to form continuous tense forms and the passive voice.

*He is reading now – O, indi oxuyur.*

*He was reading when I came – Mən gələndə o oxuyurdu.*

*I am met every day – Məni hər gün qarşılayırlar.*

*He was taken to hospital – Onu xəstəxanaya apardılar.*

**3. The verb *to be*** as a link verb connects the predicative with the subject.

*The doctor is young – Həkim gəncdir.*

*The man was a painter – Kişi rəssam idi.*

*They are attentive – Onlar diqqətlidir.*

The verb *to be* used with an infinitive acquires modal force.

*Remember! We are to meet him at ten o'clock – Xatırla (yadda saxla). Biz saat onda onu qarşılamalıyıq (Əvvəlcədən planlaşdırılmış hərəkət).*

#### **4. The verb *to have***

The verb *to have* is used in the following cases:

**1. The verb to have** used as a notional verb means *to possess*.

*I have a book – Mənim kitabım var (Mən kitaba malikəm).*

*You have a book – Sənin kitabın var (Sən kitaba maliksən).*

*He has a book – Onun kitabı var (O, kitaba malikdir).*

*She has a book – Onun kitabı var (O, kitaba malikdir).*

*It has a door – Otağın qapısı var (Otaq qapıya malikdir).*

*We have a book – Bizim kitabımız var (Biz kitaba malikik).*

*You have a book – Sizin kitabınız var (Siz kitaba maliksiniz).*

*They have a book – Onların kitabı var (Onlar kitaba malikdir).*

The interrogative form is formed in two ways:

*Have you a car?*

*Do you have a car?*

*Has he a car?*

*Does he have a car?*

*Have they cars?*

*Do they have cars?*

The negative form is formed in three forms:

*I have **no** car.*

*I have **not** a car.*

*I don't **have** a car.*

*They have **no** cars.*

*They have **not** cars.*

*They don't **have** cars.*

The meaning of possession may also be given by means of the expression *to have got*:

*I have got a car.*

*He has got a car.*

*They have got a car (cars).*

In the interrogative form *have* or *has* is used before the subject, but in the negative form the negative particle *not* is used after *have* or *has*.

***Have** you got a car?*

***Has** he got a car?*

***I have not** got a car.*



They **have not** got cars.

**2. To have** is widely used in certain combinations:

*to have a walk* – *gəzintiyə çıxmaq*

*to have a good time* – *yaxşı vaxt keçirmək*

*to have classes* – *dərsi olmaq*

*to have a smoke* – *papiros çəkmək*

*to have a swim* – *üzmək*

*to have dinner* – *nahar etmək*

*to have a look* – *nəzər salmaq, baxmaq* etc.

**Note** the interrogative and negative forms.

*Do you have dinner at home?* – *Siz evdə nahar edirsiniz?*

*I don't have dinner at home* – *Mən evdə nahar etmirəm.*

**3. The verb to have** as an auxiliary verb is used to form perfect tense forms:

*I have already seen him* – *Mən artıq onu görmüşəm.*

*He has not come yet* – *O, hələ gəlməyib.*

*We had done the translation by ten yesterday* – *Biz tərcüməni dünün saat onadək etmişdik.*

*We shall have copied the text by ten tomorrow* – *Biz sabah saat onadək mətni köçürmüş olacağıq.*

**4. The verb to have** used with an infinitive acquires modal force:

*As it is raining we have to take a taxi* – *Yağız yağdığı üçün biz taksi tutmalıyıq (şəraitdən doğan zərurət).*

## 5. The verb *to do*

The verb *to do* is used in the following cases:

**1. The verb to do** when used as a notional verb has a great variety of meanings:

*to do homework* – *ev tapşırığını etmək*

*to do one's best* – *əлиндən gələnə etmək*

*to do shopping* – *bazarlıq etmək*

*to do lessons – dərsləri etmək və s.*

*I **did** the translation then I went to the cinema – Mən tərcüməni etdim, sonra kinoya getdim.*

*He usually **does** shopping on Saturdays – O, adətən şənbə günləri bazarlıq edir.*

The verb *to do* means *to be suitable*:

*Which book will **do**? Any book will **do** – Hansı kitab yarayar (Sizi qane edər)? İstənilən kitab (hər hansı kitab) yarayar.*

**2.** The verb *to do* as an auxiliary is used:

a) To form the negative and the interrogative forms of the present and past tenses (common aspect):

*Mary speaks English well.*

***Does** Mary speak English well?*

*Mary **does not** (doesn't) speak English well.*

***Do** you live in London?*

*We **don't** live in London.*

*He went there.*

***Did** he go there?*

*He **didn't** (did not) go there.*

b) To form the negative of the imperative sentence:

*Open the door – Qapını açın.*

***Don't** open the door – Qapını açmayın.*

c) To make the meaning of the verb in the present and past indicative and the imperative more emphatic.

*I **do like** this book – Mən bu kitabı daha çox xoşlayıram.*

*I **did enjoy** the film – Mən filmdən daha çox zövq aldım.*

***Do** visit him. He is ill – Ona mütləq baş çək. O, xəstədir.*

**3.** The verb *to do* is used as a verb-substitute to avoid the repetition of the main verb:

*She speaks English better than I **do** (than I speak) – O, ingiliscə məndən yaxşı (mənim danışdığımıdan yaxşı) danışır.*

*He comes home before you **do** (come) – O, evə sizdən əvvəl (siz gəlməzdən əvvəl) gəlir.*

## 6. The categories of the verb

The finite forms of the verb has the grammatical categories of person and number, tense, aspect, voice, mood.

**1. The category of person.** In Modern English there are but few forms indicating person and number of the verb. These are:

1) *to be* has suppletive forms for different persons.

*I am a doctor – Mən həkiməm. I was a doctor – Mən həkim idim.*  
*You are doctors – Siz həkimsiniz. He (she) was a doctor – O, həkim idi.*  
*He (she) is a doctor – O, həkimdir. We were doctors – Biz həkim idik.*  
*They are doctors – Onlar həkimdirlər. You were doctors – Siz həkim idiniz.*  
*They were doctors – Onlar həkim idilər.*

2) *to have* and *to do* in the Present Indicative.

<i>I</i>	} <i>have got a car</i>	<i>I speak</i>
<i>We</i>		<i>We speak</i>
<i>You</i>		<i>You speak</i>
<i>They</i>		<i>They speak</i>
		<i>He (she) speaks</i>

*He (she) has got a car.*

3) *to have* in the Present Perfect.

<i>I</i>	} <i>have read this book.</i>
<i>We</i>	
<i>You</i>	
<i>They</i>	

*He (she) has read this book.*

4) The Future Indefinite tense.

<i>I</i>	} <i>shall speak English.</i>
<i>We</i>	

You }  
They } will speak English.  
He (she)

**NOTE:** In colloquial style no person distinctions are found either in the future. The only marker for future tenses in 'll used with all persons, both singular and plural: **I'll** go there; **He'll** go there.

**2. The category of tense** is very clearly expressed in the form of the English verb. This category denotes the relation of the action either to the moment of speaking or to some definite moment in the past or future. The category of tense and the category of aspect are intermingled. The category of aspect shows the way in which the action develops, whether it is in progress or completed, etc.

**3. The category of voice** is the category of the verb which indicates the relation of the predicate to the subject and the object. There are two voices in English: the active voice; the passive voice.

*I take the book – Mən kitabı götürürəm.*

*The book is taken by me – Kitab mənim tərəfimdən götürülür.*

**4. The category of mood.** Mood is a grammatical category which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality. There are three moods in English:

**1. The Indicative Mood.**

**2. The Imperative Mood.**

**3. The Subjunctive Mood.**

**1) The Indicative Mood** shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a fact.

*Tom lives in London – Tom Londonda yaşayır.*

*Tom doesn't live in London – Tom Londonda yaşamır.*

**2) The Imperative Mood** expresses a command or a request.

*Speak! – Danış! Danışın!*

*Stop! – Dayan! Dayanın!*

*Don't go there! – Oraya getmə!*

*Don't do this! – Bunu etmə!*

**3) The Subjunctive Mood** shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired.

*I wish I were a doctor – Kaş mən həkim olaydım.*

*I wish he were here – Kaş o, burada olaydı.*

## 7. Tenses in the indicative mood in the active voice

<b>Present Tense Forms.</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. The Present Indefinite Tense Form.</li><li>2. The Present Continuous Tense Form.</li><li>3. The Present Perfect Tense Form.</li><li>4. The Present Perfect Continuous Tense Form.</li></ol>
<b>Past Tense Forms.</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. The Past Indefinite Tense Form.</li><li>2. The Past Continuous Tense Form.</li><li>3. The Past Perfect Tense Form.</li><li>4. The Past Perfect Continuous Tense Form.</li></ol>
<b>Future Tense Form.</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. The Future Indefinite Tense Form.</li><li>2. The Future Continuous Tense Form.</li><li>3. The Future Perfect Tense Form.</li><li>4. The Future Perfect Continuous Tense Form.</li></ol>

### **The Present Indefinite Tense Form**

**Formation:** The present indefinite is formed by means of the infinitive without the particle *to*. In the third person singular the suffix **-s** or **-es** is added.

**NOTE:** *The spelling and pronunciation rules of the suffixes -s and -es are the same as the plural forms of the noun. See page \_\_\_\_\_.*

*to dress – dresses*

*to teach – teaches*

*to wash – washes*

*to catch – catches*

*to open – opens*

**Affirmative:**

*I work (teach) – Mən işləyirəm. (dərs deyirəm)*

*You work (teach) – Sən işləyirsən. (dərs deyəirsən)*

*He works (teaches) – O, işləyir. (dərs deyir)*

*She works (teaches) – O, işləyir. (dərs deyir)*

*It works (washes) – O, işləyir. (yuyur)*

*We work (teach) – Biz işləyirik. (dərs deyirik)*

*You work (teach) – Siz işləyirsiniz. (dərs deyirsiniz)*

*They work (teach) – Onlar işləyirlər. (dərs deyirlər)*

The interrogative and negative forms are built up analytically, by means of the auxiliary verb *to do* in the Present Indefinite and the infinitive without the particle *to*. In spoken English the contracted negative forms *don't* and *doesn't* are used.

<b>Interrogative</b>	<b>Negative</b>
<i>Do I work?</i>	<i>I do not (don't) work.</i>
<i>Do you work?</i>	<i>You do not (don't) work.</i>
<i>Does he work?</i>	<i>He does not (doesn't) work.</i>
<i>Does she work?</i>	<i>She does not (doesn't) work.</i>
<i>Does it work?</i>	<i>It does not (doesn't) work.</i>
<i>Do we work?</i>	<i>We do not (don't) work.</i>
<i>Do you work?</i>	<i>You do not (don't) work.</i>
<i>Do they work?</i>	<i>They do not (don't) work.</i>

**Negative-interrogative:**

*Don't I work? = Do I not work? – Məgər (yəni) mən işləmirəm?*

*Don't you work? = Do you not work? – Məgər (yəni) siz işləmirsiniz?*

*Doesn't he work? = Does he not work? – Məgər (yəni) o, işləmir?*

*Don't they work? = Do they not work? – Məgər (yəni) onlar işləmir?*

The use of the Present Indefinite.

1. The Present Indefinite is used to denote: a) simple facts; b) customary, repeated, habitual actions; c) actions to characterize a given person. Such actions are often used with adverbs, or adverbial phrases such as: *every day, every year, every month, as a rule*.



*every day – hər gün*                      *usually – adətən*

*sometimes – bəzən*                      *often – tez-tez*

*seldom – nadir hallarda*      *always – həmişə*

*as a rule – bir qayda olaraq*

*I usually go to school at 7 o'clock – Mən adətən saat 7-də məktəbə gedirəm.*

*I often go to the library – Mən tez-tez kitabxanaya gedirəm.*

*I seldom visit him – Mən nadir hallarda ona baş çəkirəm.*

*We play in the yard every day – Biz hər gün həyətdə oynayırıq.*

*As a rule I do my lessons in the evening – Bir qayda olaraq mən dərslərimi axşam edirəm.*

2. The Present Indefinite is used to denote universal truths and various other rules.

*The sun rises in the east and sets in the west – Günəş şərqdən çıxır qərbdə batır.*

*Twice two makes four – İki dəfə iki dörd edir.*

3. The Present Indefinite is used to denote future actions with verbs of motion: *to leave – tərk etmək, getmək; to start – yola düşmək; to arrive – çatmaq; to go – getmək; to come – gəlmək; to return – qayıtmaq.*

*He comes from London – Sabah o, Londondan gəlir.*

Such actions are planned and typical of formal style.

4. The Present Indefinite is used with reference to an action in the future in adverbial clauses of time and condition introduced by the conjunctions: *after, as, before, when, as soon as, till, until, if, in case, on condition.*

*We shall begin our work when they come.*

*They will do it if they are not too busy.*

5. The Present Indefinite is used to denote actions going on at the present moment with the verbs which are not used in the continuous forms:

*to want – istəmək*

*to feel – hiss etmək*

*to see – görmək*

*to understand – başa düşmək*

*to like – xoşlamaq*

*to wish – arzulamaq*

*to hear – eşitmək*                      *to notice – hiss etmək (görmək)*  
*to forget – unutmək*                    *to know – bilmək*  
*to love – sevmək*                        *to recognize – tanımaq, etc.*  
*I see you now – Mən indi sizi görürəm.*  
*I hear your well now – Mən indi sizi yaxşı eşidirəm.*

### **The Present Continuous Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Present Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* (*am is, are*) and Participle I of the notional verb (On the formation of Participle I – See page \_\_\_\_\_).

#### **Affirmative:**

*I am reading – Mən oxuyuram.*  
*She is reading – O, oxuyur.*  
*He is reading – O, oxuyur.*  
*It is working – O, işləyir.*  
*We are reading – Biz oxuyuruq.*  
*You are reading – Siz oxuyursunuz.*  
*They are reading – Onlar oxuyurlar.*

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject. In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the auxiliary verb.

#### **Interrogative:**

*Am I reading?*  
*Is she reading?*  
*Is he reading?*  
*Is it working?*  
*Are we reading?*  
*Are you reading?*  
*Are they reading?*

#### **Negative:**

*I am not reading.*  
*She is not reading.*  
*He is not reading.*  
*It is not working.*  
*We are not reading.*  
*You are not reading.*  
*They are not reading.*

#### **Negative-interrogative:**

*Aren't (ain't) I reading? = Am I not reading? – Məgər (yəni) mən oxumuram?*

*Isn't he reading? = Is he not reading? – Məgər (yəni) o, oxumur?*

*Isn't she reading? = Is she not reading? – Məgər (yəni) o, oxumur?*

*Isn't it working? = Is it not working? – Məgər (yəni) o, işləmir?*

*Aren't we reading? = Are we not reading? – Məgər (yəni) biz oxumuruq?*

*Aren't you reading? = Are you not reading? – Məgər (yəni) siz oxumursunuz?*

*Aren't they reading? = Are they not reading? – Məgər (yəni) onlar oxumurlar?*

### **The use of the Present Continuous.**

1. The present Continuous is used to denote an action going on or not going on at the present moment, i.e. the moment of speaking

*I am **still** reading – Mən hələ (hələ də) oxuyuram.*

*I am reading **now** – Mən indi oxuyuram.*

*I am reading **at the present moment** – Mən hal-hazırda (indiki anda) oxuyuram.*

*Where is the boy? – Oğlan haradadır?*

*He is **working** in the garden – O, bağda işləyir.*

**Compare** the use of the present indefinite and the present continuous:

*He reads every day – O, hər gün oxuyur.*

*He is reading now – O, indi oxuyur.*

*What do you do **every day**? – Siz hər gün nə edirsiniz?*

*I work in the yard every day – Mən hər gün həyətdə işləyirəm.*

*What are you doing **now**? – Siz indi nə edirsiniz?*

*I am working in the yard now – Mən indi həyətdə işləyirəm.*

*We usually have dinner at home – Biz adətən evdə nahar edirik.*

*We are having dinner at home now – Biz indi evdə nahar edirik.*

*Now I understand you – İndi mən sizi başa düşürəm.*

*Now I like this film – İndi mən bu filmi xoşlayıram.*

2. The Present Continuous is used to denote a planned action with the verbs of motion: *come, arrive, leave, start* etc.

*He is leaving for London next week – Gələn həftə o, Londona gedir.*

A planned future action may also be expressed by Present Indefinite. But in Modern English for this purpose Present Continuous is widely used.

*I leave tomorrow or I am leaving tomorrow.*

### **The Present Perfect Tense form**

**Formation:** The Present Perfect is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to have* (*have, has*) and Partisiple II of the notional verb (On the formation of Participle II see page \_\_\_\_\_).

#### **Affirmative:**

*I have copied the text – Mən mətni köçürmüşəm.*

*She has copied the text – O, mətni köçürüb.*

*He has copied the text – O, mətni köçürüb.*

*It has stopped – O (yağış) dayanıb.*

*We have copied the text – Biz mətni köçürmüşük.*

*You have copied the text – Siz mətni köçürmüşünüz.*

*They have copied the text – Onlar mətni köçürüblər.*

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb (*have, has*) is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the auxiliary verb.

#### **Interrogative:**

*Have I copied the text?*

*Has she copied the text?*

*Has he copied the text?*

*Has it stopped?*

*Have we copied the text?*

*Have you copied the text?*

*Have they copied the text?*

#### **Negative:**

*I have not copied the text.*

*She has not copied the text.*

*He has not copied the text.*

*It has not stopped.*

*We have not copied the text.*

*You have not copied the text.*

*They have not copied the text.*

#### **Negative-interrogative:**

*Haven't I copied the text? = Have I not copied the text? – Məgər (yəni) mən mətni köçürməmişəm?*

*Hasn't he copied the text? = Has he not copied the text? – Məgər (yəni) o, mətni köçürməyib?*

*Haven't we copied the text? = Have we not copied the text? – Məgər (yəni) biz mətni köçürməmişik?*

*Haven't you copied the text? = Have you not copied the text? – Məgər (yəni) siz mətni köçürməmişiniz?*

*Haven't they copied the text? = Have they not copied the text? – Məgər (yəni) onlar mətni köçürməyiblər.*

### **The use of the Present Perfect.**

1. The Present Perfect is used to express an action already completed before the present time but connected with the present situation. The result of the action is clear.

*I have lost my pen – Mən qələmimi itirmişəm (Mən yazma bilmirəm).*

*He has opened the door (It is cold in the room)*

*Where is Tom? He has gone to London (He is not here) – Tom haradadır? O, Londona gedib (O, burada yoxdur).*

*Where has Tom gone? (Where is Tom now?) – Tom haraya gedib? (Tom indi haradadır?)*

2. The Present Perfect is often used with the following adverbs or adverb phrases such as:

*ever – heç*

*never – heç vaxt*

*yet – hələ*

*already – artıq*

*just – indicə*

*lately – bu yaxınlarda (həftə, gün nəzərdə tutulur)*

*recently – bu yaxınlarda (il, ay nəzərdə tutulur)*

*up to now – indiyə qədər, indiyədək*

*many times – çox vaxt*

*for years – illər ərzində*

*the whole period of duration is indicated.*

*for five days – beş gün ərzində*

*this week – bu həftə*

*since 1996 – 1996-cı ildən bəri – the starting point of the action is indicated.*

*Have you **ever** been to London? – Siz heç Londonda olmusunuzmu?*

*I have **never** seen such a nice girl – Mən heç vaxt belə qəşəng qız görməmişəm.*

*He has not come **yet** – O, hələ gəlməyib.*

*They have **just** left the room – Onlar indicə otağı tərk ediblər.*

*We haven't met **lately** – Biz bu yaxınlarda rastlaşmamışıq.*

*I haven't heard about this **up to now** – İndiyədək mən bu haqda eşitməmişəm.*

*We have visited him **many times** – Biz ona çox baş çəkmişik.*

*He has **already** translated the letter – O, artıq məktubu tərcümə etmişdir.*

*We have not seen Tom **since 1996** – Biz 1996-cı ildən bəri Tomu görməmişik.*

*He **never** speaks English – O, heç vaxt ingiliscə danışmur.*

*She **already** knows English – O, artıq ingiliscə bilir.*

*I have seen that man **this week** – Mən o kişini bu həftə görmüşəm. (compare the)*

*I saw this man **this week** – Mən o kişini bu həftə gördüm. (use of the)*

*I'll see this man **this week** – Mən o kişini bu həftə görəcəm. (tense forms)*

*He has been ill for two days – O, iki gündür ki, xəstədir.*

*He has been ill since Monday – O, bazar ertəsindən bəri xəstədir.*

*He has had dinner already – O, artıq nahar etmişdir.*

*Since when has he been ill? – O, nə vaxtdan bəri xəstədir.*

*He has had a car of his own for two years – İki ildir ki, onun özünün şəxsi maşını var.*

***How long** have you had a car? – Nə qədər vaxtdır ki, sənin maşının var?*

***How long** has he been ill? – Nə qədər vaxtdır ki, o, xəstədir.*

**NOTE:** The past indefinite, never the present perfect, is used in questions beginning with **when**.



*Have you seen this film?*

*-Yes, I have seen it.*

*When did you see it?*

Depending on the situation the answer can be: a) *I saw this film two days ago;* b) *I have just seen this film.*

### **The Present Perfect Continuous Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Present Perfect Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary verb to be (*have been, has been*) and Participle I of the notional verb.

#### **Affirmative:**

*I have been reading for two hours – Mən iki saatdır ki, oxuyuram.*

*He (she) has been reading for two hours – O, iki saatdır ki, işləyir.*

*We have been reading for two hours – Biz iki saatdır ki, oxuyuruq.*

*You have been reading for two hours – Siz iki saatdır ki, oxuyursunuz.*

*They have been reading for two hours – Onlar iki saatdır ki, oxuyurlar.*

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the first auxiliary verb.

#### **Interrogative:**

*Have I been reading?*

*Has he (she) been reading?*

*Has it been working?*

*Have we been reading?*

*Have you been reading?*

*Have they been reading?*

#### **Negative-interrogative:**

#### **Negative:**

*I have not been reading.*

*He (she) has not been reading.*

*It has not been working.*

*We have not been reading.*

*You have not been reading.*

*They have not been reading.*

*Haven't I been reading? = Have I not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) mən oxumuram?*

*Hasn't he (she) been reading? = Has he (she) not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) o, oxumur?*

*Haven't we been reading? = Have we not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) biz oxumuruq?*

*Haven't you been reading? = Have you not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) siz oxumursunuz?*

*Haven't they been reading? = Have they not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) onlar oxumurlar?*

1. The Present Perfect Continuous is used to denote an action which began in the past, has been going on up to the present and is still going on.

*I am reading now – Mən indi oxuyuram.*

*I have been reading for two hours – Mən iki saatdır ki, oxuyuram.*

*for two hours – iki saat ərzində*

*for a long time – uzun müddət*

*since Monday – bazar ertəsindən bəri*

*for ten years – on il ərzində*

*He has been working in the garden for five hours – Beş saatdır ki, o, bağda işləyir*

*The child has been sleeping since morning – Uşaq səhərdən bəri yatır.*

*He has been learning English for **three years.***

***How long** has he been learning English?*

*Nə qədər vaxtdır ki, o, ingilis dilini öyrənir?*

*She has writing a letter **since two o'clock.***

***Since when** has she been writing a letter?*

*Nə vaxtdan bəri o, məktub yazır?*

*I am very tired. I have been working – Mən çox yorğunam. Mən işləyirdim.*

*Your eyes are red. Have you been crying? – Gözləriniz qızarıb. Siz ağlayırdınız?*

2. With verbs not admitting of the Continuous form. The Present Perfect is the only tense possible.

*We have known each other for five years – Biz on ildir ki, birbirimizi tanıyıırıq.*

*We have been friends since 1966 – 1996-cı ildən bəri biz dostuq.*

### The Past Indefinite Tense Form

Məsdər	Past Tense form	Partisiple II
<i>to open</i>	<i>opened</i>	<i>opened</i>
<i>to play</i>	<i>played</i>	<i>played</i>
<i>to go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
<i>to speak</i>	<i>spoke</i>	<i>spoken</i>

**Formation:** The Past Indefinite is formed in different ways (For detailed treatment see page \_\_\_\_).

#### Affirmative:

*I worked (went) – Mən işlədim (getdim).*

*He (she) worked (went) – O, işlədi (getdi).*

*It worked – O, işlədi.*

*We worked (went) – Biz işlədik (getdik).*

*You worked (went) – Siz işlədiniz (getdiniz).*

*They worked (went) – Onlar işlədilər (getdilər).*

The interrogative and negative forms are formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to do (did)* and the infinitive of the notional verb without the Participle *to*.

#### Interrogative:

*Did I work (go)?*

*Did he (she) work (go)?*

*Did we work (go)?*

*Did you work (go)?*

*Did they work (go)?*

#### Negative:

*I did not work (go).*

*He (she) did not work (go).*

*We did not work (go).*

*You did not work (go).*

*They did not work (go).*

#### Negative-interrogative:

*Didn't I go there? = Did I not go there? – Məgər (yəni) mən oraya getmədim?*

*Didn't he (she) go there? = Did he (she) not go there? – Məgər (yəni) o, oraya getmədi?*

*Didn't you go there? = Did you not go there? – Məgər (yəni) siz oraya getmədiniz?*

*Didn't they go there? = Did they not go there? – Məgər (yəni) onlar oraya getmədilər?*

1. The Past Indefinite denotes an action performed in the past. The action is cut off from the present. The Past Indefinite is often used with adverbs or adverb phrases such as:

*yesterday – dünən*

*last week – keçən həftə*

*last month – keçən ay*

*last Sunday – keçən bazar*

*the other day – bu yaxınlarda*

*two days ago – iki gün əvvəl*

*in 1980 – 1980-cı ildə*

*during the war – müharibə vaxtı*

*Mary saw me in the street **yesterday** – Meri məni dünən küçədə gördü.*

*Tom left London **last week** – Tom Londonu keçən həftə tərk etdi.*

*My mother was born **in 1960** – Mənim anam 1960-cı ildə anadan olub.*

*It happened **in 1999** – Bu 1999-cü ildə baş verdi.*

***During the war** they lived together – Müharibə vaxtı onlar bir yerdə yaşadılar.*

2. The Past Indefinite is used to denote a succession of past actions:

*He **opened** the door, **entered** the room, **sat** on the sofa and **looked** through the morning mail – O, qapını açdı, otağa daxil oldu, divanın üstündə əyləşdi və səhər poçtunu nəzərdən keçirdi.*

*The man **went** out, **took a taxi** and **drove** home – Kişi bayıra çıxdı, taksi tutdu və evə getdi.*

3. The Past Indefinite is used to denote repeated actions in the past.

Two years ago we **often** visited him – İki il əvvəl biz tez-tez ona baş çəkirdik.

When we lived in London, we went to the theatre every week – Biz Londonda yaşayanda hər həftə teatra gedirdik.

Repeated actions are often expressed by **used to** + infinitive and **would** + infinitive. **Used to** is more colloquial and **would** is more literary.

When I was in the village, I **used to read** books for hours – Mən kənddə olanda saatlarla kitab oxuyardım.

Every evening they **would come** to us – Hər axşam onlar bizə gələrdi.

a) **Used** you to visit him?

b) Did you **used** to visit him?

} Siz ona baş çəkirdiniz?

1) He **used** not to visit us.

2) He **didn't used** to visit us.

3) He **didn't use** to visit us.

} O, bizə baş çəkməzdi.

**To be.** *To be* has two forms in the Past Indefinitive: *was, were*.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>
<i>I was a doctor – Mən həkim idim.</i>	<i>Was I a doctor?</i>
<i>He was a doctor – O, həkim idi.</i>	<i>Was he a doctor?</i>
<i>She was a doctor – O, həkim idi.</i>	<i>Was she a doctor?</i>
<i>It was a book – O, kitab idi.</i>	<i>Was it a book?</i>
<i>We were doctors – Biz həkim idik.</i>	<i>Were we doctors?</i>
<i>You were doctors – Siz həkim idiniz.</i>	<i>Were you doctors?</i>
<i>They were doctors – Onlar həkim idilər.</i>	<i>Were they doctors?</i>
<b>Negative:</b>	
<i>I was not (wasn't) a doctor.</i>	
<i>He was not (wasn't) a doctor.</i>	
<i>She was not (wasn't) a doctor.</i>	
<i>It was not (wasn't) a book.</i>	
<i>We were not (weren't) doctors.</i>	

*You were not (weren't) doctors.*  
*They were not (weren't) doctors.*

### **The Past Continuous Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Past Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* (*was, were*) and Participle I of the notional verb.

#### **Affirmative:**

*I was reading a book – Mən kitab oxuyurdum.*

*He (she) was reading a book – O, kitab oxuyurdu.*

*We were reading a book – Biz kitab oxuyurduq.*

*You were reading a book – Siz kitab oxuyurdunuz.*

*They were reading a book – Onlar kitab oxuyurdular.*

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject. In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the auxiliary verb.

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>Was I reading a book?</i>	<i>I was not reading a book.</i>
<i>Was she reading a book?</i>	<i>He (she) was not reading a book.</i>
<i>Was he reading a book?</i>	<i>We were not reading books.</i>
<i>Were we reading a book?</i>	<i>You were not reading books.</i>
<i>Were you reading a book?</i>	<i>They were not reading books.</i>
<i>Were they reading books?</i>	

#### **Negative-interrogative.**

*Wasn't I reading a book? = Was I not reading a book? – Məgər (yəni) mən kitab oxumurdum?*

*Wasn't he (she) reading a book? = Was he (she) not reading a book? – Məgər (yəni) o, kitab oxumurdumu?*

*Weren't we reading books? = Were we not reading books? – Məgər (yəni) biz kitab oxumurduqmu?*

*Weren't you reading books? = Were you not reading books? – Məgər (yəni) siz kitab oxumurdunuzmu?*

*Weren't you reading books? = Were you not reading books? – Məgər (yəni) onlar kitab oxumurdularmı?*



1. The Past Continuous is used to denote an action which was going on at a definite moment in the Past. It is used with the following adverbial phrases.

*at ten o'clock yesterday – dünən saat 10-da*

*at this time yesterday – dünən bu vaxt*

*at that time yesterday – dünən o vaxt*

*from 5 till 7 yesterday – dünən saat 5-dən 7-dək*

*then – onda*

*I was reading a book at ten o'clock yesterday*

*at this time yesterday*

*He was reading a book at that time yesterday*

*from 5 till 7 yesterday*

*They were reading books then*

2. Sometimes the definite moment is indicated by another past action expressed by a verb in the Past Indefinite.

*When she entered the room we were discussing the new book – O, otağa daxil olanda biz yeni kitabı müzakirə edirdik.*

*We were sitting at home when my friend rang us up – Dostum bizə zəng edəndə biz evdə otururduq.*

### **The Past Perfect Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Past Perfect is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to have (had)* and the Participle II of the notional verb.

#### **Affirmation:**

*I had taken – Mən götürmüşdüm.*

*You had taken – Sən götürmüşdün.*

*He (she) had taken – O, götürmüşdü.*

*We had taken – Biz götürmüşdük.*

*You had taken – Siz götürmüşdünüz.*

*They had taken – Onlar götürmüşdülər.*

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the auxiliary verb.

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>Had I taken?</i>	<i>I had not taken.</i>
<i>Had you taken?</i>	<i>You had not taken.</i>
<i>Had he (she) taken?</i>	<i>He (she) had not taken.</i>
<i>Had we taken?</i>	<i>We had not taken.</i>
<i>Had you taken?</i>	<i>You had not taken.</i>
<i>Had they taken?</i>	<i>They had not taken.</i>

**Interrogative-negative:**

*Hadn't I taken? = Had I not taken? – Məgər (yəni) mən götürməmişdim?*

*Hadn't he (she) taken? = Had he (she) not taken? – Məgər (yəni) o, götürməmişdi?*

*Hadn't we taken? = Had we not taken? – Məgər (yəni) biz götürməmişik?*

*Hadn't you taken? = Had you not taken? – Məgər (yəni) siz götürməmisiniz?*

*Hadn't they taken? = Had they not taken? – Məgər (yəni) onlar götürməmişdilər?*

1. The Past Perfect denotes an action completed before a certain moment in the past. A certain moment may be shown by the following adverbial phrases:

*by five o'clock yesterday – dünən saat beşədək*

*by this time yesterday – dünən bu vaxtadək*

*by that time yesterday – dünən o vaxtadək*

*by Sunday – bazar gününədək*

*by the end of the week – həftənin axırınadək*

*by May – Mayadək*

*by five o'clock yesterday*

*by this time yesterday*

*by that time yesterday*

*I had sent the letter*

*by Sunday*

*by the end of the week*

*by May*



## The Past Perfect Continuous Tense Form

**Formation:** The Past Perfect Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* (*had been*) and Participle I of the notional verb.

*I had been reading – Mən oxuyurdum.*

*She (she) had been reading – O, oxuyurdu.*

*It had been working – O, işləyirdi.*

*We had been reading – Biz oxuyurduq.*

*You had been reading – Siz oxuyurdunuz.*

*They had been reading – Onlar oxuyurdular.*

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the first auxiliary verb.

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>I</i></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>He (she)</i></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>Had We been reading?</i></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>You</i></div> <div style="text-align: center;"><i>They</i></div>	<div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>I</i></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>He (she)</i></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>We had not been reading.</i></div> <div style="text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>You</i></div> <div style="text-align: center;"><i>They</i></div>

### **Negative-interrogative:**

*Hadn't I been reading? = Had I not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) mən oxuyurdum?*

*Hadn't he (she) been reading? = Had he (she) not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) o, oxumurdu?*

*Hadn't we been reading? = Had we not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) biz oxumurduq?*

*Hadn't you been reading? = Had you not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) siz oxumurdunuz?*

*Hadn't they been reading? = Had they not been reading? – Məgər (yəni) onlar oxumurdular?*

1. The Past Perfect Continuous denotes an action which began before a definite moment in the past, continued up to that moment and was still going at that moment.

*I was reading a book at five o'clock yesterday – Mən dünən saat beşdə oxuyurdum.*

*I had been reading a book for two hours by five o'clock – Saat beşədək mən iki saat idi ki, kitab oxuyurdum.*

2. Sometimes a definite moment is indicated by another past action expressed in the Past Indefinite.

*He had been working there for ten days when I saw him – Mən onu görəndə o, on gün idi ki, orada işləyirdi.*

3. The Past Perfect Continuous may also be used to express an action begun before a given past moment, coming up to that past moment but no longer going on.

*It was cold. It had been raining for two hours – İki saat idi ki, yağış yağırdı.*

### **The Future Indefinite Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Future Indefinite is formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* and the infinitive without *to* of the notional verb.

#### **Affirmative:**

*I shall go to the village – Mən kəndə gedəcəyəm.*

*We shall go to the village – Biz kəndə gedəcəyik.*

*He (she) will go to the village – O, kəndə gedəcək.*

*You will go to the village – Siz kəndə gedəcəksiniz.*

*They will go to the village – Onlar kəndə gedəcəklər.*

However, in Modern English there is a tendency to use *will* for all persons in all the Future Tenses.

The contracted forms of the auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* are:

*I'll [aɪl] go to the village*

*He'll [hi:l] go to the village.*

*She'll [ʃi:l] go to the village.*

*It'll [itl] work next year.*

*We'll [wi:l] go to the village.*

*You'll [ju:l] go to the village.*

*They'll [ðeɪl] go to the village.*

In the interrogative form the auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the auxiliary verb.

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>Shall I (we) go to the village?</i>	<i>I (we) shall not go to the village.</i>
<i>He (she)</i>	<i>He</i>
<i>We</i>	<i>She</i>
<i>Will go to the village?</i>	<i>Will not go to the village.</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>You</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>They</i>

The contracted negative forms are:

*I shan't [ʃa:nt] go to the village. – Mən kəndə getməyəcəm.*

*He won't [wəʊnt] go to the village. – O, kəndə getməyəcək.*

**Negative-interrogative:**

*Shan't I go to the village? = Shall I not go to the village? – Məgər (yəni) mən kəndə getməyəcəyəm?*

*Shan't we go to the village? = Shall we not go to the village? – Məgər (yəni) biz kəndə getməyəcəyik.*

*Won't you go to the village? = Will you not go to the village? – Məgər (yəni) siz kəndə getməyəcəksiniz?*

*Won't they go to the village? = Will they not go to the village? – Məgər (yəni) onlar kəndə getməyəcəklər?*

*Won't he (she) go to the village? = Will he (she) not go to the village? – Məgər (yəni) o, kəndə getməyəcək?*

1. The Future Indefinite is used to denote a future action. It is often used with the following adverbs or adverb phrases.

*soon – tezliklə*

*tomorrow – sabah*

*tonight – bu axşam*

*the day after tomorrow – birisi gün*

*tomorrow evening – sabah axşam*

*in ten days – on gündən sonra, on günə*

*in a week – bir həftədən sonra, bir həftəyə*



*next month – gələn ay*

*They will return to Baki **next week** – Onlar gələn həftə Bakıya qayıdıcaqlar.*

*We shall begin our work **in two days** – Biz işimizi iki gündən sonra başlayacağıq.*

2. In adverbial clauses of time and condition after the conjunctions *when, till, until, before, after, as soon as, it* the present indefinite is used instead of the future indefinite.

*If*

*When*

*After*

*Before*

*Till*

*Until*

*As soon as*

*Əgər o, gəlsə*

*O gələndə*

*O gələndən sonra*

*O gəlməzdən əvvəl*

*O gələndək*

*O gələn kimi*

*he comes, we shall go to the village.*

*biz kəndə gedəcəyik*

3. Generally, future actions have various means of expression:

1. *To be going+infinite.*

2. *The Present Indefinite Tense Form.*

3. *The Present Continues Tense Form.*

4. *The Future Continuous Tense Form.*

*To be going+infinite* denotes an action which is expected to take place in the nearest future.

*I am going to read this book – Mən bu kitabı oxumaq niyyətindəyəm. Mən bu kitabı oxumağa hazırlaşırım.*

*He (she) is going to read this book – O, bu kitabı oxumaq niyyətindədir.*

We  
You } are going to read this book.  
They

**NOTE:**

*I intend to go there tomorrow – Mən sabah oraya getmək niyyətindəyəm.*

*He intends to come here next week – O, gələn həftə buraya gəlmək niyyətindədir.*

The Present Indefinite is used to indicate a future activity, as part of a plan with the verbs of motion: *go, arrive, leave, start* etc. It is typical of formal style.

*He leaves for London tomorrow – O, sabah Londona gedir.*

The Present Continuous is also used for a definite future arrangement and is more typical of informal conversational style. The time indication is nearly always given.

*I am leaving for London next week – Mən gələn həftə Londona gedirəm.*

4. The Future Continuous is also used instead of the Future Indefinite to indicate a planned future action.

*We shall be doing it tomorrow – Biz onu sabah edəcəyik.*

**The Future Continuous Tense Form**

The Future Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be (shall be, will be)* and Participle I of the notional verb.

**Affirmative:**

*I shall be reading – Mən oxumaqda olacağam.*

*We shall be reading – Biz oxumaqda olacağıq.*

*He (she) will be reading – O, oxumaqda olacaq.*

*It will be working – O, işləməkdə olacaq.*

*You will be reading – Siz oxumaqda olacaqsınız.*

*They will be reading – Onlar oxumaqda olacaqlar.*

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the first auxiliary verb.

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>Shall I (we) be reading?</i>	<i>I (we) shall not be reading.</i>
<i>                  He (she)</i>	<i>He (she)</i>
<i>Will            You    be</i>	<i>You will not be reading.</i>
<i>reading?</i>	<i>They</i>
<i>                  They</i>	

**Negative-interrogative:**

*Shan't I be reading? = Shall I not be reading? – Məgər (yəni) mən oxumaqda olmayacağam?*

*Shan't we be reading? = Shall we not be reading? – Məgər (yəni) biz oxumaqda olmayacağıq?*

*Won't he (she) be reading? = Will he (she) not be reading? – Məgər (yəni) o, oxumaqda olmayacaq?*

*Won't you be reading? = Will you not be reading? – Məgər (yəni) siz oxumaqda olmayacansınız?*

*Won't they be reading? = Will they not be reading? – Məgər (yəni) onlar oxumaqda olmayacaqlar?*

1. The Future Continuous is used to denote an action which will be going on at a definite moment in the future.

*at ten o'clock tomorrow – sabah saat onda*

*at this time tomorrow – sabah bu vaxt*

*at that time tomorrow – sabah o vaxt*

*from 5 till 7 tomorrow – saabat saat 5-dən 7-dək*

*then – onda*

**NOTE:** Compare the past and future continuous tenses forms.

*I shall be reading at ten tomorrow. – I was reading at ten yesterday.*

*He will be working at this time tomorrow. – He was working at this time yesterday.*

*They will be working from 5 till 7 tomorrow. – They were working from 5 till 7 yesterday.*

*He will be at home at ten tomorrow. – Then I shall be working in the garden.*

*He was at home at ten. – Then I was working in the garden.*

2. The definite moment may be indicated by another future action expressed by a verb in the present indefinite tense form.

*We shall be discussing the book when she comes. – We were discussing the book when she came.*

### **The Future Perfect Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Future Perfect is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to have* (*shall have, will have*) and Participle II of the notional verb.

*I shall have sent the letter – Mən məktubu göndərmiş olacam.*

*We shall have sent the letter – Biz məktubu göndərmiş olacağıq.*

*He (she) will have sent the letter – O, məktubu göndərmiş olacaq.*

*You will have sent the letter – Siz məktubu göndərmiş olacaqsınız.*

*They will have sent the letter – Onlar məktubu göndərmiş olacaqlar.*

In the interrogative form the first auxiliary verb is placed before the subject.

In the negative form the negative particle *not* is placed after the first auxiliary verb.

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>Shall I (we) have sent the letter?</i> <i>He (she)</i>	<i>I (we) shall not have sent the letter.</i> <i>He (she)</i>
<i>Will You have sent the letter?</i> <i>They</i>	<i>You will not have sent the letter.</i> <i>They</i>

### **Negative-interrogative:**

*Shan't I have sent the letter? = Shall I not sent the letter? – Məgər (yəni) mən məktubu göndərməmiş olacam?*

*Shan't we have sent the letter? = Shall we not sent the letter? – Məgər (yəni) biz məktubu göndərməmiş olacağıq?*

*Won't he (she) have sent the letter? = Will he (she) not sent the letter? – Məgər (yəni) o, məktubu göndərməmiş olacaq?*

*Won't you have sent the letter? = Will you not sent the letter? – Məgər (yəni) siz məktubu göndərməmiş olacaqsınız?*

*Won't they have sent the letter? = Will they not sent the letter? – Məgər (yəni) onlar məktubu göndərməmiş olacaqlar?*

1. The Future Perfect is used to denote an action completed before a definite moment in the future.

*by five o'clock tomorrow – sabah saat beşədək*

*by this time tomorrow – sabah bu vaxtadək*

*by that time tomorrow – sabah o vaxtadək*

*by Sunday – bazar gününədək*

*by the end of the week – həftənin axırınadək*

*by May – mayadək*

*I shall have sent the letter*

*by five o'clock tomorrow*

*by this time tomorrow*

*by that time tomorrow*

*by Sunday*

*by the end of the week*

*by May*

*by the end of the year*

*Mən sabah saat beşədək məktubu göndərmiş olacam.*

**Pay attention** to the differences between the future and past perfect tense forms.

*I shall have sent the letter by ten o'clock tomorrow. – I had sent the letter by ten o'clock yesterday.*

*We shall have finished the work by Sunday. – We had finished the work by Sunday.*

*They will have seen the new film when you come. – They had seen the new film when you came.*

2. The Present Perfect is used in adverbial clauses of time and condition after the conjunctions *if, when, till, until, after, before as soon as* to denote an action completed before a definite moment in the future.

*I shall send you the book **if I have read it** – Əgər kitabı oxumuş olsam (oxuyub qurtarsam), onu sizə göndərəcəm.*

*I shall send you the book* { *after I have read it*  
*as soon as I have read it.*  
*when I have read it.*

*Kitabı oxuyandan sonra (oxuyub qurtarandan sonra), onu sizə göndərəcəm.*

**NOTE:** 1. Verbs of sense perception and motion such as **to hear, to see, to come, to arrive, to return** in adverbial clauses of time are generally used in the Present indefinite and not in the Present Perfect.

*I shall begin my work* { *if he has come.*  
*when he has come.*  
*as soon as he has come.*  
*after he has come.*  
*before he has come.*

2. When the completion of the action is emphasized, the Present Perfect is used.

*He will tell us everything **when his friend has come** – Onun dostu gələndən sonra, o, bizə hər şeyi danışacaq.*

### **The Future Perfect Continuous Tense Form**

**Formation:** The Future Perfect Continuous is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* (*shall have been, will have been*) and Participle I of the notional verb.

#### **Affirmative:**

*I shall have been reading a book for two hours – Mən iki saat olacaq ki, kitab oxumaqda olacağam.*

*We shall have been reading a book for two hours – Biz iki saat olacaq ki, kitab oxumaqda olacağıq.*

*He (she) will have been reading a book for two hours – O, iki saat olacaq ki, kitab oxumaqda olacaq.*



*You will have been reading a book for two hours – Siz iki saat olacaq ki, kitab oxumaqda olacaqsınız.*

*They will have been reading a book for two hours – Onlar iki saat olacaq ki, kitab oxumaqda olacaqlar.*

<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>Shall I (we) have been reading? He (she)</i>	<i>I (we) shall not have been reading. He (she)</i>
<i>Will you have been reading? They</i>	<i>You will not have been reading. They</i>

### **Negative-interrogative:**

*Shan't I have been reading? = Shall I not have been reading? – Məgər (yəni) mən oxumaqda olmayacağam?*

*Shan't we have been reading? = Shall we not have been reading? – Məgər (yəni) biz oxumaqda olmayacağıq?*

*Won't he (she) have been reading? = Will he (she) not have been reading? – Məgər (yəni) o, oxumaqda olmayacaq?*

*Won't you have been reading? = Will you not have been reading? – Məgər (yəni) siz oxumaqda olmayacaqsınız?*

*Won't they have been reading? = Will they not have been reading? – Məgər (yəni) onlar oxumaqda olmayacaqlar?*

The Future Perfect Continuous denotes an action which will begin before a definite moment in the future, will continue up to that moment and will be going on at that moment.

*By the end of the year we shall have been working at the factory for two years – İlin axırınadək iki il olacaq ki, biz zavodda işləməkdə olacağıq.*

## **8. The use of tenses in the Passive Voice**

The verb in Modern English has two voice forms: a) The Active Voice; b) The Passive Voice.

**The Active Voice** shows that the subject is the doer of the action expressed by the predicate, i.e. the action is performed by its subject.

**The Passive Voice** shows that the subject is acted upon, i.e. the subject is the recipient of the action.

The Passive Voice is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* in the required tense form and Participle II of the notional verb.

### **To be + Participle II.**

When we change the active voice into the passive one the following rules must be observed:

1. The object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive voice.

2. *To be* is used in the given tense form.

3. Participle II of the given verb.

4. The subject of the active voice becomes the object of the passive voice. It is used with the preposition *by*. Depending on the situation this object may or may not be used.

5. While changing from active into passive or from passive into active the tense form doesn't change.

*I take the book – Mən kitabı götürürəm.*

*The book is taken by me – Kitab mənim tərəfindən götürülür.*

*I took the book – Mən kitabı götürdüm.*

*The book was taken by me – Kitab mənim tərəfindən götürüldü.*

*I shall take the book – Mən kitabı götürəcəm.*

*The book will be taken by me – Kitab mənim tərəfindən götürüləcək.*

If there are two objects in one sentence, then two passive constructions are possible.

*I gave him the book – Mən kitabı ona verdim.*

*He was given a book – Ona kitab verildi.*

*The book was given to him – Kitab ona verildi.*

The Passive Voice is also possible with intransitive verbs used with prepositions:

*to look after – qayğısına qalmaq*

*to laugh at – gülmək*

*to listen to – qulaq asmaq*

*to send for – göndərmək*



<i>You were seen. They</i>	<i>Were you seen? they</i>	<i>You were not seen. They</i>
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### 3. The Future Indefinite Tense Form.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>I (we) shall be seen. He (she) will be seen. You (they) will be seen.</i>	<i>Shall I (we) be seen? Will he (she) be seen? Will you (they) be seen?</i>	<i>I (we) shall not be seen. He (she) will not be seen. You (they) will not be seen.</i>

### 4. The Present Continuous Tense Form.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>
<i>I am being helped. He (she) is being helped. We You are being helped. They</i>	<i>Am I being helped? Is he (she) being helped? we Are you being helped? they</i>
<b>Negative:</b>	
<i>I am not being helped. He (she) is not being helped. We You are not being helped. They</i>	

### 5. The Past Continuous Tense Form.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>
<i>I was being helped. He (she) was being helped. We You were being helped. They</i>	<i>Was I being helped? Was he (she) being helped? we Were you being helped? they</i>
<b>Negative:</b>	
<i>I was not being helped. He (she) was not being helped. We You were not being helped They</i>	

### 6. The Present Perfect Tense Form.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>I have been seen. He (she) has been seen. We</i>	<i>Have I been seen? Has he (she) been seen? we</i>	<i>I have not been seen. He (she) has not been seen. We</i>

<i>You</i> <i>They</i>	<i>have been seen.</i>	<i>Have you been seen?</i> <i>they</i>	<i>You have not been seen.</i> <i>They</i>
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## 7. The Past Perfect Tense Form.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>	<b>Negative:</b>
<i>I had been seen.</i>	<i>Had I been seen?</i>	<i>I had not been seen.</i>
<i>He (she) had been seen.</i>	<i>Had he (she) been seen?</i>	<i>He (she) had not been seen.</i>
<i>We</i>	<i>we</i>	<i>We</i>
<i>You had been seen.</i>	<i>Had you been seen?</i>	<i>You had not been seen.</i>
<i>They</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>They</i>

## 8. The Future Perfect Tense Form.

<b>Affirmative:</b>	<b>Interrogative:</b>
<i>I (we) shall have been seen.</i>	<i>Shall I (we) have been seen?</i>
<i>He (she) will have been seen.</i>	<i>Will he (she) have been seen?</i>
<i>You (they) will have been seen.</i>	<i>Will you (they) have been seen?</i>
<b>Negative:</b>	
<i>I (we) shall not have been seen.</i>	
<i>He (she) will not have been seen.</i>	
<i>You (they) will not have been seen.</i>	

The forms of the Future Continuous and those of the Present, Past and Future Perfect Continuous are not used in the Passive Voice.

Instead of the Future Continuous Passive the Future Indefinite Passive is used.

*They will **be discussing** the book at six tomorrow.*

*The book **will be discussed** at six tomorrow.*

Instead of Perfect Continuous tense forms the corresponding perfect tense forms in the passive are used.

*They **have been discussing** the book for two hours.*

*The book **has been discussed** for two hours.*

*They **had been discussing** the book for two hours by six o'clock yesterday.*

*The book **had been discussed** for two hours by six o'clock yesterday.*

*They will have been discussing the book for two hours by six o'clock tomorrow.*



*The book will have been discussed for two hours by six o'clock tomorrow.*

The Passive Voice with modal verbs is also formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* and Participle II of the notional verb.

*I can take the box.                      The box can be taken.*  
*I may take the box.                     The box may be taken.*  
*I must take the box.                    The box must be taken.*

The Passive Voice is used in the following cases:

1. When the doer of the action is not known. Sometimes it is difficult to imagine the doer of the action.

*The car was stolen two days ago – Maşın iki gün əvvəl oğurlandı.*

2. There is no need to mention the doer of the action.

*Many trees are planted in our city every year – Şəhərimizdə hər il çoxdlu ağac əkilir.*

3. When the doer of the action is emphasized. The doer is preceded by the preposition *by*.

*The book was translated by me – Kitab mənim tərəfindən tərcümə edildi.*

## 9. The sequence of tenses

Unlike Azerbaijani the rules of the sequence of tenses are one of the peculiarities of English. The tense form of the verb in the subordinate clause depends on the tense form of the verb in the principal clause. This grammatical rule is called **the sequence of tenses**. The rules of the sequence of tenses mainly concern object clauses. The following rules should be observed:

1. If the tense form of the verb in the principal clause is in the Present Indefinite, Present Perfect or in the Future Indefinite, then in the subordinate clause depending on the sense any tense form may be used.

*I have told him*  
*I think*  
*I shall think*

*that Tom lived in London.*  
*that Tom was living in London.*  
*that Tom had lived in London.*  
*that Tom had been living in London.*  
*that Tom lives in London.*  
*that Tom is living in London.*  
*that Tom has lived in London.*  
*that Tom has been living in London.*  
*that Tom will live in London.*  
*that Tom will be living in London.*  
*that Tom will have lived in London.*

2. If the tense form of the verb in the principal clause is in the Past Indefinite, then in the subordinate clause only one of the past tense forms or future in the past must be used.

*that Tom lived in London. – Tom Londonda yaşayır.*  
*that Tom was living in London. – Tom Londonda yaşayırdı.*  
*that Tom had lived in London. – Tom Londonda yaşamışdı.*  
*that Tom had been living in London. – Tom müəyyən müddətdə yaşamışdı.*

*She said*

*that Tom would live in London. (The future indefinite in the past) – Tom Londonda yaşayacaq.*  
*that Tom would be living in London. (The future continuous in the past) – Tom Londonda yaşamaqda olacaq*  
*that Tom would have lived in London. (The future perfect in the past) – Tom Londonda yaşamış olacaq.*  
*that Tom would have been living in London. (The future perfect continuous in the past) – Tom müəyyən müddətdə yaşamış olacaq.*

The choice of the tense form in the subordinate clause depends on the time of actions taking place in both clauses.

a) If the actions in the principal and subordinate clauses take place at the same time, then in the subordinate clause the Past Indefinite or the Past Continuous is used.

*I knew that Tom **lived** in London – Mən bilirdim ki, Tom Londonda **yaşayı**r.*

*I thought that Tom **was sleeping** in the next room – Mən fikirləşirdim ki, Tom o biri otaqda **yatır** (yatırdı).*

b) If the action in the subordinate clause takes place before the action of the principal one, then in the subordinate clause the Past Perfect is used.

*I knew that my friend **had left** the city – Mən bilirdim ki, mənim dostum şəhəri **tərk edib** (tərk etmişdir).*

*We thought that Tom **had lost** his parents – Biz fikirləşdik ki, Tom valideynlərini **itirib** (itirmişdir).*

But if the definite time is shown then the Past Indefinite is used.

*We knew that they **moved** to London **in 1996** – Biz bilirdik ki, onlar 1996-cı ildə Londonda köçüb.*

c) If the action of the subordinate clause takes place after the action of the principal clause then in the subordinate clause the future indefinite in the past is used.

*I knew that he **would come** – Mən bilirdim ki, o, **gələcək**.*

The rules of the sequence of tenses may not be observed:

1. The subordinate clause describes a general truth.

*The teacher **told** the children that there **are** four weeks in a month – Müəllim uşaqlara dedi ki, bir ayda dörd həftə var.*

*The teacher **told** the pupils that the earth **moves** round the sun – Müəllim şagirdlərə dedi ki, yer günəş ətrafında fırlanır.*

2. In attributive clauses.

*The book **which you are reading now** was translated last year – Sizin indi oxudunuz kitab keçən il tərcümə edilib.*

3. In adverbial clauses of cause.

*He **couldn't find** me because he **doesn't know** my address – O, məni tapa bilmədi, çünki ünvanımı bilmir.*

4. In adverbial clauses of comparison.

Last year he **studied** better than he **does** this year – Keçən il o, bu ilkinə nisbətən yaxşı oxuyurdu.

## 10. Modal verbs

### General notion:

Most important modal verbs and a group of the so-called equivalents of modal verbs are the followings: *must, can (could), may (might), ought, shall (should), will (would), dare, need.*

Modal verbs have certain semantic and grammatical peculiarities.

1. They don't denote actions, but only show the attitude of the speaker together with the infinitive.

2. All of them lack verbals, i.e. the infinitive, gerund and participle.

3. They do not take -s in the third person singular.

4. They are followed (except for *ought*) by a bare infinitive.

*You ought to visit him.*

*You can do that.*

*You may use my book və s.*

5. They need no auxiliary to build up the interrogative and negative forms.

*Can you speak German? Must we do this?*

*May I come in? Need he do it?*

6. All modal verbs have 2 negative formsç full and contracted.

*We cannot go there.*

*We must not go there.*

*cannot = can't [ka:nt]*

*must not = mustn't [m0snt]*

*could not = couldn't [kudnt]*

*ought not = oughtn't [6:tnt]*

*may not = mayn't [me9nt]*

*need not = needn't [ni:dnt]*

*might not = mightn't*

**[ma9tnt]**

### **Must modal verb**

The verb **must** is used to express:

1. *Necessity or obligation.*

*You **must talk** to your daughter about her future.*

*You **must go** there at once.*

*Must* has only one form which is used as a present tense in the indicative mood. The expression *to have to* has the same meaning and can be used in the past and future.

*I didn't go there because I **had to visit** my friend.*

*They **will have to meet** at his office.*

*As it is raining I **have to take** a taxi.*

*Must* may be used in reported speech if it expresses advice.

*My father always told me that I **must be** good with girls.*

If *must* expresses necessary, then *had to* is used.

*The policeman said we **had to wait** till the traffic lights were repaired.*

*Must* may also be used with reference to the future:

*I **must write** the letter to my father tomorrow.*

*I **will have to write** a letter to my father tomorrow.*

Unlike *must to have to* expresses the necessity arising out of circumstances. In this meaning it is found in all kinds of sentences and is combined with the indefinite infinitive.

*As it was raining I **had to take** a taxi. – Yağış yağdığı üçün biz taksi tutmalı olduq.*

The negative and interrogative forms of the expression + *to have to* are formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to do*.

*Why did you **have to stay** at home? – Siz niyə evdə qalmalı oldunuz?*

*He **doesn't have to do** it.*

*We **don't have to leave** him.*

In American English instead of *to have to*, *to have got to* is used.

*I **have got to meet** my friend.*

*He **has got to go** there.*

2. *Prohibition.* In this meaning *must* is found in negative sentences.

*He **must not read** that book.*

*Cars mustn't be parked here.*

3. *Probability or supposition.* In this meaning *must* is used with all the forms of the infinitive in affirmative sentences *only*.

*I often see him at the library. He **must be** a student. – Ehtimal ki, (güman ki) o, tələbədir.*

*Where is Tom? He **must be sleeping** in the room. – Ehtimal ki, (güman ki) o, yatır.*

*Why hasn't he come? He **must have left** the city. – Ehtimal ki, (güman ki) o, şəhəri tərk edib.*

*They **must have been working** there for 2 hours. – Ehtimal ki, (güman ki) onlar iki saatdır ki, işləyirlər.*

If the action refers to the past the Perfect Infinitive is used.

*He **must have gone** to London yesterday. – Güman ki, (ehtimal ki) o, dünən Londona gedib.*

*They **must have left** the city.*

Supposition referring to the future cannot be expressed by **must**. The modal üord *probably* or the modal expression **to be likely** are to be used insteadş

*They will **probably go** there by train.*

*They **are likely to go** by train.*

In negative sentences supposition is expressed by means of the modal word *evidently*.

***Evidently**, they didn't see us.*

***Evidently**, he has lost the keys*

*To be to* is used to express necessity based on previously arranged plan or agreement.

*He **is to be** there at six in the morning. – O, səhər saat altıda orada olmalıdır.*

*You **are to do** this exercise in writing.*

If the action refers to the past then two variants are possible.

1. *to be to* is followed by an indefinite infinitive to express a planned action.

*He **was to go** there with his family. It was in his contract.*

*They **were to leave** the city.*



2. *to be to* in combination with the perfect infinitive denotes unfulfilled action.

*She was to have met me at the station. Why didn't she do it? – O, vağzalda məni qarşılmalı idi (yəni qarşılamadı).*

In the first case we don't know if the action is carried out or not, but in the second case the planned action is not carried out.

### **Can modal verb**

**Can** has two forms: **can** for the present tense and **could** for the past tense and for the subjunctive mood.

*I can speak English now but two years ago I could not speak.*

*I wish I could see him now.*

**Can** is used to express:

1. Physical and mental ability.

*She can play the piano.*

*She can speak English.*

*I can take the box.*

*When I was young, I could run very fast.*

*Can you jump over that bush?*

This meaning may also be expressed by *to be able*. This combination can be used in all tense forms if necessary.

*I am able to do it.*

*I was able to do it.*

*I have been able to do it.*

*I shall be able to do it və s.*

**Can** may also be used with reference to the future.

*We can do it tomorrow.*

2. Permission.

*Can I help you? (May I help you?)*

In the negative form **can** denotes prohibition.

*You cannot talk to Mother like this.*

3. The form *could* with reference to the present is found only in interrogative sentences in which it expresses a more polite request.

*Could (can) you help me?*

*Could she come tomorrow?*

4. *Doubt, astonishment.* When *can* denotes *doubt* it is used with all forms of the infinitive in the negative sentences.

*He can't be a student. He is too young. – Ola bilməz ki, o, tələbə olsun.*

*He can't be really ill. – Ola bilməz ki, o, həqiqətən xəstə olsun.*

*She can't be telling lies. – Ola bilməz ki, o, yalan danışsın.*

*He can't have done it. – Ola bilməz ki, o, bunu etmiş olsun.*

*She can't have been waiting for us so long. – Ola bilməz ki, o, bizi uzun müddətdir ki, bizi gözləyir.*

Sentences denoting *astonishment* are used in the interrogative sentences.

*Can he really be ill? – Yəni, o həqiqətən xəstədir.*

*Can he have done it? – Yəni, o, bunu edib.*

*Can she really have been at home all this time? – Yəni, o bütün müddət evdə olub.*

If the action refers to the past *can* and *could* may be used with the perfect infinitive.

<i>He cannot have gone to London.</i>	
<i>He could not have gone to London.</i>	<i>Ola bilməz ki, o Londona gedib.</i>

Notice the following set phrases with the verb *can*:

*He can't help crying.*

*He couldn't help laughing.*

*I can't but ask him about it.*

*He can't possibly do it.*

*I couldn't possibly refuse him.*

### **May modal verb**

The modal verb *may* has two forms: *may* the present tense; *might* the past tense.

*May* has the following meanings:

1. *Permission. May* in this meaning is used in affirmative and interrogative sentences with the indefinite infinitive.

*May I use your dictionary?*

*May I come tomorrow? Yes, you may.*

*You may use my phone.*

In indirect speech the form *might* is used. This meaning may also be rendered by the verbs *to allow, to permit*.

*She asked me if she **might visit** them every Monday.*

*They **allowed** him to go there.*

*They **were allowed** to go there.*

*My father said that I **might take** his car.*

When *may* is used in the negative form it denotes *prohibition*.

*You **may not smoke** here.*

**Must not** means that it is not the person who prohibits the action, but there are facts, rules or circumstances prohibiting it.

*You **must not smoke** here.*

2. *May* is used to express *possibility* due to circumstances.

*They **may (might) come** any minute.*

*It **may (might) rain** tomorrow.*

*He knew that it **might be** cold there so he took some warm clothes with him.*

3. *Supposition, uncertainly. May* occurs in affirmative and negative sentences and is followed by all the forms of the infinitive. In such cases *may* is synonymous with *perhaps* or *may be*.

**Might** expresses greater reserve or uncertainly on the part of the speaker than **may**.

*He **may/might be** at home, though I am not sure. (**Perhaps**, he is at home)*

*He **may/might not** know your address (**May be** he doesn't know your address).*

*He **may/might not be** sleeping now (**Perhaps** he is not sleeping now).*

*He **may/might be** sleeping now. (**Perhaps** he has done it).*

*He **may/might not** have done it (**May be** he has not done it).*

*He may/might have done it.*

*He may/might have been working for ten minutes in the garden.*

*He may/might not have been working (Maybe he has not been working).*

4. *Reproach* is found in affirmative sentences only with the form *might*.

*You might have visited him. He has been so kind to you.*

In English the meaning of supposition implying uncertainty may also be rendered by means of the modal words *perhaps* and *maybe*.

*Maybe, she went to London.*

*She may/might have gone to London.*

*Maybe, he is a student.*

*He may/might be a student.*

*Maybe, they know that boy.*

*They may/might know that man.*

### **Shall, will**

These verbs are used: a) as an auxiliary verb; b) as a modal verb. *Shall* as an auxiliary verb is used for the first person singular and plural.

*I (we) shall visit him tomorrow.*

However in Modern English we can observe the tendency to use *will* for all persons in all the future tenses.

*I will not (won't) pay 10 dollars for this book.*

*We will do it tomorrow.*

*Shall* has the following meanings:

1. *Suggestion*. In this meaning it is used in questions in the first person singular and plural.

*Shall I read? – Please, do.*

*Shall we go for a walk?*

*Shall we talk about your future?*

*Let's go for a walk, shall we?*

*Let's talk about your future, shall we?*

2. In interrogative sentences with the first and third persons *shall* denotes a request for instruction addressed to the second person.

*What shall I do?*

*Where shall I go?*

*Shall he go there right now?*

*Shall they take your bags?*

*Shall I open the door?*

*Shall I water the flowers?*

3. *Promise, threat or warning.* In these meaning *shall* is used in the second and third persons.

*You shall have my answer tomorrow.*

*“You shall stay just where you are” his mother cried angrily.*

*He shall do as I say.*

As a modal verb *will* has the following meanings:

1. A polite request or an offer. This meaning occurs only in questions.

*Will you do it for me?*

*Will you help me?*

2. After a positive command *will* expresses impatience.

*Shut the door, will you?*

3. *Will you, won't you* express willingness, consent.

*Will you marry me?*

*Won't you sit down?*

4. *Will* expresses insistence, resistance. It occurs in negative sentence.

*The engine won't start.*

*The key won't turn in the lock.*

*The door won't open.*

*She will not do it.*

## **Would**

*Would* is not also a pure modal verb. It is the past tense form of the verb *will*. As an auxiliary verb it is used in indirect speech in the future in the past tense forms.

*He said that he **would do** it in three days.*

**Would** with the indefinite infinitive is used to express repeated actions in the past.

*When we were at the seaside we **would be** in the sea and **lie** in the sun.*

As a modal verb **would** has the following meanings:

*I **would visit** the old man.*

1. A *polite request* or an *offer*. In comparison with *will* the form *would* means a greater degree of politeness.

***Would** you **tell** me the time?*

***Could** you **tell** me the time?*

2. *Volition*.

*I **would rather** stay at home.*

*I'd **rather be** a driver than a lawyer.*

3. *Would* expresses persistence, refusal.

*He wanted to open the door but the key **wouldn't fit** into the keyhole.*

*They asked her for help but she said she **would never help** them.*

### **Should and ought**

*Should* is the past tense form of the auxiliary verb *shall*. As an auxiliary verb *should* is used in indirect speech in the future in the post tense forms.

*I knew that I **should (would)** go there.*

As a modal verb *should* has the following meanings:

1. *Obligation*. In this meaning *should* is used in all kinds of sentences.

*You **should speak** to him right away.*

2. *Emotional colouring*. In rhetorical questions beginning with *why*.

*Why **should he do** it?*

*How **should I know**?*

3. *Advice*. This meaning is more common with *ought* than with *should*.



*You **should** never **look** at one woman when you are talking to another.*

*You **should** consult a doctor.*

If the action refers to the past *should* is followed by the perfect infinitive.

*He **should have told** him about it long ago.*

*You **should have given** him the book yesterday when you went to him.*

*You **shouldn't have done** it.*

*Ought* is the only modal verb that is followed by the infinitive with the participle *to*. *Ought* has the following meanings:

1. *Moral duty, moral obligation:*

*You **ought to be** thankful.*

*I think we **ought to be** careful.*

2. *Supposition:*

*She **ought to be** very happy.*

3. *Advisability:*

*There is another thing, you **ought to know**.*

*Your brother **ought to be** more attentive.*

4. *Reproach.* In this meaning *ought* is followed by the perfect infinitive.

*I am sorry. I **ought not to have** said it.*

*You **ought to have visited** him (You didn't visit him).*

*You **oughtn't to have married** her, David.*

*It was a great mistake (You married her).*

### **Need**

The verb *need* may be used as modal verb or as a notional verb.

As a notional verb *need* can have all the necessary forms. It also expresses necessity. It is followed by the infinitive with *to* and is mainly used in interrogative and negative sentences.

*I **need** this book.*

*He **needs** that book.*

*He **needed** that book.*

*He did not **need** to read that book.*

*You don't **need** to tell him all.*

*Did you **need** to read that book?*

<p><i>Do you <b>need</b> this book?</i> <i>Did you <b>need</b> that book?</i> <i>I <b>don't need</b> that book.</i></p>	
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As a modal verb *need* has only one form which is the present indefinite tense form.

As a modal verb *need* expresses *necessity*. It combines with a bare infinitive. *Need* is mostly used in negative and interrogative sentences.

*Need she come tomorrow?*

*You **needn't** do it now.*

*Need he do it himself?*

*Need I come here?*

*You **needn't** answer all the questions.*

*You **needn't** be afraid of me.*

If the action refers to the past *need* is followed by the perfect infinitive and is used in negative sentences only. *Need not* + perfect infinitive denotes an action which has been carried out was undesirable.

*Why did you do it? You **needn't** have done so.*

In indirect speech *need* remains unchanged.

*We knew we **needn't** worry about it.*

### **Dare**

*Dare* as *need* may be used as a notional and as a modal verb.

*Dare* as a notional verb has the following peculiarities: 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present tense *dares*, past tense *dared*, etc. and it forms verbals. Negative and interrogative constructions are formed with the auxiliary *to do*.

*How does she dare to return home so late?*

*Why didn't you dare it before?*

As a modal verb *dare* has two forms: *dare* for the present tense and *dared* of the past tense. It is used mainly in interrogative and

negative sentences. It has the meaning – *to have the courage to do something*.

*How dare you say such things?*

*How dare you behave like that?*

*Dare you ask him?*

*How dare you talk to me like that?*

*He dare not do it.*

In the past tense *dare* has two forms: *dare, dared*.

*They dare not stop her when she wanted to leave.*

*His son dared not ask him for money when they met.*

*Dare* is mostly used in literary style. In spoken English *dare* is used in the first person singular in affirmative sentences.

*I dare say you are a bad man.*

*I dare say he is going to leave us.*

The affirmative set-phrase *I dare say* is rendered Azerbaijani as – *cürət edib deyə bilərəm, bəlkə də, güman edirəm ki*.

*I dare say you are to blame.* – *Cürət edib deyə bilərəm ki, günahkar sizsiniz.*

## 11. The category of mood

One of the ways of expressing modality is Mood. Mood is a grammatical category which indicates the attitude of the speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of view of its reality (*Hərəkətin həqiqi reallığa olan münasibətini bildirir*). In modern English we distinguish 3 moods: 1. *The Indicative Mood*. 2. *The Imperative Mood*. 3. *The Subjunctive Mood*.

**1. The Indicative Mood.** *The Indicative mood* shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as **a fact**.

*We study in the second course.*

*I had prepared my lesson by 8 o'clock yesterday.*

The Indicative Mood is used:

1) In all possible tense forms, in the active and passive voices (in 16 tense forms, in direct and indirect speech).

*Mother, where **does** the fire **go** wheft it **goes out**?*

*I **don't know**, son. You **might** as well as **ask** me where your father **goes** when he **goes out**.*

2) The Indicative Mood is also used to express a real condition.

If I *see* him I shall give him the book.

If you *spend* so much time, you will be late.

If it *blows* from the East, it will rain.

**2. The Imperative Mood.** *The Imperative Mood* expresses a command or request. In modern English the Imperative mood has only one form which coincides with the infinitive without particle to. It is used in the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular and plural.

***Write** the sentence on the blackboard.*

***Put** the book on the table.*

In forming the negative form the auxiliary verb **to do** is always used, even with the verb **to be**.

***Do not** make that mistake again.*

***Don't** be stubborn.*

The auxiliary verb **to do** may also be used in affirmative sentences to make the request more emphatic.

***Do** write it again.*

***Do** be silent.*

A command addressed to the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 1<sup>st</sup> persons singular and plural is usually expressed with the help of the verb **to let** + *personal pronoun in the objective case, or a noun in the common case + infinitive without to.*

***Let** him translate the sentence.*

***Let** the boy read the text.*

**NOTE:** With the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural the verb **to let** is also used to express an exhortation (*arzu, niyyət, məqsəd*) to a joint action.

**Compare:** *Let us punish him - İcazə verin onu cəzalandıraq.*

*Let us discuss this question at our next meeting. -  
Gəlin bu məsələni gələn iclasımızda müzakirə edək.*

**3. The Subjunctive Mood General Notion.** *The Subjunctive Mood* shows that the action or state expressed by the verb is presented as a non-fact, as something imaginary or desired.

*I wish you **were** a teacher. (Kaş sən nüəllim olaydın)*

Here my wish contradicts the state. *You are not a teacher.*

In modern English the Subjunctive Mood has synthetic and analytical forms.

The synthetic forms are: 1) *The Present Subjunctive Mood*, 2) *The Past Subjunctive Mood*.

The analytical forms are: 1) *The Past Perfect Subjunctive Mood*, 2) *The Conditional Mood*, 3) *The Suppositional Mood*.

Some of these forms are used to represent an action as problematic i. e the speaker does not know whether the action will take place or not, the realization of the action is questionable.

Other forms are used to represent an action as contradicting reality, i. e an action which can't be realized.

**1) The present subjunctive mood.** The form of the Present Subjunctive coincides the form of the Present Indefinite Indicative without *-s* or *-es* in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular.

In the Present Subjunctive Mood the verb **to be** has the form **be** for all the persons singular and plural, which differs from the corresponding forms of the Present Indefinite Indicative (**am, is, are**). It represents an action as problematic and refers the action to the present or future. The Present Subjunctive is rarely used nowadays. It is usually found in poetry and in prose for the sake of style. It is also used in scientific language and in the language of official documents, in colloquial speech (mostly in American English).

The Present Subjunctive Mood is found in a few set expressions.

a) to express **wish**:

*Long live our republic! Success attend you!*

*Heaven forbid! God forbid! Be ours a happy meeting!*

**NOTE:** We also find **may + infinitive** in sentences of this kind.

*May ours be a happy meeting! May you be happy!*

*May success attend you! May you live long and die happy!*

b) to express **concession** in the following sentences:

*Come what will! So be it!*

**NOTE:**

We sometimes find **may + infinitive** in sentences of this kind.

*Happen what may! May it be so! Be this (that) as it may...*

c) in the expressions such as:

*Far be it from me...; Suffice it to say that...*

*Far be it from me to contradict you.*

d) in certain **imprecations** (*lənət, qarğış*)

*Manners be hanged! A cholera be with you!*

In the following subordinate clauses (mostly in American English)

a) in subject clauses after the expressions of necessity, recommendation, such as: *it is necessary, it is advisable, it is important, it is demanded, it is decided, it is ordered, it is obligatory, it is desirable, it is requested, etc.*

*It is necessary that he help you.*

*It is necessary that she consult a doctor.*

*It is ordered that we be present there.*

b) in object clauses after the clauses of suggestion, order, decision, such as: *to suggest, to order, to demand, to arrange, to insist, to request...*

*The teacher suggested that he **learn** the poem by heart.*

*They insist that the question **be discussed** at the meeting.*

*We demand that nuclear weapons **be banned***

c) in adverbial clauses of **condition** in the principal clause of which either the future indefinite or the imperative mood is used.

*If Mary **be** in town next week, let me know.*

*If she **come** here now, she will help you.*

d) in adverbial clauses of **concession** in the principal clause of which the future indefinite is used.

*We shall start though it **rain**.*

*Though all the world **be false**, still will I be true.*



**2) The Past Subjunctive Mood.** The form of the Past Subjunctive Mood coincides with the form of the Past Indefinite Indicative (The Past Simple). The Past Subjunctive of the verb to be is *were* for all the persons singular and plural which differs from the corresponding forms of the Past Indefinite Indicative (*was, were*). It represents an action contradicting reality, i. e. an action which can't be realized and refers the action to the present or to the future. The Past Subjunctive is widely used in modern English. The Past Subjunctive is used in certain types of subordinate clauses:

1. In subordinate clauses of unreal condition (***in the if - clauses***)

*If I had time now, I should help you.*

*If he were here now, he would help me.*

*If I saw him tomorrow, I should tell him all about it.*

2. In object clauses after the verb to wish

*I wish I knew Grammar well.*

*I wish he were now with us.*

*He wished he could speak English as well as her. (a simultaneous action)*

Object clauses of this type are mostly joined to the principal clause asyndetically, though sometimes the conjunction that is found.

**NOTE:** When the action of the object clause refers to the future, i. e. when it follows the action of the principal clause with two different subjects, we find the model **would + infinitive** in the object clause.

*I wish you would stay here for a while.*

*He wished they would keep quiet.*

*He wished he would come again.*

3. In clauses of comparison introduced by the conjunctions as if, as though.

*You speak as if you were a very experienced person.*

Why do you look at me as though you **didn't understand** what is worrying me.

4. In predicative clauses introduced by **as if, as though** after the link verbs: *to be, to feel, to seem, to look, to sound*.

It was as if she **were** angry with him.

She looks as if she **were** ill.

5. In adverbial clauses of concession introduced by **even if** and **even though**.

Even if he **were** here now, he would be of no help.

Even though it **were** late, I should see you home.

6. In attributive clauses after the expressions *it is time, it is about time, it is high time* in the principal clause.

It is high time you **knew** Grammar well.

It is about time he **decided** what to do further.

It is about time she **expressed** her own point of view.

7. The Past Subjunctive is also used in simple sentences with **if only; oh, if**.

If only you **trusted** me more.

If only the time **were** not so short.

Oh, if she agreed to wait a week longer.

**1) The Past Perfect Subjunctive Mood.** The forms of the Past Perfect Subjunctive coincide with the forms of the Past Perfect Indicative. It represents an action contradicting reality and refers the action to the past. The Past Perfect Subjunctive is widely used in Modern English. Its use is the same as that of the Past Subjunctive (with the exception of **it is time**)

1. In subordinate clauses of unreal condition (**in the if-clauses**)

If I **had had** time yesterday I should have helped you.

If I **had been** here yesterday, he would have helped me.

2. In object clauses after the verb to wish.

I wish I **had known** your telephone number last year.

I wish he **had been** at home yesterday.

He wished he **had never been** here.

Object clauses of this type are mostly joined to the principal clause asyndetically.

3. In clauses of comparison introduced by the conjunctions *as if* or *as though*.

You look at me as if you *had never seen* me before.

He spoke as though he *had read* the book in the original.

4. In predicative clauses introduced by *as if* and *as though* after the link verbs: *to be, to feel, to seem, to look, to sound*.

It was as if something unpleasant *had happened*.

She looked as though she *had been ill* for a long time.

5. In adverbial clause of concession introduced by *even if* and *even though*.

Even if he *had been* here yesterday, he would have been of no help. Even though you *had sent* him a telegram he wouldn't have come.

6. The Past Perfect Subjunctive Mood is also used in simple sentences with *if only, oh, if*.

If only they *had not broken* their promise.

Oh, if she *had seen* a doctor when still time.

**2) The Conditional Mood and its use.** The Conditional Mood is an analytical mood. It represents an action as contradicting reality. In accordance with its meaning the conditional mood is often used in the principal clause of a sentence of unreal condition. Clauses of condition are usually joined to the principal clause by means of the conjunction **if** and are therefore called **if clauses**.

The Conditional Mood has 2 tenses: 1. The Present Conditional Mood. 2. The Past Conditional Mood

**1. The Present Conditional Mood** is formed by means of the auxiliary verbs **should** (for the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and plural), **would** (for other persons) and *indefinite infinitive* without **to**.

The Present Conditional Mood is used with reference to the present or future.

If I had time, we *should go* to the country. (*today or tomorrow*)

If he were here, he **would help** me. (*now or tomorrow*)

If you he knew what I am sometimes you **would pity** me.

In all these sentences the action is unreal, because it depends on an unreal condition. The condition can't be realized, the action that depends on it can't be fulfilled either.

**2. The Past Conditional Mood** is formed by means of auxiliary verbs **should** (for the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and plural) and **would** '(for other persons) + *perfect infinitive* without **to**.

The Past Conditional mood refers the action to the past.

If I had had time yesterday, we **should have gone** to town.

If I had been here yesterday, he **would have helped** us.

If they had known it, they **would have told** us about it.

As a rule the condition (the action of the principal clause) and the action (what depends on it) refer to the same time.

If I **were** not busy now, I **should go** with you gladly.

If I **had not been** busy yesterday, I **should have gone** with you gladly.

**The use of the Conditional Mood.**

1) It is used in the principal clause of a complex sentence with an unreal clause of condition introduced by the conjunction **if**.

Thus, when a sentence of unreal condition refers to the present or the future the Past Subjunctive is used in the *if-clause* and the Present Conditional Mood in the principal clause.

If I **had** time, I **should do** it now.

But when a sentence of unreal condition refers to the past, the Past Perfect Subjunctive is used in the *if - clause* and the Past Conditional Mood in the principal clause.

If I **had had** time yesterday, I **should have done** it.

But there are also 2 mixed types of unreal condition:

a) The *if-clause* refers to the **present** and **future**, the principal clause refers to the *past*.

If I **knew** Grammar, I **should not have made** so many mistakes.

If you **were** more attentive (*you are not attentive in general*) you **would not have used** this wrong expression.

b) The if-clause refers to the *past* and the principal clause refers to the *present* or *future*.

If she *had repeated* the rule yesterday, she *would know* it better now.

If it *had not rained* yesterday, we *should go* to the forest now.

A clause of unreal condition may be joined to the principal clause asyndetically. Asyndetic condition is possible when the subordinate clause contains the verbs: *had, were, should, could*.

Inversion takes place in the subordinate clause, the predicate precedes the subject.

*Were* it not so noisy in the corridor, we *should continue* our studies.

*Had* I known about your illness, I *should have come* to see you.

Sentences with inversion is rather emphatic.

2) The Conditional Mood (both present and past) is also used in the principal clause of a complex sentence with a clause of *concession* introduced by the conjunctions *even if* or *even though*.

Even if he were here now, he *would not help* me.

Even though I had a dictionary I *should not have been able to translate* the text in the short time we were given.

3) The Conditional mood is also used in simple sentences with implied condition. The unreal condition is not expressed but understood from the sentence or context.

a) I am glad he is here. It would not be possible to settle the question without him (the implied condition is *if he were not here now*)

I am tired today. I *should like* to go there another time (the implied condition is *if I were not tired today*).

b) Why did you not tell me that you needed the book? I *should have brought* it (the implied condition is *if you had told me you needed the book*)

I wish I had shown you the letter. It *would have explained* everything to you (the implied condition is *if I had shown you the letter*).

4. The Conditional Mood is also used in simple sentences when the unreal condition is expressed by an adverbial modifier of condition introduced *but for...*

But for the wind, the weather *would be fine*. { If it were not for the wind...

But for your help, the old woman *would not have risked* crossing the street. (If it had not been for your help...)

5. The Conditional Mood is used in compound sentences coordinated by the conjunctions *or, or else, otherwise*.

I am busy now, or else I *should help* you.

She was angry with you, otherwise she *wouldn't have spoken* like that.

6. The Conditional Mood is used in simple sentences beginning with the infinitive. The tense of the Conditional Mood depends on the form of the infinitive (i.e. the subject expressed by the indefinite infinitive requires the Present Conditional, the Perfect Infinitive requires the Past Conditional)

*To go* there *would be impossible* now. (It would be impossible to go there now)

*To have done* so *would have spoiled* his chances. (It would have spoiled his chances to have done so)

### 3) The Suppositional Mood and its use.

The Suppositional Mood is an analytical mood. It represents an action as problematic, but not contradicting reality. An action problematic means that the speaker does not know whether the action will take place or not, the realization of the action is questionable.

The Suppositional Mood is used more frequently in British English than the Present Subjunctive Mood. The Suppositional Mood has 2 tenses: 1. The Present Suppositional Mood, 2. The Past Suppositional Mood

*The Present Suppositional Mood* is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *should* (for all persons) + *indefinite infinitive* without to. It refers the action to the present or future.



I insist that you **should rest** a little.

It is necessary that they **should rest** a little.

The Present Suppositional Mood is used in the following types of subordinate clauses:

1) In subject clauses after expressions of necessity or recommendation such as; *it is necessary, it is important, it is urgent, it is advisable, it is desirable, it is demanded, it is recommended, it is agreed, it is arranged, it is requested, it is decided* and so on.

It is necessary that he **should go** there. (or he **go** there)

It is desirable that all **should be present (or all be present)**.

It is requested that silence **should be maintained** (or the silence **be maintained**) in the lab.

It is impossible that they **should come (or they come)** so late.

It is natural that he **should like (or he like)** the job.

Subject clauses after these expressions usually introduced by the conjunction **that**. Asyndetic connection is uncommon.

2) In object clauses after the verbs: *to order, to request, to suggest, to demand, to offer, to arrange, to propose, to require, to insist, to recommend, etc.*

He ordered that we **should go** nowhere (or *w e g o*).

The teacher suggested that they **should learn (or they learn)** the poem by heart.

She insisted that we **should finish (or we finish)** the work by the middle of June.

The teacher asked that the students **should write (or write)** the words. Object clauses after these expressions are generally introduced by the conjunction **that**. Asyndetic connection is less frequent.

3) In object clauses after the verbs expressing **fear** such as: *to fear, to be afraid, to be frightened, to be terrified, to tremble, to be in terror, to be uneasy (I am uneasy...təp narahatam)* and so on, introduced by the conjunction *lest*.

I feared lest he **should see** me (or *see*).

They were afraid lest they **should be late (or be late)**.

They worried lest they **should miss** (or **miss**) the train.

**NOTE:** Object clauses introduced by the conjunction **that** take the indicative mood or *may (might) + indefinite infinitive*. The rules of the sequence of tenses should be observed.

I fear that he **doesn't know** their address.

He was afraid that she **would not come**.

I fear that he **may not find** them.

I feared that they **might mention** my name.

4) In adverbial clause of purpose introduced by the conjunctions **lest** As the conjunction **lest** is negative in meaning in adverbial clause of purpose the verb is used in the affirmative form.

We should start early lest we **should be late**.

**NOTE:** Instead of the conjunction **lest** the conjunctions **that, so that, in order that, may** be used. In this case *may (might), can (could) + Indefinite Infinitive* is used. We sent them to the village so that they **could rest** well.

I went to my room so that they **should not disturb** me.

5) In adverbial clauses of condition beginning with **if**. In the principal clause either the indicative mood or the imperative mood is used. The action refers only to the future. The **if**-clause of this type is rendered in Azerbaijan as *işdir, şayət, dimya işidir...* The realization of the action is represented as possible though unlikely.

If you **should happen** to meet him, give him my best regards.

**İşdir əgər onu görsən, məndən ona salant de.**

If I **should have time** tomorrow, I shall call on her.

**Should** anything **happen**, ring me up.

6) In adverbial clause of concession introduced by **though, although, whoever, when, wherever, even, etc.** The action refers to the future. In the principal clause the indicative mood is used. After these conjunctions the Present Subjunctive is also used if the action refers to the future or present.

Though it **should rain** (or it **rain**), we shall have to go.

Whatever he **should say** (or he say) he is wrong, I think.

However it **should be** hot (or **be**), we shall have to continue our work.

7) In attributive clauses modifying such nouns as: order, request, demand, wish, aim, suggestion...

The suggestion that he **should start** at once was approved by everybody.

8) In predicative clauses after the following abstract nouns used as the subject of the principal clause: *order, demand, idea, request*

The suggestion is that we **should try** the matter again.

The order was that we **should discuss** the problem.

**2) The Past Suppositional Mood** is formed by means of the auxiliary verb **should** (*for all persons*) + **perfect infinitive**. It refers the action always to the past. The Past Suppositional Mood is used:

N

1) In subject clauses after the expressions such as: *it is strange, it is natural, it is possible, it is doubtful, it is shame, it is absurd, etc.*

It is doubtful that he **should have read** the book in the original.

It is impossible that they **should have made** such mistakes.

It was impossible that he **should have insulted** you.

It is strange that you **should have forgotten** his promise.

2) In object clauses after the expressions of surprize, pleasure, displeasure, *such as: to be sorry, to be astonished, to be pleased, to be satisfied.*

I am sorry that they **should have thought** so.

He was surprized that they **should have been** so unkind towards her. She was astonished that she **should have said** such things about her.

3) In attributive clauses (but it is not in common use).

The fact that he **should have deceived me** was a shock indeed.

## Chapter VII

### NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB (*The Verbals*)

Non-finite forms of the verb in English are the followings: **the infinitive, the participle, the gerund**. Unlike the finite forms of the verb, they do not express the grammatical categories of person, number or mood.

#### 1. The Infinitive

##### General notion.

Like in Azerbaijani the infinitive in English doesn't distinguish person and number. It simply names the action. The infinitive requires the question.

*What to do?*

*to read* – *oxumaq*

*to take* – *gətirmək*

*to come* – *gəlmək*

In Modern English the infinitive has a double nature: nominal and verbal.

1. The nominal characters of the infinitive.

a) Like a noun the infinitive is used as the subject of a sentence.

*To walk in the open air is useful* – *Açıq havada gəzmək faydalıdır.*

b) Like a noun the infinitive is used as a predicative.

*My wish is to help you* – *Məqsədim sizə kömək etməkdir.*

c) Like a noun the infinitive is used as an object.

*I forgot to ring you up yesterday* – *Mən dünən sizə zəng etməyi unutdum.*

The main difference between two languages is: a) in Azerbaijani the infinitive is declined and it may take the suffix of

possessiveness; b) in English the infinitive doesn't have such properties.

2. The verbal characteristics of the infinitive:

a) The infinitive of transitive verbs can be take a direct object.

*I like **to read books** – Mən kitab oxumağı xoşlayıram.*

b) The infinitive can modified by an adverb.

*I like **to speak slowly** – Mən yavaş danışmağı xoşlayıram.*

c) Like a verb the infinitive has the categories of voice, aspect and order.

In Modern English the infinitive has the following forms:

	Active	Passive
<b>Indefinite infinitive</b>	<i>to take</i>	<i>to be taken</i>
<b>Continuous infinitive</b>	<i>to be taking</i>	–
<b>Perfect infinitive</b>	<i>to have taken</i>	<i>to have been taken</i>
<b>Perfect Continuous infinitive</b>	<i>to have been taking</i>	–

**Indefinite infinitive** denotes an action taking place at the same time with the action of the main verb. It may refer to the present, past or future.

*I **am eager to see** my friend – Mən dostumu görməyə can atıram.*

*I **was eager to see** my friend – Mən dostumu görməyə can atırdım.*

*I **shall be eager to see** my friend – Mən dostumu görməyə can atacağam.*

**Continuous infinitive** denotes an action taking place at the same time with the action of the main verb, but it is an action in progress. The continuous infinitive is also an aspect form.

*I suppose them **to be working** in the garden – Mən onların bağda işləməsinə güman edirəm.*

**The Perfect infinitive** denotes an action taking place before the action of the main verb.

*I am glad **to have translated** the letter – Mən məktubu tərcümə etdiyimiə görə şadam.*

**The Perfect Continuous infinitive** denotes an action which lasted a certain time before the action of the main verb. It is also an aspect form.

*I know them **to have been working** there for two years – Mən onların iki ildir ki, orada işləməsini bilirəm.*

**The Voice distinctions of the infinitive.** The Indefinite and Perfect infinitive of the transitive verb has special forms for the Active and the Passive Voice.

*to write – yazmaq*

*to be written – yazılmaq*

*to love – sevmək*

*to be loved – sevilmək*

*to have written – müəyyən bir vaxta qədər yazmaq*

*to have been written – müəyyən bir vaxta qədər yazılmaq*

The active infinitive points out that the action is directed from the subject.

*I want **to invite** my friend to dinner – Mən dostumu nahara dəvət etmək istəyirəm.*

*I want **to help** my friend – Mən dostuma kömək etmək istəyirəm.*

*I am glad **to have seen** him – Mən şadam ki, onu görmüşəm.*

*I am sorry **not to have invited** him to dinner – Mən təəssüflənirəm ki, onu nahara dəvət etməmişəm.*

The passive infinitive indicates that the action is directed to the subject.

*I want **to be invited** to dinner – Nahara dəvət olunmağımı istəyirəm.*

*I want **to be loved** – Mən istəyirəm ki, məni sevsinlər.*

*I am sorry **not to have been** invited to dinner – Mən təəssüflənirəm ki, məni nahara dəvət etməyiblər (olunmamışam).*

*I am glad **not to have been seen** – Şadam ki, məni görməyiblər.*

In sentences with the construction *there is* the infinitive of some verbs can be active or passive without any change in meaning.

*There is a letter **to send**. There is a letter **to be sent**. – Göndəriləsi (göndərilməli) bir məktub var.*

*There is a book **to read**. There is a book **to be read**. – Oxunası bir kitab var.*



### The use of the infinitive with and without the particle *to*.

The infinitive is usually preceded by the particle *to*: *to read, to speak, to take, to do* etc.

*He wants to read a book – O, kitab oxumaq istəyir.*

*He doesn't like to take this book – O, bu kitabı götürməyi xoşlamır.*

If two or more infinitives are connected by the conjunctions *and, or, to* is used only before the first infinitive.

*She asked the guests to stay and have dinner with her – O, qonaqların qalıb onunla nahar etməsini xahiş etdi.*

*I told them to help the patient or leave the room – Mən onlara ya xəstəyə kömək etməyi və yaxud otağı tərk etməyi dedim.*

But if emphasis or contrast is intended *to* is repeated before each infinitive: *To be or not to be* – that is the question. It was better *to die* than *to be defeated*.

In order to avoid the repetition of the following verbs the particle *to* is often used without the infinitive. In such cases *to* is stressed.

*to want – istəmək*

*to wish – arzu etmək*

*to mean – məna vermək*

*to like – xoşlamaq*

*to try – cəhd etmək*

*to allow – icazə vermək*

*to be going – niyyətində olmaq*

*to have – must*

*I wanted my son to become a doctor but he didn't want to – Mən oğlumun həkim olmasını istəyirdim, lakin o, istəmədi.*

*He is going to read the book, but I am not going to – O, kitabı oxumağa hazırlaşır, lakin mən hazırlaşmıram.*

*They didn't like to go to the station, but we had to – Onlar stansiyaya getməyi xoşlamadılar, lakin biz getməli olduq.*

Still there are case when the infinitive is used without the particle *to*. They are as follows:

1. After auxiliary verbs:

*We don't live in London.*

*He will help us.*

*We shall leave the city.*

2. After modal verbs:

*I must **read** this book.*

*I can **help** you.*

*You **may** take my book.*

**NOTE:** *You ought **to visit** your friend.*

3. After the verbs denoting sense perception.

<i>to see – görmək</i>	<i>to observe – müşahidə etmək</i>
<i>to hear – eşitmək</i>	<i>to feel – hiss etmək</i>
<i>to notice – hiss etmək (görmək)</i>	<i>to watch – baxmaq, müşahidə etmək</i>

*heard*

*saw*

*I watched Tom **play** in the yard*

*felt*

*observed*

*noticed*

**NOTE:** The verb *to be* after the verb *to feel* is used with the particle *to*.

*I felt him **to be** serious – Mən onun ciddi olmasını hiss etdim.*

4. After the verb **to let**:

*We let Tom **go** home – Biz Tomun evə getməsinə icazə verdik.*

*Let them **be** good friends – Qoy (icazə var) onlar yaxşı dost olsunlar.*

5. After the verbs *to make* and *to have*.

*The man made the boy **leave** the garden – Kişi oğlanı bağı tərک etməyə məcbur etdi.*

*We had them **stay** at home – Biz onları evdə qalmağı məcbur etdik.*

6. After the verb *to bid*.

*I bade him **enter** the room – Mən ona otağa daxil olmağı xahiş etdim.*

7. After the following expression: *had better, would rather, would sooner, cannot but, nothing but, cannot choose but*.

*You had better **stay** at home – Yaxşı olar ki, siz evdə qalasanız.*

*We would rather not **do** this – Yaxşı olar ki, biz bunu etməyək.*

*I cannot but **go** there – Mən oraya getməyə bilmirəm.*

8. In sentences of a special type beginning with *why*.

*Why not **go** there? – Nə üçün oraya getməyək?*

## The syntactical functions of the infinitive in the sentence.

The infinitive can be used in different syntactic functions.

### 1. The infinitive as a subject.

The infinitive functioning as a subject may either precede the predicate or follow it. In the latter case it is introduced by the so-called introductory *it*, which is placed at the beginning of the sentence:

1) **To visit her was all that desired.**

2) **It was easy to visit her.**

The sentences with the first structural patterns have the following peculiarities: a) Such sentences are usually in the declarative form. They have no interrogative forms. b) The infinitive is used at the beginning of the sentence and it is not preceded by a secondary part of the sentence. c) In such sentences mostly the compound nominal predicate is used. The predicative may be expressed: by a noun, an adjective, an infinitive.

**To go there was not easy – Oraya getmək asan deyildir.**

**Not to do it was awful – Onu etməmək dəhşətli idi.**

**To see is to believe – Görmək inanmaqdır.**

The sentences with the second structural patterns are more common than the first.

It is	necessary important good useless possible                      to go there. impossible difficult easy natural
Oraya getmək	vacibdir mühümdür yaxşıdır faydasızdır mümkündür çətin asandır təbiidir

2. The infinitive as a predicative.

The subject of such sentences can be expressed only by a limited number of nouns. They are nouns denoting abstract notions: *action, advice, aim, ambition, answer, business, custom, desire, difficulty, duty, function, habit, hope, idea, intention, job, method, need, plan, policy, problem, reason, wish, work* etc.

*My intention is **to help** you – Niyyətim sizə kömək etməkdir.*

*Her plan was **to run** away – Onun planı qaçmaq idi.*

*The difficulty was **to cross** the river – Çətinlik çayı keçmək idi.*

3. The infinitive as a part of a compound verbal predicate.

*They must **know** everything – Onlar hər şeyi bilməlidir.*

*He began **to read** the book – O, kitabı oxumağa başladı.*

4. The infinitive as an object.

*I forgot **to ring** him up – Mən ona zəng etməyi unudtum.*

5. The infinitive as a part of a complex object.

*We felt him **leave** the room.*

*I want him **to come**.*

6. The infinitive as an attribute. It is used after the word it modifies.

*I have a book **to read** – Mənim oxunası (oxunmalı) bir kitabım var.*

*He was the first **to leave** the room.*

*She was the last **to see** us.*

7. The infinitive as an adverbial modifier of purpose.

*We have come here **to study** – Biz buraya oxumağa gəlmişik.*

*We have come here **in order (so as) to study** – Biz buraya oxumaq üçün gəlmişik.*

8. The infinitive as an adverbial modifier of result.

*He is **too young to do** this – O, bu işi etməyə (etmək üçün) olduqca gəncdir.*

*She is old **enough to dance** – O, rəqs etməyə (etmək üçün) kifayət qədər qocadır.*

*They were **so happy to accept** my invitation – Onlar mənim dəvətimi qəbul etməyə (qəbul etmək üçün) çox xoşbəxt idilər.*

9. The infinitive as an adverbial modifier of comparison.

*He speaks as if to know everything – O, elə danışır ki, elə bil ki, hər şeyi bilir.*

10. The infinitive as parenthesis.

*To tell the thuth, he knows about this – Həqiqəti desək, o, bu haqda bilir.*

### **Infinitive constructions.**

There are three constructions with the infinitive in Modern English: **1. The Objective-with-the-infinitive construction. 2. The Subjective infinitive construction. 3. The for-to-infinitive construction.**

*The Objective-with-the-infinitive construction.* The objective with the infinitive is a construction in which the infinitive is in a predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. In the sentence this construction has the function of a complex object.

*I know Tom (him) to live in London – Mən Tomun (onun) Londonda yaşamasını bilirəm.*

**NOTE: What do I know? – Mən nəyi bilirəm?**

The objective with the infinitive construction is used with the following transitive verbs.

1. After the verbs of mental activity.

<i>to think – fikirləşmək</i>	<i>to imagine – təsəvvür etmək</i>
<i>to know – bilmək</i>	<i>to believe – inanmaq</i>
<i>to expect – gözləmək</i>	<i>to consider – hesab etmək və</i>
<i>to find – tapmaq</i>	s.

*think*

*know*

*expect*

*I find*

*imagine*

*believe*

*consider*

***Tom (him) to live in London.***

2. After the verbs of sense perception.

<i>to hear – eşitmək</i> <i>to see – görmək</i> <i>to watch – baxmaq, müşahidə etmək</i>	<i>to feel – hiss etmək</i> <i>to observe – müşahidə etmək</i> <i>to notice – görmək, hiss etmək</i>
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After these verbs the infinitive is used without the particle *to*.

*heard*

*saw*

*I watched Tom (him) play in the yard.*

*felt*

*observed*

*noticed*

3. After the verb *to make*.

*to make somebody do something – bir kəsi nəyisə etməyə məcbur etmək.*

*The man made me leave the room – Kişi məni otağı tərk etməyə məcbur etdi.*

4. After the verbs of wish and intention.

<i>to want – istəmək</i> <i>to wish – arzu etmək</i> <i>to desire – arzu etmək</i> <i>to intend – niyyətində olmaq</i>	<i>to mean – məna vermək</i> <i>to like – xoşlamaq</i> <i>to hate – nifrət etmək</i> <i>to dislike – xoşlamamaq</i>
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*want*

*wish*

*desire*

*I intend Tom (him) to live in London.*

*like*

*hate*

*dislike*

With the verbs expressing *permission, request* and *order*, as *to allow, to permit, to let, to order, to command, to force, to induce, to request, to persuade* etc.

*He ordered the box to be taken at once.*

*My friend persuaded them to stay in the room.*



**The Subjective infinitive construction.** The subjective infinitive construction is a construction in which the infinitive is in a predicat relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case. This construction is used in the passive voice and has the function of a complex subject. **The man was seen to enter the room** – *Kişinin otağa daxil olması göründü.*

**NOTE: What was seen?** – *Nə göründü?*

The Subjective infinitive is used:

1. With verbs denoting mental activity: *to think, to know, to expect, to believe, to consider, to imagine* və s.

*thought  
known  
expected*

**Tom (he) is found to live in London.**

*imagined  
believed  
considered*

2. With verbs denoting sense perception: *to see, to hear, to feel, to notice, to observe, to watch* və s.

These verbs are used with the particle *to*.

*seen  
heard*

**Tom (he) is observed to play in London.**

*watched  
noticed  
felt*

3. With the verb *to make*. *To make* is used with the particle *to*.

**Tom (he) was made to leave the room.**

4. With the verbs *to say, to report*.

**Tom (he) is said to be a good pupil** – *Tomun (onun) yaxşı şagird olması deyilir.*

**The delegation was reported to arrive in Baki at ten** – *Nümayəndənin saat onda Bakıya çatması xəbər verildi.*

The Subjective Infinitive Construction is also used with the following expressions: *to be likely*, *to be sure*, *to be certain* və s.

**Tom (he) is likely to come.**

**Tom (he) is sure to come.**

**Tom (he) is certain to come.**

With the following verbs the subjective infinitive construction is used in the active voice.

*to seem* – *görünmək*

*to appear* – *peyda olmaq*

*to happen* – *baş vermək*

*to chance* – *fürsəti olmaq*

*to prove* – *sübut etmək*

*to turn out* – *aşkar olmaq*

**Tom (he) seems to know French** (*It seems that Tom (he) knows French*) – *Görünür ki, Tom (o) Fransızca bilir.*

**Tom (he) turned out to be a good student** – *Tomun (onun) yaxşı tələbə olması aşkar oldu.*

The subjective infinitive construction is typical of literary or formal style. It is also wide used in newspaper articles.

**The for-to-infinitive construction.** In the *for-to-infinitive* construction the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case introduced by the preposition *for*. This construction is used in the following syntactic functions.

1. Complex subject.

**For him to go there is necessary** – *Onun üçün oraya getmək vacibdir.*

**It is very easy for me to work here** – *Mənim üçün burada işləmək çox asandır.*

2. Complex predicative.

**The best thing is for the boy to leave them** – *Oğlan üçün ən yaxşı şey onları tərk etməkdir.*

3. Complex object.

*They waited **for the guests to come** – Onlar qonaqların gəlməsini gözlədilər.*

4. Complex attribute.

*This is the only thing **for us to do** – Bu, bizim edəsi (görəsi) olduğumuz yeganə şeydir.*

5. Complex adverbial modifier of purpose.

*He opened the door **for me to enter the room** – O, mənim otağa daxil olmağım üçün qapını açdı.*

6. Complex adverbial modifier of result.

*Two minutes was enough **for us to understand each other** – Bizim bir-birimizi başa düşməyimiz üçün iki dəqiqə kifayətdir.*

## 2. The Participle

### General notion.

There are two participles in Modern English: a) Participle I – P I; b) Participle II – P II.

**Participle I.** Participle I is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb. The following spelling rules should be observed:

1. If a verb ends in a mute **e**, the mute **e** is dropped before adding the suffix *-ing*: to give – giving, to close – closing.

2. If a verb ends in a consonant preceded by a vowel rendering a short stressed sound, the final consonant is doubled before adding the suffix *-ing*: to run – running, to forget – forgetting, to admit – admitting (qəbul etmək), to sit – sitting.

3. A final **l** is doubled: to travel – travelling, to expel (qovmaq, xaric etmək) – expelling.

4. The verb *to die*, *to lie* and *to tie* form Participle I in the following way: *dying*, *lying*, *tying*.

**NOTE:** A final **y** never changes before adding the suffix *-ing*: to study – studying, to play – playing, to deny (danmaq) – denying.

For the formation of Participle II see page \_\_\_\_\_.

The Participle has a verbal and an adjectival or adverbial character.

Like an adjective Participle I is used as an attribute.

*The boy **playing** chess is my brother – Şahmat oynayan oğlan mənim qardaşımdır.*

Like an adverb P I is used as an adverbial modifier.

a) adverbial modifier of time:

***Coming** home I met her. When did I meet her?*

b) adverbial modifier of cause:

***Being** ill I couldn't go there. Why couldn't I go there?*

c) adverbial modifier of manner:

*They sat **talking**. How did they sit?*

P I has the following verbal properties.

a) P I of the transitive verb can take a direct object.

***Reading** the book, I listened to the music.*

b) P I may be used with an adverb.

***Speaking** loudly, he left the room.*

c) Like a verb P I has voice and order categories. It has the following forms:

	<b>Active</b>	<b>Passive</b>
Indefinite	<i>taking</i>	<i>being taken</i>
Perfect	<i>having taken</i>	<i>having been taken</i>

The tense notion of P I is relative. It depends on the tense of the main verb.

**P I indefinite** denotes an action taking place at the same time with the action of the main verb.

***Having** a lot of time I can help you.*

**P I perfect** denotes an action taking place before the action of the main verb.

***Having written** the letter I went out – Məktubu yazandan sonra mən bayıra çıxdım.*

P I of transitive verbs have active and passive forms.

*Translating the letter he listened to us. – Məqaləni tərcümə edərək o, bizə qulaq asdı.*

*Being left alone he began to cry. – Tənha qaldığına görə o, ağlamağa başladı.*

*Having done the translation he went away. – Tərcüməni edəndən sonra o, getdi.*

*Having been wounded, he couldn't go there. – Yaralandığına görə, o, oraya gedə bilmədi.*

### **Syntactical functions of Participle I and Participle II.**

P I is used in the following syntactical functions:

1. As an attribute. In this function P I either precedes (a) or follows (b) the word it modifies.

a) P I as a prepositive attribute is used alone.

*He looked at the **crying** child – O, ağlayan uşağa baxdı.*

*We saw a **barking** dog in the street – Biz küçədə hürən it gördük.*

b) P I as a post-positive attribute has one or more accompanying words.

*She came up to the man **sitting** on the sofa – O, divanın üstündə oturan kişiylə yaxınlaşdı.*

*The boy **running** is Tom – Qaçan oğlan Tomdur.*

P I used as a post-positive attribute is synonymous to an attributive clause.

*The boy **playing** in the yard is my son.*

*The boy **who is playing** in the yard is my son.*

The use of an attributive clause is more conversational

2. As an adverbial modifier of time.

***Coming** home (when I was coming home) I met my old friend.*

In this function P I is often preceded by the conjunctions *when* or *while*.

*You may choose new words **when** (**while**) reading this book.*

P I of the verb **to be** is not used as an adverbial modifier of time. The combination *Mən tələbə olanda* may be rendered in two ways:

***When a student** I lived in London.*

**When I was a student** I lived in London.

3. As an adverbial modifier of cause.

**Being ill** (as I was ill) I couldn't go there.

**Not knowing** (as I didn't know) his address I couldn't find him.

4. As an adverbial modifier of manner.

He sat smoking under the tree.

5. As an adverbial modifier of comparison with the conjunctions *as if, as though*.

He speaks about the man as **if knowing** everything.

6. As a predicative.

His answer is **surprising**.

The book is **amusing**.

7. As a part of a complex object.

We saw them **crossing** the street.

8. As a parenthesis.

Generally **speaking**, he is not a good man.

**Participle II.** Unlike all other verbals, P II one form, i.e. it is unchangable. P II of transitive verb has a passive meaning. For the formation of P II see page \_\_\_\_\_.

*a broken cup – sındırılmış fincan*

*the news published – çap olunmuş xəbər*

P II is used in the following syntactic functions:

1. As **an attribute**. P II may either (a) precede of (b) follow the word it modifies.

(a) *He was standing behind the **locked** door – O, qıfillanmış qapının arxasında dayanmışdı.*

(b) *We live in the house **built** in 1996 – Biz 1996-cı ildə tikilmiş evdə yaşayırıq.*

As an addverbial modifier P II is usually introduced by the conjunctions *when, while, if, as if, as though*, etc.

2. As an adverbial modifier of time.

**When asked** he didn't answer – *Soruşulanda o, cavab vermədi.*

3. As an adverbial modifier of condition.



*He never went to the party **unless invited**– Dəvət olunmadan o, heç vaxt qonaqlığa getmirdi.*

4. As an adverbial modifier of concession.

***Though exhausted** by the rain he went on working – Yağışdan yorulmasına baxmayaraq o, işini davam etdirdi.*

P II in its adverbial function belongs to literary or formal style.

5. As a predicative.

*The door on the left is **closed** – Soldakı qapı bağlıdır.*

6. As a part of a complex object.

*I heard my name **mentioned** – Mən adımın çəkilməsini eşitdim.*

### **Participial Constructions.**

In Modern English we find four constructions with the Participle:

**1. The Objective Participial Construction. 2. The Subjective Participial Construction. The Complex Subject. 3. The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction. 4. The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.**

*The Objective Participial Construction.* This construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case + P I or P II. It has the function of a complex object and is used with the following verbs.

1. With the verbs of sense perception: *to see, to hear, to notice, to observe, to watch, to feel.*

*heard*

*watched*

*observed*

*I felt*

*noticed*

*saw*

***Tom (him) playing in the yard.***

As is known, the infinitive can also be found in this construction.

*I heard **Tom (him) play** in the yard.*

The infinitive is used for a completed action, while the participle is used to show the action in progress.

With the verbs of sense perception P II may also be used.

*I head **my name mentioned** – Mən adımın çəkildiyini eşitdim.*

*We saw **the luggage weighed** – Biz baqajın çəkildiyini gördük.*

P II used in the same construction has a passive meaning.

2. With the verbs of wish and desire: *to want, to wish, to desire* etc.

*I want **it done** at once – Mən onun dərhal edilməsini istəyirəm.*

3. With the verb *to have* and *to get*.

*I had **my shoes repaired yesterday** – Mən dünən ayaqqabılarımı təmir etdirdim.*

*I had **my hair cut** 2 days ago – İki gün əvvəl mən saçımı kəsdirdim.*

*He got **his room cleaned** yesterday – O, otağını dünən təmizlətdirdi.*

The interrogative and negative forms are formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to do*.

*Where did he have **his car repaired**? – O, maşınının harada təmir etdirdi?*

*I didn't have **my photograph taken** yesterday – Mən dünən şəkil çəkdirmədim.*

**The Subjective Participial Construction.** This construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case + P I, It is used in the function of a complex subject with the verbs: *to see, to hear, to feel, to observe, to notice, to watch*. It is also used in the Passive voice.

*She was heard **singing in the next room** – Onun o biri otaqda oxuması eşidildi.*

This construction is mostly used in literary or scientific writing and in news stories.

**The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction.** The peculiarity of this construction is that it has a subject of its own expressed by a noun in the common case (or more rarely by the pronouns *it* or *this*). The second component is expressed by P I or P II. It is used as an adverbial modifier of:

1. Time.

*The book having been read, she gave it me.*

*After the book had been read, she gave it to me.*

2. Cause.

*The river being so deep, they couldn't cross it.*

*As the river was so deep, they couldn't cross it.*

3. Condition.

*Weather permitting, we shall go for a walk.*

*If the weather permits, we shall go for a walk.*

4. Manner.

*She walked away, tears coming down her face.*

In this construction the participle may be omitted.

*Dinner over, they went to the park.*

*He entered the room, his cap in his hand.*

*He ran away, a lamp in his hand.*

*The days went by, each finer than the last.*

**The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction.**

Sometimes absolute participle construction is used with the preposition *with*. That's why it is called the prepositional absolute participial construction.

*The man sat under the tree, with the cigar being in his mouth.*

*The boy listened to the radio with his hands resting on table.*

### 3. The Gerund

#### General notion.

As is known there is no gerund in Azerbaijani. The gerund as P I is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb, that's why from morphological point of view the gerund coincides in form with P I. The main differentiation between the gerund and the participle is determined in syntactical level.

P I has adjectival, adverbial and verbal characteristics but the gerund has nominal and verbal properties.

The nominal characteristics of the gerund are as follows:

1. The gerund can function as a subject, object and predicative.

**Running in the open air is useful** – *Açıq havada qaçmaq faydalıdır.*

*I enjoy **swimming*** – *Mən üzməkdən zövq alıram.*

*My aim is **mastering** English* – *Mənim məqsədim ingilis dilinə yiyələnməkdir.*

P I is never used in these functions.

2. The gerund can be preceded by a preposition.

*I am fond **of** **playing** chess* – *Mən şahmat oynamağı xoşlayıram.*

P I is never used with a preposition.

3. The gerund can be preceded by a possessive pronoun or a noun in the possessive case but P I cannot.

*I enjoy **Mary's** **singing*** – *Mən Merinin mahnı oxumasından zövq alıram.*

***His** coming here every day makes me angry* – *Onun hər gün bura gəlişi məni hirsələndirir.*

The verbal characteristics of the gerund are the same as those of the participle.

1. The gerund of the transitive verb takes a direct object.

*She likes **reading** stories* – *O, hekayə oxumağı xoşlayır.*

2. The gerund can be modified by an adverb.

*The child began **crying** bitterly.*

3. The gerund has the categories of voice and order.

	Active	Passive
Indefinite	<i>taking</i>	<i>being taken</i>
Perfect	<i>having taken</i>	<i>having been taken</i>

The tense notion of the gerund is relative. It depends on the tense of the main verb.

**The Indefinite gerund** denotes an action taking place at the same time with the action of the main verb.

*She was never tired of **talking** to me about her past.*

**The perfect gerund** denotes an action taking place before the action of the main verb.

*He didn't remember **having been** in that room.*

*He denied **having seen** her.*

The gerund of the transitive verb can be used in the active and passive forms.

*I hate **lying** and **being lied to** – Mən aldatmağa və aldanmağa nifrət edirəm.*

*He doesn't remember **being taken** to London – O, Londona aparıldığını xatırlamır.*

### **The use of the gerund.**

There are a number of verbs which can take either an infinitive or a gerund.

1. The following verbs take the gerund: *to avoid (kənar etmək), to deny (danmaq), to enjoy (zövq almaq), to excuse (üzr istəmək), to fancy (təsəvvür etmək), to finish (qurtarmaq), to forgive (bağışlamaq), to give up (tərgitmək), to go on (davam etmək), to keep on (davam etmək), to mind (etiraz etmək), to put off (təxirə salmaq), to postpone (təxirə salmaq) etc*

*He **denied having seen** them – O, onları gördüyünü dandı.*

*They **went on talking** – Onlar söhbət etməyi davam etdilər.*

***Put off going** there – Ora getməyi təxirə sal.*

2. The infinitive is never followed by an infinitive. Phrasal verbs are followed only by a gerund: *to think of (fikirləşmək), to agree to (razılaşmaq), to complain of (şikayətlənmək), to persist in (təkid etmək), to depend on (asılı olmaq), to insist on (təkid etmək), to object to (etiraz etmək), to prevent from (mane olmaq), to rely on (bel bağlamaq), to speak of (danışmaq), to succeed in ((nail olmaq), to suspect of (şübhələnmək), to thank for (təşəkkür etmək), to think of (fikirləşmək) və s.*

*You may **rely on my coming** – Siz mənim gəlməyimə bel bağlaya bilərsiniz.*

***Thank you for helping** me – Köməyinə görə sağ ol.*

3. Predicative prepositional phrases are also followed by a gerund: *to be aware of (aşkar olmaq), to be busy in (məşğul olmaq), to be fond of (xoşlamaq), to be pleased at (razı qalmaq), to be*



*proud of (fəxr etmək), to be sure of (əmin olmaq), to be surprised at (təəccüblənmək) və s.*

*I am fond of playing chess – Mən şahmat oynamağı xoşlayıram.*

*He was not pleased at my coming – O, mənim gəlişimdən razı deyildi.*

### **The gerund and the infinitive.**

As has been mentioned a number of verbs can take either an infinitive or a gerund. But there is a slight difference of meaning. The infinitive refers to a specific occasion of a specific instance, whereas the gerund refers to something that is more general.

*We prefer to go by air (konkret səyahət nəzərdə tutulur).*

*We prefer going by air (ümumiyyətlə səyahət nəzərdə tutulur).*

*I like climbing (ümumiyyətlə)*

*I like to climb the top of this mountain (konkret şəraitdə).*

*I hate smoking (ümumiyyətlə).*

*I hate to smoke now (konkret şəraitdə).*

After *to like, to love, to hate, to regret, to prefer* and *to remember* the gerund is usually used for past actions and the infinitive for future.

*I remember visiting them – Mən onlara baş çəkdiyimi xatırlayıram.*

*Remember to visit him – Ona baş çəkməyi unutma (xatırla).*

*To stop* meaning *cease (dayanmaq)* must be followed by the gerund, but **stop** meaning *halt (dayandırmaq)* can be followed by an infinitive of purpose.

*He stopped reading the book.*

*O, kitab oxumağı dayandırdı.*

*He stopped to read the book (He stopped in order to read the book).*

*O, kitab oxumaq üçün dayandı.*

After *to allow* the gerund is used as an indirect object.



*He doesn't allow smoking in his study (Smoking is not allowed)*  
– *O, kabinetində papiros çəkməyə icazə vermir (papiros çəkməyə icazə verilmir).*

After *to allow* the infinitive is used if there is an indirect personal object.

*He doesn't allow them to smoke in his study.*

In the following cases only the infinitive is used:

1. When the finite verb is in the continuous form:

*They are beginning to play.*

2. With the verbs of *understanding and knowing*:

*She began to understand how to live.*

3. When the subject denotes a thing:

*The clock began to strike.*

### **The gerundial construction.**

When associated with a noun or a pronoun, the gerund forms the gerundial construction. The nominal element may denote a person or a thing. It is expressed in different ways.

1. If it denotes a thing, it is expressed by the noun in the common case or the pronoun *it, this, that*.

*I don't know about the train leaving at 6.*

*He didn't go away without that being done.*

2. If it denotes a person the noun is used in the possessive case or the possessive pronoun. It is typical of formal English.

*I like Tom singing. I like her singing.* – *Mən Tomun oxumasını xoşlayıram. Mən onun oxumasını xoşlayıram.*

There are cases when the first element of the construction is expressed by the noun in the common case or the pronoun in the objective case which is typical of spoken English.

*I like Mary singing. I like him singing.*

*Mən Merinin oxumasını xoşlayıram. Mən onun oxumasını xoşlayıram.*

## The syntactic functions of the gerund and gerundial construction.

The gerund and gerundial construction are used in the following syntactical functions.

1. As a subject.

*Walking in the open air is useful (sadə mübtəda).*

The gerund as a subject may also stand in postposition in sentences with the introductory **it** and **there**.

*It is interesting reading funny books.*

*There is no denying the fact.*

*There is no knowing what may happen.*

*There is no use doing it.*

*Mary's (her) coming here every day is necessary (mürəkkəb mübtəda).*

2. As a predicative.

*My aim is helping him.*

*The man was against his coming.*

3. As a part of a compound verbal predicate.

*They began discussing the book.*

4. As a direct object after the following verbs: *to avoid, to deny, to enjoy, to excuse, to fancy, to forgive, to mind, to postpone, to like, to dislike, to need, to suggest* etc.

*Try to avoid making mistakes (sadə tamamlıq).*

*I don't mind Tom's joining us (mürəkkəb tamamlıq).*

5. As a prepositional object after the following combinations: *to be fond of, to be good at, to be interested in, to be pleased at, to be proud of, to be sure of, to be tired of, to be surprised at, to be used to, to depend on, to be aware of* etc.

*I am not used to smoking (sadə sözönlü tamamlıq).*

*Everything depends on his coming (mürəkkəb sözönlü tamamlıq).*

6. As an attribute after the following nouns: *habit, chance, idea, method, manner, way, custom, hope, risk, feeling, sound, difficulty* etc.

*There is a chance **of seeing** him (sadə təyin).*

*I like the method **of his teaching** (mürəkkəb təyin).*

7. As an adverbial modifier.

(1) As an adverbial of time: *after, before, on, in, at.*

***Before crossing** the street stop and look around (sadə zaman zərfliyi).*

***After his coming** we shall begin our work (mürəkkəb zaman zərfliyi).*

(2) As an adverbial modifier of manner.

*He left the room **without making a sound** (sadə tərzi-hərəkət zərfliyi).*

*The plural form is formed by adding **s or es** (sadə tərzi-hərəkət zərfliyi).*

*I did my homework **without his helping** (mürəkkəb tərzi-hərəkət zərfliyi).*

(3) As an adverbial modifier of cause.

*The man was arrested **for his having killed** his son (mürəkkəb səbəb zərfliyi).*

*He was very sad **for being left** alone (sadə səbəb zərfliyi).*

(4) As an adverbial modifier of purpose.

*The room has been cleaned **for their living** together (mürəkkəb məqsəd zərfliyi).*

*They went there **for helping** him (sadə məqsəd zərfliyi).*

(5) As an adverbial modifier of concession.

***In spite of being tired**, he finished his work. (sadə güzəşt zərfliyi)*

***In spite of his being busy**, he could help me. (mürəkkəb güzəşt zərfliyi)*

(6) As an adverbial modifier of condition.

*He never went there **without being invited**. (sadə şərt zərfliyi)*

### **The gerund and Participle I.**

Though the gerund and the participle have the same morphological form there are the following difference between them:

-the difference between the two lies in their non-verbal characteristics: a) the gerund has nominal characters; b) the participle has adjectival and adverbial characteristics.

-in the function of an attribute and of an adverbial modifier both the gerund and the participle may be used but the gerund in these functions is always preceded by a preposition.

-the difference between the two is also to be found in the nominal tendencies of the gerund and the adjectival tendencies of Participle I.

-when used as an adverbial modifier, the gerund is more varied in its application than the participle because it is used with different prepositions.

Only the gerund is possible when the starting or the final point of the action is meant.

*She has never been at his native village **since leaving** it in 1996.*

The participle and the gerund are interchangeable when used as adverbials of time.

***On discussing** the book, we touched upon some problems (gerund).*

***Discussing** the book, we touched upon some problems (Participle I).*

***After discussing** the book we went home (cerund).*

***Having discussed** the book we went home (Participle I).*

## Chapter VIII

### THE ADVERB

The adverb is a part of speech characterized by the following features:

1. Lexico-grammatical meaning of a quality of actions, states or qualities.
2. The category of the degrees of comparison.
3. Typical stem-building affixes, such as *-ly*, *-ways*, *-wise*, *-ward(s)*, *a-* etc.
4. Its combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with nouns.
5. The function of adverbial modifier, sometimes other functions.

#### 1. Classification of adverbs according to their lexical meanings

According to their meaning adverbs fall under the following groups: 1. *Adverbs of time*. 2. *Adverbs of place*. 3. *Adverbs of manner*. 4. *Adverbs of degree*. 5. *Adverbs of frequency*. 6. *Adverbs of cause*.

**Adverbs of time:** *now – indi*, *yesterday – dünən*, *today – bu gün*, *tomorrow – sabah*, *then – onda*, *before – əvvəl*, *ever – heç*, *just – indicə* etc. Adverbs of time show the time of the action.

*Have you **ever** been to London?* – *Siz heç Londonda olmusunuzmu?*

*I haven't met him **before*** – *Mən əvvəl onu görməmişəm.*

*This happened **yesterday*** – *Bu günən baş verdi.*

**Adverbs of place:** *here – bura*, *buraya*, *burada*, *there – ora*, *oraya*, *orada*, *far – uzaq*, *down – aşağı*, *up – yuxarı*, *outside – bayır*, *bayırda* etc. Adverbs of place show the place of the action.

*He went **down** – O, aşağı getdi.*

*We saw them **there** – Biz onları orada gördük.*

**Adverbs of manner:** *quickly, attentively, distinctly, fast – tez, well – yaxşı, hard – səylə, ciddi etc.* Adverbs of manner show the manner of the action.

*He listened to me **attentively** – O, diqqətlə mənə qulaq asdı.*

*He works **hard** at his English – O, ingilis dili üzərində səylə (ciddi) çalışır.*

**Adverbs of degree:** *very – lap, nearly – təxminən, hardly – güclə, too – olduqca, quite – tamamilə, little – az, much – çox etc.* Adverbs of degree show the degree of the action.

*He reads **much** – O, çox işləyir.*

*It is **too** late – Olduqca gedir.*

*Very* is widely used as an adverb of degree. It can modify the adjective, the adverb and Participle II.

*He is **very** busy – O, çox (lap) məşğuldur.*

*I see him **very often** – Mən onu çox (lap) tez-tez görürəm.*

*He works **very much** – O, lap çox işləyir.*

*He was **very surprised** when I saw him – O, məni görəndə çox təəccübləndi.*

**Adverbs of frequency:** *often – tez-tez, seldom – nadir hallarda, ever – heç, never – heç vaxt, always – həmişə, occasionally – təsadüfən, etc.* They show the frequency of the action.

*I **often** visit my grandfather – Mən tez-tez babama baş çəkirəm.*

*We see each other **occasionally** – Biz təsadüfən bir-birimizi görürük.*

**Adverbs of cause:** *therefore – bu səbəbə, buna görə, accordingly – müvafiq olaraq, bu yolla, consequently – bu səbəbdən, nəticə etibarı ilə hence – bu səbəbdən, buna görə, etc.* These adverbs show the cause of the action.

*We missed the bus, therefore we were late. – Biz avtobusa çatmadıq, **ona görə də/bu səbəbdən də** gecikdik.*

*He has neither ear nor voice **hence** he cannot sing – Onun nə musiqi duyumu, nə də səsi var, **buna görə də** o, oxuya bilmir.*



*My car broke down, consequently I arrived rather later – Mənim maşınım sındı, bu səbəbdən də mən xeyli gec gəldim.*

Within the adverbs there is found another group of adverbs. These adverbs are used for different purposes. According to their meaning and function they are divided into three groups: 1. *Interrogative adverbs.* 2. *Conjunctive adverbs.* 3. *Relative adverbs.*

**Interrogative adverbs:** *where – hara, haraya, harada, when – nə zaman, why – niyə, nə üçün, how – necə* etc. These adverbs are used to introduce special questions.

*Where do you live? – Siz harada yaşayırsınız?*

*When does he go there? – O, nə zaman oraya gedir?*

*Why are you crying? – Siz niyə ağlayırsınız?*

*How do you go home? – Siz evə necə gedirsiniz?*

**Conjunctive adverbs:** *when, where, how, why.* These adverbs are used to introduce subject, predicative and object clauses. In such cases they have two functions: a) they connect the subordinate clause to the principal one; b) they have an independent function in the subordinate clause they introduce.

*Where he lives is not clear – Onun harada yaşaması aydın deyil (mübtəda budaq cümləsi).*

*I don't know where he lives – Mən bilmirəm o, harada yaşayır (tamamlıq budaq cümləsi).*

*The question is where he lives – Məsələ budur o, harada yaşayır. (predikativ budaq cümləsi)*

**Relative adverbs:** *where, when, why, how* These adverbs are used to introduce attributive clauses.

*I don't know the place where Tom lives – Mən Tomun yaşadığı yeri tanımıram.*

*I can't remember the day when Tom left London – Mən Tomun Londonu tərk etdiyi günü xatırlamıram.*

*I don't know the reason why Tom left London – Mən Tomun nə üçün Londonu tərk etdiyini bilmirəm.*

## 2. Classification of adverbs according to their morphological structure

1. Simple adverbs. 2. Derived adverbs. 3. Compound adverbs. 4. Composite adverbs.

**Simple adverbs** are adverbs which have neither prefixes nor suffixes: *soon – tezliklə, fast – tez, cold, here – bura, buraya, burada, then – onda* etc.

**Derivative adverbs** are adverbs which have derivative, prefixes and suffixes, such as: *-ly, -ways, -wise, -wards, a-* etc.

<i>easy – easily</i>	<i>week – weekly</i>	<i>side – side ways – yandan, böyükdən</i>
<i>nice – nicely</i>	<i>bad – badly</i>	<i>clock – clockwise – saat əqrəbi</i>
<i>strong – strongly</i>	<i>quick – quickly</i>	<i>istiqamətdə</i>
		<i>back – backward – geri</i>
		<i>shore – ashore – sahilə</i>

A considerable number of adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *-ly*. But we cannot form adverbs from adjectives ending in *-ly*, such as *mainly – kişiyana, silly – axmaq, gic, fatherly – ataya xas olan, lovely – xoş, xoşagələn, lively – dəcəl, nadinc, lonely – tək, yalqız, likely – oxşar, uyğun* etc.

An adverbial phrase is used in this case instead of an adverb – *in a silly way, in a friendly manner* etc.

Some other adverbs have two forms – the adjective form and the form in *-ly*. In most cases the two forms differ in meaning.

*He came **late** – O, gec gəldi.*

*We haven't seen him **lately** – Biz **bu yaxınlarda** onu görməmişik.*

*We worked **hard** – Biz **səylə (ciddi)** işlədik.*

*We **hardly** worked – Biz **güclə** işlədik.*

**NOTE:** There are a few adverbs and adjectives in English which have the same form in *-ly*: *daily – gündəlik, weekly – həftəlik, monthly – aylıq* etc.

*It was his **daily** duty – Bu onun **gündəlik** vəzifəsi idi.*

*He visited us **daily** – O, **gündə (gündəlik)** bizə baş çəkirdi.*

**Compound adverbs** are adverbs built from two or more stems: *sometimes* (*bəzən*), *nowhere* (*heç harada*), *everywhere* (*hər yerdə*) etc.

*He stepped **backward** – O bir addım geri durdu.*

*He looked **sideways** at me – O, mənə yandan (**çəpəki**) baxdı.*

*They went **ashore** – Onlar sahilə getdilər.*

**Composite adverbs** are adverbs which consist of two words: *at once* – *dərhal*, *at last* – *nəhayət*, *in vain* – *yersiz* etc.

As is already mentioned some adverbs have the same form as the corresponding adjective. Here belong: *long*, *loud*, *near*, *hard*, *fast*, *late*, *early*, *slow*, *little* etc.

If the given word modifies the noun then it is an adjective, but if it refers to the verb then it is an adverb.

*What **hard** work it is – Bu nə çətin işdir (sifət).*

*We must work **hard** at our English – Biz ingilis dili üzərində səylə çalışmalıyıq (zərf).*

*It was a **fast** train – Bu sürət qatarı idi (sifət).*

*He runs **fast** – O, cəld (bərk) qaçır.*

*It was **early** spring – Erkən yaz idi (sifət).*

*We get up **early** – Biz erkən yuxudan dururuq (zərf).*

But in a few cases both forms can be used without any difference in meaning.

*I bought it **cheap** (**cheaply**). He talked **loud** (**loudly**).*

**NOTE:** Care should be taken to remember that after the link verbs we use an adjective as predicative: *to be* (*olmaq*), *to feel* (*hiss etmək*), *to seem* (*görünmək*), *to remain* (*qalmaq*), *to turn* (*dönmək*) etc.

*She looked **happy** (look link verb, **happy** adjective) – O, şən görünürdü.*

*She looked **angry** – O, hirsli görünürdü.*

*He is feeling **bad**. She felt **happy**. The apple tastes **bitter**.*

### 3. The category of degrees of comparison of adverbs

Some adverbs of manner, degree and frequency have degrees of comparison. Like adjectives these adverbs have also three degrees: **positive, comparative, superlative.**

**The positive degree** is the plain stem of an adverb: *soon, fast, late, high, loud, easily, nicely* etc.

The comparative and superlative degrees are formed in two ways:

- a) by adding the suffixes *-er* and *-est* (synthetical forms);
- b) by using *more* and *most* before the adverb (analytic forms).

Adverbs of one syllable add *-er* in the comparative and *-est* in the superlative: *soon – sooner, fast – faster, long – longer.*

The adverb *early* forms degrees of comparison as one syllable adverb: *early – earlier – earliest*

All two and more than two syllable adverbs form their degrees of comparison by means of *more* and *most*.

*easily – more easily – most easily*  
*beautifully – more beautifully – most beautifully*

Some adverbs have irregular forms for comparison:

*well – better – best*

*badly – worse – worst*

*late – later – last*

*far – farther – farthest (of distance only)*

*farther – furthest (used of distance, time and in an abstract sense)*

Notice the use of degrees of comparison of adjectives and adverbs.

The Adjective	The Adverb
Positive degree	Positive degree
<i>It is a <b>good</b> book.</i>	<i>He speaks English <b>well</b>.</i>
<i>O, yaxşı kitabdır.</i>	<i>O, ingiliscə yaxşı danışır.</i>
<i>It is an <b>interesting</b> book.</i>	<i>He is singing <b>beautifully</b>.</i>
<i>O, maraqlı kitabdır.</i>	<i>O, gözəl (qəşəng) oxuyur.</i>

Comparative degree	Comparative degree
<i>This book is <b>better</b> than that one.</i>	<i>He speaks English <b>better</b> than me.</i>
<i>Bu kitab o birisindən yaxşıdır.</i>	<i>O, ingiliscə məndən yaxşı danışır.</i>
<i>This book is <b>more interesting</b> than that one.</i>	<i>He is singing <b>more beautifully</b> than me.</i>
<i>Bu kitab o birisindən maraqlıdır.</i>	<i>O, məndən gözəl (qəşəng) oxuyur.</i>
Superlative degree	Superlative degree
<i>It is the <b>best</b> book.</i>	<i>He speaks English <b>best</b> of all.</i>
<i>O, ən yaxşı kitabdır.</i>	<i>O, ingiliscə hamıdan yaxşı danışır.</i>
<i>This is the <b>most interesting</b> book.</i>	<i>He sings <b>most beautifully</b> of all.</i>
<i>Bu, ən maraqlı kitabdır.</i>	<i>O, hamıdan gözəl (qəşəng) oxuyur.</i>
The quality of two objects are the same	The quality of two actions are the same
<i>This book is <b>as interesting</b> as that one.</i>	<i>He speaks English <b>as well</b> as I do.</i>
<i>Bu kitab o birisi kimi maraqlıdır.</i>	<i>O, ingiliscə mənim kimi yaxşı danışır.</i>
The quality of two objects are not the same	The quality of two actions are not the same
<i>This book is not <b>so (as) good</b> as that one.</i>	<i>He doesn't speak English <b>as well</b> as I do.</i>
<i>Bu kitab o birisi kimi yaxşı deyil.</i>	<i>O, ingiliscə mənim kimi yaxşı danışmır.</i>

#### 4. Syntactic properties of the adverb

##### 1. Patterns of combinability:

1) Adverbs combine mostly with verbs:

*to speak **well** – yaxşı danışmaq*

*to run **fast** – bərk qaçmaq*

2) Adverbs combine with adjectives:

***very** nice – çox yaşlı*

***too** big – olduqca böyük*

***really** pretty – həqiqətən qəşəng*

3) Adverbs may also combine with nouns:

*the room **upstairs** – yuxarı mərtəbədəki otaq*

*the man **outside** – bayırdakı kişi*

As adverbs modify words of different classes, they accordingly occupy different positions in the sentence. In comparison with other parts of speech, adverbs may be considered as the most movable words.

## 2. Syntactic functions:

1) Adverbs may functions as: a) an adverbial modifier of time; b) an adverbial modifier of place; c) an adverbial modifier of manner; d) an adverbial modifier of degree.

(a) **Then** I was ten – *Onda mənim on yaşım var idi.*

(b) You can find that book **everywhere** – *Siz o kitabı hər yerdə tapa bilərsiniz.*

(c) She speaks English **well** – *O, ingiliscə yaxşı danışır.*

(d) She knows English **well enough**. – *O, ingiliscə kifayət qədər yaxşı bilir.*

Some adverbs may modify different parts of speech, for instance *enough*. When it modifies the adjective and adverb, it is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of degree. But when it is used before the noun, then it is used as an attribute.

*The book is interesting **enough*** – *Kitab olduqca (kifayət qədər) maraqlıdır (af.m.of d.).*

*The boy runs fast **enough*** – *Oğlan olduqca (kifayət qədər) cəld (bərk) qaçır (af.m.of d.).*

*He has got **enough** money* – *Onun kifayət qədər (lazımı) pulu yoxdur (attr.).*

Such cases often occur in English.

2) Some adverbs may be used as an attribute.

*the **upstairs** room, the room **upstairs*** – *yuxarı mərhələdəki otaq*

*the **above** example, the example **above*** – *yuxarıdakı nümunə*

*my friend **here*** – *mənim buradakı dostum*

*the building **opposite*** – *qarşıdakı bina*

*the **then** Prime Minister* – *ondakı (keçmiş) baş nazir*

*the **now** generation* – *indiki nəsl*



## Chapter IX

### STRUCTURAL PARTS OF SPEECH

As the article is closely connected with the noun it has been looked through after the noun. The structural parts of speech are the followings: the article, the preposition, the conjunctive, the particle, the interjection and modal words.

#### 1. The Preposition

As is known the preposition as a part of speech doesn't exist in Azerbaijani. But in English it is one of the main means expressing relations between two notional words. The meaning of the preposition becomes clear when different prepositions are used with one and the same word.

*on the table – stolun üstündə*

*under the table – stolun altında*

*to the table – stola tərəf*

*from the table – stoldan*

*at the table – stolun yanında*

In most cases simple prepositions are homonymous with adverbs and conjunctions. Their status are determined only syntactically.

*He went **up** (zərf)*

*He sailed **up the river** (sözünü)*

*No one saw him **but him** (sözünü)*

***But** no one saw us (bağlayıcı)*

*The library is **near** (zərf)*

*The house is **near the library** (sözünü)*

According to their morphological structure prepositions may be:

1. Simple – *in, on, at, for, with, but* etc.
2. Derived – *behind, below, across, along* etc.

3. Compound – *within, outside, inside, without, upon* etc.
4. Composite – *by means of, in spite of, in front of, because of, instead of* etc.

According to their meaning prepositions are conditionally divided into the following groups:

1. Prepositions of place and direction: *in, on, under, to, between* etc.

*The book is **on the table** – Kitab stolun üstündədir.*

*The cat is **under the table** – Pişik stolun altındadır.*

*Go **to the door** – Qapıya get.*

*Put the pen **into the bag** – Qələmi çantanın içinə qoyun.*

2. Prepositions of time: *after, before, at* etc.

*Come **after six** – Altıdan sonra gəlin.*

*We arrived **at ten** – Biz saat onda çatdıq.*

3. Prepositions denoting abstract relations: *by, with, because of* etc.

*The door **of the room** is white – Otağın qapısı ağdır.*

*We stayed at home **because of** cold – Biz soyuğa görə evdə qaldıq.*

One and the same preposition may express different relations.

*He lived **in London** (yer bildirir).*

*I was born **in May** (zaman bildirir).*

*He will come **in ten days** (zaman bildirir).*

In Azerbaijani with its six-case system the relations of substances are mostly denoted by case morphemes. But in English the only positive case morpheme – ‘s shows but a very limited number of relations. That’s why while learning prepositions the followings should be taken into consideration:

1. The use of the preposition is free. In such cases the preposition keeps its lexical meaning.

*The man is sitting **under the tree** (ağacın altında).*

*He is **in the room** (otaqda).*

*We are **at the table** (stolun yanında).*

2. There exist a lot of phrasal verbs with certain prepositions.

*to **depend on** – asılı olmaq*

*to **insist on** – təkid etmək*

*to **call on** – baş çəkmək*

*to spend on* – *vaxt keçirmək, xərcləmək* və s.

*This depends on you.*

*I spend much money on books.*

There are a lot of preposition of phrases with the verb *to be*.

*to be late for* – *gecikmək*

*to be sure of* – *əmin olmaq*

*to be aware of* – *aşkar olmaq*

*to be surprised at* – *təccüblənmək*

*to be interested in* – *marqlanmaq*

*to be afraid of* – *qorxmaq*

*to be ashamed of* – *utanmaq*

*to be fond of* – *xoşlamaq*

*to be full of* – *dolu olmaq*

*to be proud of* – *fəxr etmək* və s.

*We are proud of our country.*

*I am afraid of dogs.*

3. The preposition is used as a word-building element.

*to look for* – *axtarmaq*

*to look after* – *qayğısına qalmaq*

*to look through* – *nəzərdən keçirmək*

*to get up* – *yuxudan durmaq*

*to give up* – *tərgitmək*

*to bring up* – *tərbiyə etmək* və s.

*He gets up at 7 every day.*

*He was brought up by his grandfather.*

## 2. The place of the preposition in the sentence

As a rule the preposition is used before the noun or pronoun. If the noun is preceded by an adjective, the preposition is placed before it.

*He lives in the village.*

*He lives in a large village.*

In special questions beginning with *what*, *who(m)*, *which* two variants are possible, i.e. the preposition may either stand at the beginning or at the end of the question.

*What are you listening to?* = **To what** are you listening?

*Whom do you live with?* = **With whom** do you live?

*Which house do you live in?* = **In which** house do you live?

*Where have you come from?* = **From where** have you come?

The second variant belongs to formal style.

The preposition precedes the interrogative word when the preposition forms a stock phrase with a noun.

*In what book did you read it?*

*To whose friend did you give the book?*

In attributive clauses the preposition may be used in different positions.

*The street which they live in is very wide.*

*The street in which they live is very wide.*

When the relative pronoun or adverb is omitted the preposition is used after the verb.

*The street they live in is very wide.*

In passive constructions the preposition used with the intransitive verbs is used at the end.

*The doctor has just been sent for.*

*The man was laughed at.*

In some syntactical patterns with the infinitive or gerund the preposition is used at the end.

*He is difficult to deal with.*

*He is not a man to rely on.*

### 3. The conjunction

Conjunctions are words indicating the connection between two notional words, phrases, clauses or sentences.

According to their morphological structure conjunctions are divided into the following types:

1. Simple conjunctions: *and, or, but, till, after, where, when* etc.
2. Derived conjunctions: *until, unless, provided* etc.
3. Compound conjunctions: *whereas, wherever, however, whenever* etc.
4. Composite conjunctions: *as soon as, as large as, in case* etc.

Some conjunctions form correlative pairs: *both... and, either... or, neither... nor, not only... but also, whether... or* etc.

According to their semantic relations they express all conjunctions fall into two types: **1. Coordinating conjunctions. 2. Subordinating conjunctions.**

**1. Coordinating conjunctions.** Coordinating conjunctions join coordinate clauses in a compound sentence, or homogeneous parts in a simple sentence.

Coordinating conjunctions express copulative, disjunctive, adversative and causative-consecutive connections.

1. Copulative conjunctions: *and, nor, as well as, both... and, not only... but (also), neither... nor* etc.

*Around them others **danced and laughed and talked.***

*He could **neither read nor write** at first.*

*I **as well as** they am ready to help you.*

If the homogeneous subjects are of different person or number, the predicate agrees with the one next to it.

*Neither **he** nor **his friends** were at school.*

*Neither **his friends** nor **he** was at school.*

*Not only **he**, but also **they** were at school.*

*Not only **they**, but also **he** was at school.*

2. Disjunctive conjunctions: *or, either... or, or else, else* etc.

*He went to the club **three or four nights** a week.*

***Either** listen to me, **or** I shall stop reading to you.*

*Don't come near me with that look **else** I'll knock you down.*

3. Adversative conjunctions: *but, while, whereas, yet, still, however* etc.

*I called him **but** he didn't answer.*

*He tried hard **yet** he failed.*

*Peter is an engineer, **while** his brother is a musician.*

4. Causative-consecutive conjunctions: *so, for* etc.

*The days became longer, **for** it was now spring time.*

*The shops were closed **so** I couldn't buy anything.*

*She asked me to go, **so** I went.*

*They cost a lot of money, **so** use them carefully.*

**2. Subordinating conjunctions.** Subordinating conjunctions join subordinate clauses to main clauses. They are divided into two groups:

a) Conjunctions introducing subject, predicative and object clauses: *that, if, whether*.

***Whether** he will come is unknown (mübtəda budaq cümləsi).*

*The problem is **if** he knows about it (predikativ budaq cümləsi).*

*I don't know **if** he can do this (tamamlıq budaq cümləsi).*

b) Conjunctions introducing different adverbial clauses:

Müxtəlif növ zərflik budaq cümlələrini baş cümləyə bağlayan bağlayıcıları aşağıdakı kimi qruplaşdırmaq olar:

1. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of time: *as, as soon as, as long as, when, whenever, since, till, until, after, before* etc.

*We shall go there **as soon as** she leaves us.*

*Stay here **till** he comes back.*

***After** I had done my homework, I went to play in the yard.*

***As long as** you don't agree with me, we shall not be able to do anything.*

***As** I was reading a book, somebody opened the door (when I was reading...).*

2. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of place: *where, wherever* etc.

*They stopped **where** I was born.*

***Wherever** he went, he was met warmly.*

3. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of cause: *as, because, since, for* etc.



*As I was ill, I couldn't help him.*

*We can't go there **because** we are very busy.*

***Since** he is ill, he may stay in bed (as he is ill... Madam ki, o xæstadir).*

*He was in a hurry, **for** he had little time.*

4. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of condition: *if, unless, on condition (that), in case, provided (that), supposing (that)* etc.

***If** you want, you may take my book.*

*I shall do it **unless** I am too busy (if I am not too busy).*

*I shall help you **on condition** (that) you give me much money (o şærtla ki...).*

***In case** I meet him, I'll tell him everything (If I meet him).*

5. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of purpose: *lest, so that, in order that, that* etc.

*I gave him the dictionary **so that** (in order that, that) he might translate the article.*

6. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of result: *so that, so... that* etc.

*The exercise was **so** difficult **that** he could not understand it.*

*They were **so** frightened, **that** they couldn't sleep that night.*

*The article was very easy **so that** I translated it for a short time.*

7. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of comparison: *than, as... as, not so... as* etc.

*She speaks English better **than** I do.*

*He did the work, **as** he was requested.*

*The book is **not so** difficult **as** I think.*

8. Conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of concession: *though, although, even if, however, whoever, in spite of that fact that* etc.

*He helped the old man **in spite of the fact that** he was very tired.*

***Though** he is young, he knows much about animals.*

#### 4. The adverb, the conjunction and the preposition

Some conjunctions are homonymous with the adverbs and prepositions/ Their status may be determined only syntactically. The adverb function as an adverbial modifier, the conjunction connects the subordinate clause to the principal one, and the prepositions indicates relations between two notional words.

*He lives **behind** the mountain (sözönü).*

*He lives **behind** (zərf).*

*He is **in** the room (sözönü).*

*He came **in** (zərf).*

*They went **down** (zərf).*

*They went **down** the hill (sözönü).*

*I bought a book **for** Mary (sözönü).*

*I listened her songs, **for** she had a sweet voice (bağlayıcı).*

*After, before and since are often homonymous.*

*I couldn't see him **after** (zərf).*

***After** I had finished my work, I went for a walk (bağlayıcı).*

*We entered the room **after** guests (sözönü).*

*We haven't met **before** (zərf).*

*We shall start **before** he comes (bağlayıcı).*

*They stood **before** us (sözönü).*

*He left London 1998. I haven't seen him **since** (zərf).*

*I haven't seen him **since** he left us (bağlayıcı).*

*The weather has changed **since** morning (sözönü).*

#### 5. The particle

The particle is a part of speech which emphasizes or limits the meaning of another word or phrase or sentence. Particles have no syntactical functions in the sentence. According to their meaning Particles face under the following groups:

1. Intensifying particles: *just, even, still, simply* etc.

*I **just** wanted you to help me.*

*He **even** couldn't get up.*

*We **simply** don't know him.*

*We have **yet** another problem.*

2. Limiting particle: *only, merely, solely, barely, but, alone* etc.

*Man cannot live on bread **alone**.*

*Time **alone** will show everything.*

*She is still **but** a child, she wants to play with you.*

*I **only** wanted you to help me.*

*He had **barely** done it when somebody called him.*

*She **merely** showed me.*

3. Specifying particles: *right, exactly, just, precisely* etc.

*The table is **right** in the middle of the room.*

*They were **just** about to start.*

*She left the room **precisely** at six.*

4. The additive particle: *else*. It combines only with indefinite, interrogative and negative pronouns and interrogative adverbs.

*Where **else**, did you see him?*

*There is somebody **else** in the yard.*

*Nobody **else** can do it.*

5. Negative particles: *never, not* etc.

*He **never** went there.*

***Not** a word was spoken.*

6. Connecting particle: *also, too, either*.

*Didn't you go there **too**?*

*We were **also** at the film.*

A number of particles have homonymous among other parts of speech.

*She was ready **too** (ədat).*

*She was **too** busy (zərf).*

*He was **just** the man I wanted to talk to (ədat).*

*He has **just** come (zərf).*

***Only** Tom went there (ədat).*

*Tom was the **only** child in the family (sifət).*

## 6. Modal words

The function of modal words is to express different modal meanings. Unlike modal verbs the meaning of modal words refers to the whole sentence. The modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the reality, possibility or probability of the action he speaks about. According to their meaning modal words may be divided into the following groups:

1. Modal words expressing certainty: *certainly, of course, indeed, surely, really, naturally, no doubt* etc.

***Certainly*** he was right.

***Really*** they are good people.

2. Modal words expressing supposition: *perhaps, maybe, probably, obviously, possibly, evidently* etc.

***Perhaps*** they will come.

***Maybe*** he is still in bed.

3. Modal words expressing desire: *luckily, happily, unluckily, fortunately, unfortunately* etc.

***Happily*** they saw each other yesterday.

***Fortunately*** he was not there when the storm began.

Sometimes modal words are used as parentheses or as sentence words.

***Surely*** we shall start at six.

Will you visit him tomorrow? – ***Surely***.

Such modal words as *happily, certainly, surely* are homonymous with the adverbs *certainly, happily, surely*.

***Happily*** she found her child (modal söz).

They lived ***happily*** (zərf).

## 7. The interjection

Interjections are words expressing emotions, such as *surprise, anger, regret*, etc. They are used as exclamations.

According to their meaning interjections fall under two groups:

1. Emotional interjections: *ah, oh, eh, bravo, alas, hurrah* və s.

*“Oh, yes”, I answered.*

*“He is again here, Hurrah!” she cried.*

2. Imperative interjections: *here, well, come, now, hear, dear* və s.

***Here!*** *You have come.*

***Come!*** *Try to do it again.*

Some interjections are special words which are not associated with any other parts of speech: *oh* [ou], *ah* [a:], *eh* [eɪ], *alas* [ə`lɑ:s], *hum* [hʌm], *pew* [fju:], *pooh* [pu:], *bravo* [ˈbrɑ:vou], *hurrah* [hu`rɑ:] etc.

Some of these interjections serve to express quite definite feelings. Thus *alas* is a cry of sorrow or anxiety; *bravo* is a cry of approval, meaning *well done, excellent*; *hurrah* is a cry of expressing joy, welcome; *pooh* expresses contempt.

Other interjections, according to the tone of the voice may express emotions of different character: *ah* may show sorrow, surprise, pity, pleasure, etc.; *oh* is an exclamation of surprise, fear, pain, etc.; *pew* may express relief, astonishment or contempt; *eh* surprise or doubt, etc.

There are a number of words which belong to different other parts of speech but which are also used as interjections: *come, damn, now, there, well, dear me, hang it, for shame* etc.

Interjections of this kind may express quite different feelings according to the tone of the voice or the context.

Thus *Well* depending on the sentence in which it is used, may express a variety of emotions:

- 1) *Well* serves as an expression of surprise:  
*Well, who would have thought it?*
- 2) *Well* expresses relief:  
*Well, here we are at last!*
- 3) *Well* serves to express expectation:  
*Well then? Well, what about it?*
- 4) *Well* expresses resignation.

*Well*, it can't be helped.

5) *Well* denotes concession:

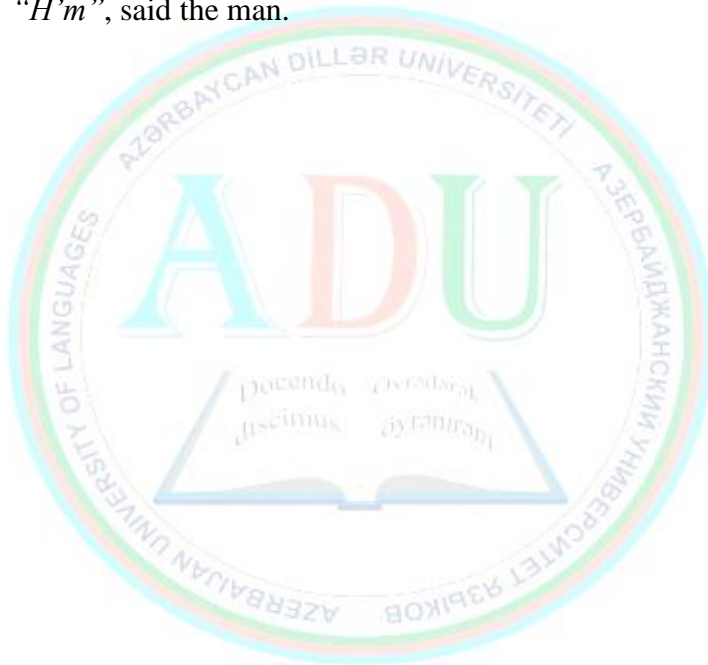
*Well*, it may be true, etc.

Interjections are independent elements which do not perform any of the syntactic functions in the sentence. They are sentence-words themselves and may be used parenthetically:

*Well*, I am very glad to hear it.

*Why*, where is the baby?

"*H'm*", said the man.





# Chapter X

## SYNTAX

The sentence is a unit of speech capable of expressing a more or less complete thought. Each sentence has a certain grammatical form and intonation.

### 1. Classification of simple sentences according to the purpose of the utterance

Sentences are classified on two principles: a) according to the purpose of the utterance; b) according to the structure.

According to the purpose of the utterance four kinds of sentences are distinguished: **1. Declarative sentences. 2. Interrogative sentences. 3. Imperative sentences. 4. Exclamatory sentences.**

**1. Declarative sentences.** Declaration sentences state facts in the affirmative or negative form. They are characterized by a direct word order. First comes the subject, then – the predicate and then the secondary parts of the sentence, if there is any. As is known in some cases the grammatical meaning is determined by word order. It is clearly seen when the subject and object change their places in the sentence.

*Tom saw Nick.      Nick saw Tom.*

*Tom Niki gördü.      Nik Tomu gördü.*

Depending on the purpose declarative sentences may be either in the affirmative or in the negative.

*They live in London.      They don't live in London.*

Declarative sentences are pronounced with a falling tone.

**2. Interrogative sentences.** Interrogative sentences are used to receive an answer. Unlike Azerbaijani in English interrogative sentences are formed by changing normal word order. They have

four types: (1) **General questions.** (2) **Special questions.** (3) **Alternative questions.** (4) **Disjunctive questions.**

(1) **General questions.** General questions are put to the meaning of the whole sentence. They require the answer *yes* or *no*. Word order is so: Auxiliary or modal verb+the subject+the part of the predicate.

*Can you speak English? Yes, I can. No, I cannot.*

*Do you live in London? Yes, I do. No, I don't.*

General questions are pronounced with a rising tone.

(2) **Special questions.** Special questions are put to a separate part of the sentence. They begin with interrogative pronouns or adverbs. The order of words is the same as in general questions, but the interrogative adverb or pronoun precedes the auxiliary of modal verb. Special questions are pronounced with a falling tone.

When the question is put to the subject of the sentence the word order is that of a declarative sentence. *Who?* is used for living beings and *What?* for lifeless things.

*The book is on the table.*

*The boy is sitting.*

*What is on the table?*

*Who is sitting?*

*The boy is in the room.*

*The man went.*

*Who is in the room?*

*Who went.*

When the question is put to the predicate the word order is so: *What?*+auxiliary or modal verb+the subject+to do.

*She speaks English.*

*What does she do?*

*He went to school.*

*What did he do?*

*He has sent the letter.*

*What has he done?*

*They can take the box.*

*What can they do?*

When the question is put to the object *Whom?* is used for living beings, *What?* for lifeless things. Word order is so: *What (whom)* +auxiliary or modal verb+the subject+the part of the predicate.

*We see a boy in the yard.*

*Whom do we see in the yard?*

*I took the book from the library. What did I take from the library?*

In spoken English *Who?* is used instead of *Whom?*

*Whom did you see? Who did you see? – Siz kimi gördünüz?*

Unlike other parts of the sentence in one sentence we may have some attributes the attribute of the subject, object and adverbial modifier.

a) When the question is put to the attribute of the subject the order of words does not change: “*whose?*” (*kimin?*), “*which?*” (*hansı?*), “*what?*” (*hansı?*), “*how many?*” (*nə qədər?*).

*His friend lives in London?                      Whose friend lives in London?*

*That boy saw me.                                      What boy saw me?*

*Five boys are playing in the yard. How many boys are playing in the yard?*

b) But when the question is put to the attribute of the object or adverbial modifier the order of words changes.

*He took my book.                                      Whose book did he take?*

*She read five books last year.                      How many books did she read last year?*

*They spent the day in the nearest village. What village did they spend the day in?*

When the question is put to the adverbial modifier the order of words is so: interrogative adverb+auxiliary or modal verb+the subject+the part of the predicate.

1) Special questions to the adverbial modifier of place: “*where?*” (*haraya?, harada?*)

*Mary lives in the village.                              Where does Mary live?*

*Children go to school every day. Where do children go every day?*

2) Special questions to the adverbial modifier of time: “*when?*” (*nə zaman?, nə vaxt?*)

*They met the guests yesterday.                      When did they meet the guests?*

*He will visit me tomorrow.                              When will he visit me?*

3) Special questions to the adverbial modifier of manner: “*how?*” (*necə?*)

*We speak English well.                                      How do we speak English?*

*She walks quickly.    How does she walk?*

4) Special questions to the adverbial modifier of cause and purpose: “*why?*” (*nə üçün?, niyə?*)

*They came to Baku to study. Why did they come to Baku?*

(3) **Alternative questions.** Alternative questions suggesting choice are structurally compound sentences with two general questions coordinated by the conjunction *or*. The first part is spoken with the rising tone, the second with the falling tone. Asking such questions the speaker expects as an answer one of two alternatives mentioned in the question.

*Is he a doctor or (is he) a teacher?*

*-He is a doctor.*

*Does he live in Baku or (does he live) in Moscow?*

*-He lives in Moscow.*

*Where were you yesterday: at home or in the garden? – Dünən siz harada idiniz: bağda yoxsa evdə?*

*Which do you like: tea or water?*

*What are you doing: reading or writing?*

(4) **Disjunctive questions.**

Disjunctive questions are a special type of general questions and like the latter they require the answer *Yes* or *No*. But structurally they differ from general questions. The first part is a declarative sentence followed by a shortened general question. Both parts are pronounced with the falling tone.

*Tom is a student, isn't he?*

*-Yes, he is.*

*The boys didn't work in the garden, did they?*

*-No, they didn't.*

The answer expected is *Yes* if the declarative part is affirmative, and *No* if it is negative. The chief points to notice are as follows:

1) Although “*everybody*” and “*everyone*” are singular, for the purpose of the question they are usually treated as plural, and referred to by “*they*”.

*Everybody helped them, didn't they?*

*Everyone was at home, weren't they?*

2) The interrogative form of *I am* used in a negative form is *aren't I* or *ain't I*.

*I am a pupil, **aren't I?** I am a pupil, ain't I?*

*I am stronger than you, **aren't I?***

3) Semi-negative words like *little, few, hardly, scarcely, rarely, seldom* are treated as negatives, and take a positive question.

***Few** people know about it, **do** they?*

***Little** progress has been made lately, **has** it?*

*He can **hardly** speak English, can he?*

*You **seldom** visit him, **do** you?*

4) *A few* and *a little* are positive in meaning, and therefore need a negative question.

***A few** people know about it, **don't** they?*

***A little** progress has been made lately, **hasn't** it?*

**3. Imperative sentences.** Imperative sentences express a command, a request, an invitation, etc. They serve to induce a person to do something. Unlike Azerbaijani the predicate stands at the beginning of the sentence. The subject implying the second person is normally omitted.

***Take** the book – *Kitabı götürün.**

***Come** to help me tomorrow – *Sabah mənə kömək etməyə gəl.**

The subject of an imperative sentence is seldom expressed in emphatic speech.

***You** go there – *Siz oraya gedin.**

***You** help me – *Siz mənə kömək edin.**

The emphatic imperative is used with the help of the verb *to do*.

***Do** read this book – *Mütləq bu kitabı oxu.**

***Do** help them – *Mütləq onlara kömək et.**

The negative imperative is formed by means of the auxiliary verb *to do* and the particle *not*.

***Don't** (do not) read the book – *Kitabı oxuma.**

***Don't** go there – *Oraya getmə.**

Imperative sentences for the first and third persons are formed according to the model: *Let+noun* in the common case or personal

pronouns in the objective case+the infinitive (without to)+ secondary parts of the sentence (if there is any).

*Let Tom play in the yard – İcazə ver (qoy) Tom həyətdə oynasın.*

*Let him take my book – İcazə ver (qoy) o, mənim kitabımı götürsün.*

*Let me stay at home – İcazə ver (qoy) mən evdə qalım.*

*Let us (Let's) go home – Gəlin evə gedək.*

The negative is made by adding *not* before the infinitive.

*Let him **not** go there.*

*Let Tom **not** visit her.*

In sentences like *Don't let him go* the negation refers to the verb *let*, which in this case fully retains its original meaning of permission.

*Don't let them work there.*

*Don't let her stay at home.*

*Don't let him work in the open air – İcazə vermə ona açıq havada işləsin (Qoyma o, açıq havada işləsin).*

**4. Exclamatory sentences.** Exclamatory sentences express various emotions, such as joy, anger, surprise, sorrow, etc. Any kinds of sentences may be transformed into an exclamatory sentence by using stress or intonation.

*Have you ever seen such a beautiful picture?!*

*Open the door at once!*

*Mother, father has come!*

At the same time some exclamatory sentences have a special structure. *What* is used with reference to a noun, *how* – to an adjective or an adverb.

***What a nice book** we have!*

***What an interesting book** it is!*

***How fast** he runs!?*

***How interesting** the book is!*

***How quickly** she is working!*

***How well** he is reading!*

Sometimes exclamatory sentences can be reduced to the word or phrase.

***What a fine city** (it is)!*

***How cold** (the weather is)!*



## 2. Classification of simple sentences according to their structure

According to the use of the principal parts of the sentence simple sentences may be **one-member** and **two-member**.

**Two-member** sentences must contain at least the principal parts of the sentence. The secondary parts of the sentence may or may not be used.

*Tom came.*

*Tom works at a large plant.*

*They are playing in the yard every day.*

Two-member sentences may be *complete* or *incomplete*.

In complete sentences all the necessary parts of the sentence are used.

*They were playing chess in the hall.*

*Did you visit them?*

Depending on the purpose or situation in incomplete sentences some part (or parts) may be omitted. The missing part (or parts) of such sentences can be easily understood from the context. They are mainly used in colloquial speech and especially in dialogue. They have the following types:

1. Incomplete sentences containing the subject.

*Who is working in the room? – Mary.*

*What is on the table? – The book.*

2. Incomplete sentences containing the predicate.

*What is she doing there? – Reading.*

*What does he usually do in the yard? – Plays football.*

3. Incomplete sentences containing the object.

*What are you reading? – An article.*

*Whom did you see yesterday? – Tom.*

4. Incomplete sentences containing the attribute.

*What colour do you like? – Red.*

5. Incomplete sentences containing the adverbial modifier.

*Where do you live? – In Baku.*

*How do you speak English? – Well.*

*Why did you go there? – To see them.*

**One-member sentences** are sentences having only one member which is neither the subject nor the predicate. They consist of only one member. One-member sentences are usually used in descriptions and in emotional speech. They have the following types:

1) Sentences containing the noun:

*The sky, the flowers, the songs of birds.*

*Happy New Year!*

2) Sentences containing the verb:

a) *Stop! Come!*

b) *Not to go there? Why not do it?*

3) Sentences containing the adjective:

*Nice! So kind of him! How wonderful!*

4) Sentences containing the modal words:

*Certainly. Of course. All right.*

According to the use of the secondary parts of the sentence simple sentences may be **unextended** and **extended**.

**Unextended sentences** are sentences consisting of only principal parts. *Tom came. He smiled. She danced.*

**Extended sentences** are sentences consisting of not only principal part but also one or more secondary parts.

*Tom read the book.*

*Tom took an interesting book.*

*Tom gave me an interesting book yesterday.*

### 3. Parts of the sentence. The Subject

According to their meaning, function and position parts of the sentences are divided into two groups:

1. The principal parts of the sentence: the subject and the predicate.

2. The secondary parts of the sentence: the object, the attribute and the adverbial modifier.

**The Subject.** The subject is the independent part of the sentence. The predicate grammatically depends on the subject. It agrees with the subject in number and person. It denotes a living being, a lifeless thing, or an idea spoken about in the sentence. The subject requires the questions: *who* and *what*. Usually the subject precedes the predicate. The subject may be expressed:

1) By a noun:

*Smith took the box. Mary went home. The boy saw me. The king was angry. The book is interesting.*

2) By a pronoun:

*He is a doctor. Somebody called him. Nobody helped them.*

3) By a substantivized adjective:

*The rich live in that part of the city.*

*The poor work there.*

4) By a numeral:

*The first is my brother. Two and two is (are) four.*

5) By an infinitive:

*To swim is good for health. To see is to believe. To do it is a problem.*

6) Gerund:

*Walking is a good exercise. Seeing and doing are two different things.*

**“It” as the subject of the sentence.** The pronoun “it” may be used as a real and as a formal subject. If the pronoun *it* represents a concrete thing or an idea then it is a real subject.

*I bought a book yesterday. – It is very interesting.*

*They live in a little house. – But it is light and cosy.*

The use of the pronoun *it* in impersonal sentences is formal, i.e. it doesn't represent any person or thing. The pronoun *it* is introduced as subject to make these sentences comply with the usual type of the sentence in English.

In such cases the pronoun *it* is used as a formal subject. As a formal subject *it* is used in the following cases:

*It is cold. It is winter. It is raining. It is very early. It is easy to read it. It is late. It is six o'clock. It is a long way from our house to school. It is easy for him to go there.*

As a formal subject *it* is not translated into Azerbaijani.

#### 4. Sentences with the constructions there is/are, there lives

As has already been mentioned in English sentences the subject usually precedes the predicate. But there are special type of sentences where the sentence begins with the formal *there*, then comes the predicate, the subject and the adverbial modifier of place.

*There is a book on the table.*

*There is a car in the yard.*

In such sentences the speaker wants to assert or deny the existence of something in a definite place. *There* is used as a structural element of the sentence with the predicate-verb *to be*. If the noun is in the singular it is usually preceded by the indefinite article. But when the noun is in the plural it may be preceded by: *some, any, two, many, a lot of* etc.

*There is a table in the room – Otaqda bir stol var.*

*There are six chairs in the room – Otaqda altı stul var.*

In sentences with the formal *there* the noun is not usually used with the definite article, demonstrative and possessive pronouns because the noun, as a rule, denotes indefiniteness.

*The book is on the table* and *There is a book on the table* are different sentences.

*“The book is on the table (Kitab stolun üstündədir)”* is the answer to question *“Where is the book? (Kitab haradadır?)”*

“*There is a book on the table (Stolun üstündə bir kitab var)*” is the answer to question “*What is there on the table? (Stolun üstündə nə var?)*”

The sentences with formal **there** may be used in different tense forms.

*There **are** many books on the shelf.*

*There **were** some boys in the hall.*

*There **will be** a sofa in the corner.*

*There **have been** many boys in the hall already.*

Interrogative forms in sentences with formal there.

*Is there a dog in the yard? Yes, there is. No, there isn't.*

*Were there books on the table? Yes, there were. No, there weren't.*

*Will there be many people at the party? Yes, there will. No, there won't.*

*How many parks are there in Baki?*

*There are many parks in Baki, aren't there?*

*Have there been any guests at the party lately? Yes, there have. No, there haven't.*

The negative form is formed by means of: 1) negative particle **not** and 2) the negative pronoun **no**.

1) *Not*

*There **isn't** a cat under the table.*

*There **aren't** any chairs in the room.*

*There **isn't** any milk in the bottle.*

2) *No*

*There is **no** car in the street.*

*There is **no** milk in the bottle.*

*There are **no** cars in the street.*

In sentences with formal **there** the predicate usually agrees with the first subject.

*There **is** a book and five pens on the table.*

*There **are** five pens and a book on the table.*

Besides the verb *to be* some other verbs, such as *to live* (*yaşamaq*), *to exist* (*mövcud olmaq*), *to stand* (*dayanmaq*), *to lie* (*uzanmaq*), *to come* (*gəlmək*), *to occur* (*baş vermək*) etc. can be used after formal *there*.

Once ***there lived*** a very cruel king. – *Bir dəfə çox qəddar bir padşah yaşayırdı.*

Suddenly ***there came*** a knock at the door. – *Qəflətən qapı döyüldü.*

***There appeared*** an old man. – *Qoca bir kişi peyda oldu.*

## 5. The Predicate

The predicate is the other principal part of the sentence. It expresses an action or a state characterizing the subject. The predicate is grammatically dependent upon the subject, i.e. it agrees with the subject in number and person.

*He is a teacher. We are teachers. He works. We work.*

According to the structure the predicate may be simple or compound.

*The simple predicate (Sadə xəbər).* The simple predicate is expressed by a finite verb in a simple or a compound tense form.

*The boy **ran** home. The boy **runs** home. The boy **is running** home. The boy **was running** home. The boy **has run** home. The boy **had run** home. The boy **will run** home.*

*The compound predicate (Mürəkkəb xəbər).* According to the meaning the compound predicate may be verbal or nominal.

**The compound nominal predicate (Mürəkkəb ismi xəbər).** The compound nominal predicate denotes a certain state or quality of the subject. It consists of a link verb and a predicative.

*He is a doctor.*

*The book is interesting.*

The link verb connects the predicate with the subject. In such cases the link verb expresses the grammatical categories of person,



number, tense, aspect, mood and voice. The most typical link verb is the verb *to be*. There are some other verbs which can be used as link verbs: *to feel* (*hiss etmək*), *to look* (*baxmaq, görünmək*), *to smell* (*iy vermək*), *to taste* (*dad vermək*), *to grow* (*böyümək*), *to turn* (*dönmək*), *to remain* (*qalmaq*), *to sound* (*səslənmək*), *to become* (*olmaq*), *to keep* (*saxlamaq*) etc.

When used as linking verbs they partly lose their primary lexical meaning. All such verbs, when used as linking verbs, are to be followed by an adjective, not by an adverb. However, when some of these verbs are used as notional verbs, they may need an adverb.

<i>She looked happy.</i>	<i>She looked happily at me.</i>
<i>She turned pale.</i>	<i>She turned back.</i>
<i>She remained silent.</i>	<i>She remained with me.</i>

The link verb can easily be substituted by the verb **to be**.

*She turned pale.* – *She was pale.*

*She feels sad.* – *She is sad.*

*She remained silent.* – *She was silent.*

The predicative may be expressed by:

1) A noun:

*He is a doctor.* – *They are teachers.*

2) An adjective:

*The book is interesting.* – *He became pale.*

3) A pronoun:

*The toy is mine.* – *The house is theirs.*

4) A numeral:

*He is ten.* – *They were ten at table.*

5) An infinitive:

*Our plan is to help you.* – *My intention is to leave the city.*

6) A gerund:

*His wish is visiting them.* – *My aim is mastering English.*

**The compound Verbal Predicate.** The compound verbal predicate is divided into 2 types: 1. *The compound verbal modal predicate.* 2. *The compound verbal aspect predicate.*

*The compound verbal modal predicate consists of two parts:*

1) Modal verb+an infinitive:

*He **can speak** English. They **must work** there. You **may go** home.*

2) A modal verb equivalent+an infinitive:

*Tom **is able to help** you. We **have to see** them to day.*

*The compound verbal aspect predicate shows the beginning, duration and end of the action. It consists of the following verbs and an infinitive or a gerund: “to begin”, “to go on”, “to stop”, “to continue”, “to start”.*

*The man **began to read** the book.*

*They **went on talking**.*

*She **stopped painting**.*

Here also belong would+an infinitive (without *to*) and used+an infinitive (with *to*) denoting a repeated action in the past.

*He **used to play** football in the village.*

*She **would visit** Ann.*

## 6. The Attribute

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence qualifying a noun or a noun equivalent. The attribute depends of the word it modifies. In the sentence it may refer to the subject, predicative, object and adverbial modifier.

An attribute can be expressed by the following parts of speech:

1) An adjective:

*He has a **red** tie. There is a **round** table in the room.*

*I took an **interesting** book from the library yesterday.*

2) A pronoun:

***His** father is a worker. **All** the boys are in the yard.*

***This** book is new. **Both** boys were present.*

3) A noun in the possessive case:

***Mary's** friend lived in London. **The boy's** father is a doctor.*

4) A numeral:

The **second** man was her father. They had **five** books.

5) An adverb:

The room **above** is not light. They live in the street **below**.

6) A participle:

We saw a **running** boy. They sat behind the **closed** door.

7) A gerund:

We like the idea of **going** there.

8) An infinitive:

I have got an interesting book **to read**.

Unlike Azerbaijani in English the attribute may either precede or follow the word if modifies.

Accordingly, there can be prepositive and postpositive attributes. A prepositive attribute is generally expressed by an adjective, an adjective-pronoun, a numeral, or a participle.

He was a **country** doctor. I followed **the doctor's** advice. It was a **terrible** incident. Somebody has taken **my** book. The **broken** cup was on the table. They bought **five** sheep.

A postpositive attribute can be expressed by an infinitive, a participle, a gerund and a prepositional phrases.

We live in the house **built** in 1992. The floor **of the room** is brown. He is the best friend **of mine**. There is a letter **to translate** on the table. I enjoy the manner of his **talking**. They didn't recognize the man **upstairs**.

## 7. The Object

The object is a secondary part of the sentence completing the meaning of a verb.

I took **the book**. He sent **the letter**.

An object can be expressed by:

1) A noun

The man gave **the girl an interesting book**. He read **the book**.

2) A pronoun:

*I wrote **him** a letter. She opened **it**. Take **that**, please.*

3) An infinitive:

*He forgot **to do** it. She likes **to sing** a song.*

4) A gerund:

*We enjoy **swimming**. I hate **smoking**.*

**Kinds of objects.** Objects are divided into prepositional and prepositionless. The latter in its turn is divided into direct and indirect objects.

**Direct object.** A direct object is somebody or something directly affected by the action of the verb. It is used after transitive verbs without a preposition.

*He saw **the man**. She carried **the box**.*

If there is a direct and indirect object in the sentence then an indirect object precedes a direct object. In such cases an indirect object can't be used without a direct object.

*The man bought **him a toy**. She gave **me a book**.*

When a direct object precedes an indirect object, the latter is used with the preposition *to* or *for*.

*The man bought a toy **for him**. She gave a book **to me**.*

**Indirect object.** There are two types of indirect object: 1) A *prepositionless indirect object*. 2) A *prepositional indirect object*.

A *prepositionless indirect object* expresses the addressee of the action. As is mentioned it usually precedes a direct object.

*He told **me** a story.*

A *prepositional indirect object* may be used with transitive verbs as in the above given examples. In such cases a prepositional object is emphatic.

*He gave me the book. He gave the book **to me**.*

In most cases a prepositional object is used after intransitive verbs.

*He went to school **with her**. I played **with them**. Tom looked at **the woman**. He is fond **of them**.*

**A complex object.** As has been mentioned a complex object may be expressed by: an objective infinitive construction, an objective participial construction, a gerundial construction.

*I saw **them playing** in the yard. He wants **me to help** them.*

*The man made **us stay** at home. We enjoyed **his singing**.*

There is a special kind of object in English which is called a **cognate object**. It has the following peculiarities:

1) It is used with intransitive verbs though it has no preposition.  
2) It is expressed by a noun which is either of the same root as the verb or is similar to it in meaning.

3) It is regularly modified by an attribute.

*They lived **a happy life**. He smiled **a bitter smile**.*

*They fought **a hard battle**. They went **a walk**.*

*She laughed **a hearty laugh**. He slept **a bad sleep**.*

Such sentences can easily be transformed in the following way.

*They lived **a happy life** – Onlar xoşbəxt həyat yaşadılar.*

*They lived happily – Onlar xoşbəxt yaşadılar.*

## 8. The Adverbial Modifier

The adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence modifying a verb in any of its forms or functions. Adverbial modifiers express the time, place, degree, etc. of the action.

*He ran **fast**. They woke up **early**. She will come **tomorrow**.*

The adverbial modifier can be expressed by:

1) An adverb:

*They speak English **well**. He will come **soon**.*

2) A noun with the preposition:

*They will start **at night**. The book is **on the table**.*

3) A word combination: *next week, last year, this month, long ago, early in the morning.*

*They arrived in Baku **last month**. He found them **early in the morning**.*

4) A participle:

*He sat **crying**. They talked **smiling**.*

5) A gerund:

*They watched TV without **smoking**.*

6) An infinitive:

*We gathered **to help** him.*

**Kinds of the adverbial modifier.** According to their meaning in the sentences, adverbial modifiers can be classified as follows:

1) Adverbial modifier of time.

*The boy met them **yesterday**. The guests **often** saw me.*

2) Adverbial modifier of place.

*It was very cold **outside**. Go **downstairs**, my boy.*

3) Adverbial modifier of manner.

*They entered the room **talking**. He ran away **quickly**.*

4) Adverbial modifier of purpose.

*They came **to see** us. She went out **to meet** the guests.*

5) Adverbial modifier of condition.

***If necessary**, we shall help him.*

6) Adverbial modifier of degree.

*We enjoy them **very much**.*



## Chapter XI

### THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

#### 1. General notion

Composite sentences are divided into two main types: **1. The compound sentence, 2. The complex sentence.**

**1. The compound sentence.** Either type of the sentence consists of two or more clauses united semantically and grammatically. Each clause has a subject and a predicate of its own.

The difference between compound and complex sentences is in the relation of coordination and subordination.

The clauses of a compound sentence are nearly independent.

But in complex sentences the subordinate clause depends on the principal clause.

**2. The compound sentence.** The compound sentence consists of two or more clauses coordinate with each other.

Semantically the clauses of a compound sentence are connected more closely than independent sentences. The order of clauses reflects a logical sequence of actions expressed by the sentence.

*The bell rang and the pupils entered the class-room.*

*They came and we began our work.*

*I called him but he did not hear me.*

There are the following types of coordination between the clauses of a compound sentence.

**1. Copulative coordination.** Here clauses are connected by means of copulative conjunctions: *and, not only... but (also), neither...nor, nor* etc.

*The rain stopped and we began to work.*

*I not only helped him, but also gave him some money.*

*He didn't tell me his address, neither did I.*

Copulative coordination expresses that two ideas are connected.

**2. Disjunctive coordination.** Here clauses are connected by means of disjunctive conjunctions: *or, otherwise, else, either...or* etc.

*Stay at home else you will catch a cold.*

*You must work hard otherwise, you will get a bad work.*

Disjunctive coordination indicates choice.

**3. Adversative coordination.** Here clauses are connected by means of adversative conjunctions: *but, yet, still, nevertheless* etc.

*It was spring, yet it was very cold.*

*He saw me, but he said nothing.*

It has the meaning of opposition.

**4. Causative-consecutive coordination.** Here clauses are connected by means of causative-consecutive conjunctions: *for, so, therefore* etc.

*The windows were closed, for it was hot.*

*Everything is all right, so you needn't worry.*

It has the meaning of cause.

**5. The complex sentence.** A complex sentence consists of two or more clauses joined by subordination. In most cases one of the clauses is treated as a principal clause and the other (others) as subordinate. The clauses of a complex sentence may be connected asyndetically, or by means of subordinative conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs or pronouns, or relative adverbs or pronouns.

*We know **that he lives in Baku** (bağlayıcı).*

*I hope **they will come in time** (bağlayıcısız).*

*The boy **who is reading a book is my brother** (nisbi əvəzlik).*

The functions of subordinate clauses are similar to those of the parts of a simple sentence. Accordingly subordinate clauses are classified as followings: **1. The subject clause. 2. The predicative clause. 3. The object clause. 4. The attributive clause. 5. The adverbial clause.**

**The subject clause.** Subject clauses are used in the function of the subject of a complex sentence.

*Where **he lives** is unknown.*

In this sentence the subject clause (*Where he lives*) is the subject of the whole sentence and (*is unknown*) is the predicate of the whole sentence. For this reason, principal and subordinate clauses are not separated from each other.

Subject clauses are introduced by:

- 1) Conjunctions: *that, if, whether*
- 2) Conjunctive pronouns: *who, what, which, whoever, whatever*
- 3) Conjunctive adverbs: *when, where, why, how.*

*That they have done it is strange.*

*If he knows this is a secret.*

*Whether he will come is not clear.*

*What he says is wrong.*

*Where she lives is uncertain.*

Another type of the subject clause follows the principal clause. The so-called formal *it* is used in the principal clause.

*It is evident that he knows nothing about it.*

*It is strange that he has made such a mistake.*

Subject clauses are not separated by a comma in both cases.

### **5. The predicative clause.**

Predicative clauses are used in the function of the predicative of a complex sentence.

*The fact is where they live.*

In this sentence the predicative clause (*where they live*) is the predicative of the whole sentence and *is* a link verb. So *is where they live* is a compound nominal predicate. For this reason, principal and subordinate clauses are not separated. Predicative clauses are introduced by:

- 1) Conjunctions: *that, if, whether, as if, as though*
- 2) Conjunctive pronouns: *who, what, which, whom, whose*
- 3) Conjunctive adverbs: *when, where, why, how*

*This is what he wants.*

*The question is why she lives there.*

*The trouble is that I don't like him.*

*It looks as if spring will never come.*

*She looks as if she knows everything.*

*Everything remained as though it used to be in this room.*

Predicative clauses introduced by the conjunctions *as if*, *as though* should not be confused with adverbial clauses of comparison introduced by the same conjunctions. The main difference is that the predicative clause immediately follows the link verb, which does not express complete predication without the clause. Compare the following sentences:

*He moved slowly as if (as though) he was blind (müqayisə budaq cümləsi).*

*He looks as if (as though) he is ill (predikativ budaq cümləsi).*

Predicative clauses are not separated by a comma.

### **6. The object clause.**

Object clauses are used in the function of an object in complex sentences. They are introduced by:

1) Conjunctions: *that*, *if*, *whether*

2) Conjunctive pronouns: *who*, *what*, *which*, *whom*, *whose*

3) Conjunctive adverbs: *where*, *why*, *how*, *when*

As a rule object clauses follow the principal clause.

*We don't know if she needs our help.*

*He asked why we had been there.*

*He was glad that no one was at home.*

*I can't tell you what she likes.*

There are cases when object clauses precede principal clauses, then object clauses are more emphatic.

*Why he did it, I can't imagine.*

*Where they lived, I don't remember.*

*What happened then I do not know.*

Object clauses are not separated by a comma from the principal clause. A comma may or may not be used if the object clause precedes the principal clause.

### **7. The attributive clause.**

An attributive clause functions as an attribute to some noun or pronoun in the principal clause. This noun or pronoun is called an antecedent.

*The man **who wants to see you** is at home.*

According to the meaning and the way they are joined to the antecedent attributive clauses are commonly divided into **relative** and **appositive clauses**.

*Attributive relative clauses (Nisbi təyin cümlələri).* In its turn attributive relative clauses are divided into two groups: a) restrictive clauses; b) non-restrictive clauses.

*A restrictive clause (Məhdudlaşdırıcı təyin budaq cümləsi).* Restrictive clauses restrict the meaning of the antecedent so that it cannot be omitted without affecting the meaning of the sentence. It is not separated by a comma. They are introduced by:

a) relative pronouns: *who, whose, which, that*

b) relative adverbs: *where, when*

*The boy **who called on you** left a message.*

*The man **that I spoke to** is my doctor.*

*We live in the street **where she was born**.*

Relative pronouns or adverbs may be omitted.

*The girls (**that**) **I work with** are in the yard.*

*The book (**which**) **you are reading** is very interesting.*

*Non-restrictive clauses (Qeyri-məhdudlaşdırıcı (təsviri) təyin budaq cümləsi)* Non-restrictive clauses describe the antecedent by giving some additional information about it. It does not restrict its meaning and therefore can be left out of the sentence without affecting its sense. They are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. They are introduced by:

a) relative pronouns: *who, which*

b) relative adverbs: *where, when*

*My sister, **who lives in the village**, visited us yesterday.*

*He showed me the book, **which was on the table**.*

*The city, **where he was born**, has changed.*

*The day, **when I met her**, is unforgettable.*



### **Attributive appositive clause** (*Əlavə təyin budaq cümləsi*).

Attributive appositive clauses are used as appositive attributes specifying the meaning of the antecedent. The antecedent may be expressed by abstract nouns, such as *idea, thought, question, reason* etc. They are not separated from the principal clauses by a comma.

*The boy didn't know the reason **why he was punished every day**.*

*We haven't yet settled the question **who will meet the delegation**.*

*The idea **where they will live** is not clear.*

### **8. The adverbial clause.**

Adverbial clauses perform the functions of different adverbial modifiers in complex sentences. They may occupy different positions in a complex sentence.

*If he comes, we shall go there.*

*We shall go there if he comes.*

According to their meaning adverbial clauses are classified as:

**1) Clauses of time.** Clauses of time show the time of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of time are introduced by the following conjunctions: *when, until, till, before, after, as soon, as, as long as, whenever* etc.

*We shall help them **when they come**. **When they come**, we shall help them.*

There are special types of adverbial clauses of time which are introduced by the conjunctions *when* and *than*. Conjunctions *when* and *than* are correlated with the adverbs *scarcely, hardly* and *no sooner* in the principal clause.

***Hardly/scarcely** had we entered the room, **when** the bell rang – Otağa daxil olmamışdıq ki, zəng çalındı. Biz otağa daxil olar-olmaz zəng çalındı.*

***No sooner** had we entered the room, **than** the bell rang – Otağa təzəcə daxil olmuşduq ki, zəng çalındı.*

Generally, in principal clauses inversion takes place. But without inversion they can also be used.

*We had **hardly (scarcely)** entered the room **when** the bell rang. We had **no sooner** entered the room **than** the bell rang.*



Adverbial clauses of time are never used in the future tense forms.

*As soon as*

*When*

*After*

*she arrives, we shall leave the station.*

*Before*

*Till*

*Until*

**2) Clauses of place.** Clauses of place show the place of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of place are introduced by the following conjunctions “*where*” or *wherever*”.

*He came out **where they had stopped.***

***Wherever he goes, he can't find them.***

**3) Clauses of cause.** Clauses of cause show the cause of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of cause are introduced by the following conjunctions *because, as, since* etc.

***As it is raining, we have to take a taxi.***

***Since you are ill, you may stay at home.***

***We couldn't meet the guests **because we were very busy.*****

**4) Clauses of condition.** Clauses of condition show the condition of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of condition are introduced by the following conjunctions *if, in case, unless, on condition* etc.

***In case we meet, I'll tell you everything.***

***We shall discuss the problem **if we have enough time.*****

**5) Clauses of purpose.** Clauses of purpose show the purpose of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of purpose are introduced by the following conjunctions *in order that, so that, lest, that* etc.

***Speak loudly **so that I can hear.*****

***He put the book on the table **so that I could take it.*****

***He spoke slowly **so that I might understand him.*****

**6) Clauses of result.** Clauses of result show the result of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of result are introduced by the following conjunctions *so that, so...that, such...that* etc.

*It is so hot **that nobody wants to work.***

*The book was very interesting **so that I read it for a short time.***

*He had **such a bad dog that no one dared to go near his house.***

**7) Clauses of concession.** Clauses of concession show the concession of the action in the principal clause. Clauses of concession are introduced by the following conjunctions *though, although, even if, even though* etc.

***Although he has good manners, I don't like him.***

*He helped the old man **though he was ill.***

***Even if you do your best, you won't do anything about it.***

**8) Clauses of comparison.** Clauses of comparison clause. Clauses of comparison are introduced by the following conjunctions *as, as...as, than, as if, as though* etc.

*We did the work **as he told us.***

*They ran **as quickly as they could.***

*The book is more interesting **than we think.***

*My friend worked **as hard as I did.***

## Chapter XII

### DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

#### 1. General notion

Direct speech is the exact words of the speaker. Remarks are placed between inverted commas, and a comma or colon is placed immediately before the remark. Direct speech may be in the following forms: statements (declarative sentences), general questions, special questions, imperative sentences, suggestions, greetings, etc.

*He said, "I live in London".*

*She said, "What does he do?"*

*She said, "Can you tell me the truth?"*

*He said, "Stay here till I come back".*

*He said, "No". He said, "Yes".*

*She said, "Glad to see you at my place".*

*He said, "Good morning".*

Indirect speech is the reported speech of the speaker. In other words, when using indirect speech we report in our own words what another person has said.

*He said that he lived in London.*

*She asked me what he did.*

#### 2. Rules for changing from direct into indirect speech

*1. Indirect statements.* For changing statements from direct to indirect the following rules must be observed:

- (1) The quotation marks and the comma (or colon) are omitted.
- (2) The persons are shifted according to sense.

(3) The conjunction *that* may or may not be introduced.

(4) If the reporting verb is in The Present Indefinite Tense Form while changing direct speech to indirect speech the tense form remains unchanged.

(5) *Say* can be used with both direct and indirect speech. But if *say* is followed by an object then *tell* is used instead of *say* without the particle *to*.

*He says, "Tom lives in the village".*

*He says (that) Tom lives in the village.*

*He says, "She will go to the city".*

*He says (that) she will go to the city.*

*He says to me, "Tom lives in the city".*

*He tells me that Tom lives in the city.*

**NOTE:** Tell is never used in the following cases.

*He tells, "Tom lives in the village".*

*He tells (that) Tom lives in the village.*

(6) If the reporting verb is in the past tense the following shifting of tenses takes place according to the rules of the sequence of tenses:

1) The Present Indefinite, The Present Continuous, The Present Perfect, The Present Perfect Continuous tense forms are changed into the corresponding past tense forms.

2) The Past Indefinite, The Past Continuous tense forms are changed into corresponding past tense forms.

3) The Future Indefinite, The Future Continuous, The Future Perfect, The Future Perfect Continuous tense forms are changed into the corresponding Future in the Past tense forms:

*He said, "I speak English". He said that he spoke English.*

*He said, "I am sitting". He said that he was sitting.*

*He said, "I have seen him". He said that he had seen him.*

*He said, "I have been sitting for ten minutes". He said that he had been sitting for ten minutes.*

*He said, "I saw him". He said that he had seen him.*

*He said, "I was sitting at that time". He said that he had been sitting at that time.*

*He said, "I **shall** go to London". He said that he would go to London.*

*He said, "We **shall have done** it by ten". He said that they would have done it by ten.*

The Past Perfect and The Past Perfect Continuous tense forms remains unchanged.

*He said, "We **had copied** the text by six". He said that they **had copied** the text by six.*

(7) The Past Indefinite, The Past Continuous remains unchanged in the following cases:

(a) When a definite past moment is indicated:

*He said, "We **met in 1996**". He said that they **met in 1996**.*

(b) When the time of the principal clause is fixed by an adverbial clause of time:

*He said, "I saw my friend **when I was in the village**".*

*He said that he **saw** his friend when he was in the village.*

*He said, "I **met** him when I was **crossing** the street".*

*He said that he **met** him when he was **crossing** the street.*

**NOTE:** In the principal clause The Past Indefinite may be changed into the Past Perfect tense form.

*He said, "I saw my friend when I was in the village".*

*He said that he **had seen** his friend when he was in the village.*

(8) *Must* is generally replaced by *had to* if it expresses necessity arising out of circumstances.

*He said, "I **must** help him".*

*He said that he **had to** help him.*

*Must* is replaced by *was to*, *were to* if it expresses arrangement or a kind of order.

*He said, "We **must** gather at ten".*

*He said that they **were to** gather at ten.*

*Must* remains unchanged if it expresses advice or order.

*The man said to the boy, "You **must** be more careful".*

*The man told the boy that he **must** be more careful.*

*He said to me, "You **must** do it at once".*

*He told me that I **must** do it at once.*

(9) The following words denoting nearness are changed into corresponding words denoting distance:

*now – indi → then – onda*

*today – bu gün → that day – o gün*

*tomorrow – sabah → the newt day – növbəti gün*

*yesterday – dünən → the day before, the previous day – bir gün əvvəl*

*ago – əvvəl → before – əvvəl, tez*

*next year – gələn il → the following year – növbəti il*

*here – bura, burada → there – ora, orada*

*this – bu → taht – o*

*these – bunlar → those – onlar*

*He said, “I have read **this** book **yesterday**.”*

*He said that he had read **that** book **the day before**.”*

*He said, “I am reading a book **now**?”*

*He said that he was reading a book **then**.”*

*He said, “I shall copy **this** article **tomorrow**”.*

*He said that he would copy **that** article **the next day**.”*

*He said, “We left the village five days **ago**”.*

*He said that they had left the village five days **before**.”*

2. *Indirect questions.* a) *Indirect general questions.* General questions are introduced by the conjunction *if* or *whether*. After the conjunction the declarative sentence is used according to the rules of the sequence of tenses. Indirect questions are generally introduced by the verb “*to ask*”. In more official style the verb *to inquire* is used:

*He said, “Do you like coffee?”*

*He asked **if** I liked coffee. – He asked **whether** I liked coffee.*

*He said, “Did you see him yesterday?”*

*He asked **if** I had seen him the day before. – He asked **whether** I had seen him the day before.*

*He asked, “Will you come tomorrow?”*



*He asked if I should come the next day. – He asked whether I should come the next day.*

The auxiliary *do* is not used in positive indirect questions. But it is used in the corresponding negative indirect questions.

*She asked, “Don’t you live here?”*

*She asked if I didn’t live there.*

b) *Special questions.* Special questions are introduced by the same adverb or pronoun that introduces a direct question. After the declarative sentence is used according to the rules of the sequence of tenses.

*He said to Ann, “Where do you live?”*

*He asked Ann where Ann lived.*

*He said to me, “What do you know about him?”*

*He asked me what I knew about him.*

*He said to her, “When did you see them?”*

*He asked her when she had seen them.*

3. *Indirect orders.* Orders or request are introduced by the following verb: “*to tell*”, “*to order*”, “*to ask*”, “*to command*”. The choice of the verb is determined by the character of the order. An order in indirect speech is changed into the infinitive.

*He said, “Take the book, Tom”.*

*He told **Tom to take** the book.*

*The man said, “Leave the room, boy”.*

*The man told **the boy to leave** the room.*

*The boy said, “Give me a pen please”.*

*The boy asked the man to give him a pen.*

In the negative form the particle “*not*” precedes the infinitive.

*He said, “**Don’t** go there, son”.*

*He ordered **his son not to go** there.*

*He said, “**Don’t** come tomorrow, boy”.*

*He told **the boy not to come** the next day.*

4. *Indirect offers, suggestions and advice.* When changing offers and suggestions into indirect speech, we use the verbs *to offer* (*təklif etmək*), *to suggest* (*təklif etmək*), *to advise* (*məsləhət etmək*).

*He said to her, “Shall I help you?”*

**He offered** to help her.

The teacher said to the pupils, "Prepare your lessons better".

The teacher **suggested** that the pupils should prepare their lessons better.

The doctor said to the boy, "You must stay at home, You have a temperature".

The doctor **advised** the boy to stay at home because he had a temperature.

There is a difference between *to offer* and *to suggest*. The person who makes an order intends to do the action himself, but the person who makes a suggestion doesn't intend to do the action himself.

5. *Indirect exclamations*. When exclamations are changed into indirect speech, one of the following words may be used depending on the purpose of the sentence: *joyfully* (*sevinclə*), *sadly* (*gəmgin*), *regretfully* (*təəssiüflə*), *with bitterness* (*acı-acı*), *in surprise* (*təəccüblə*).

(1) Joy (*sevinc*)

He cried, "Hurrah, we have won the competition!"

He cried **joyfully** that they had won the competition.

He said, "Oh! My best friend has come".

He said **joyfully** that his best friend had come.

(2) Grief (*kədər*)

He said, "I am sorry. I have lost my money".

He said **sadly** (**with grief, with deep sadness, sorrowfully**) that he had lost his money.

(3) Gratitude (*təşəkkür*)

He said to her, "Oh, thank you".

He thanked her warmly (*with all his heart*).

(4) Apology (*üzrxahlıq*)

"I beg your pardon".

He said to her, "Excuse me".

"I am sorry".

He begged her pardon.

He asked to excuse him.

He apologized.

6. *Greetings and leave-takings in indirect speech.*

When changing greetings and leave-takings into indirect speech, we use such verbs as *to greet, to welcome, to bid*.

*He said to us, "Good morning, comrades".*

*He **greeted** us.*

*He said to us, "Good bye".*

*He **bade** us good bye (to bid-bade-bidden).*

*He said to them, "Happy to see you at my place".*

*He **welcomed** them warmly.*

7. *Affirmative and negative answers in indirect speech.*

*She said, "Yes, it is".*

a) *She answered in the affirmative.*

b) *She answered affirmatively.*

c) *She gave an affirmative answer.*

*She said, "No, it isn't".*

a) *She answered in the negative.*

b) *She answered negatively.*

c) *She gave a negative answer.*

*She said to me, "You are right".*

*She agreed with me.*

*She said to me, "No, you are wrong".*

a) *She didn't agree with me.*

b) *She disagreed with me.*

### 3. The list of the irregular verbs

Infinitive	Past indefinite form	Participle II	Participle I
1. arise [ə`raɪz] – qalxmaq	arose [ə`rouz]	arisen [ə`rɪzn]	arising [ə`raɪzɪŋ]
2. be [bi:] – olmaq	was [wɔz] were [wə:]	been [bi:n]	being [`bi: ɪŋ]
3. bear [beə] – doğmaq, dözmək	bore [bo:]	born [bo:n]	bearing [`beərɪŋ]
4. become [br`kʌm] – olmaq	became [br`keɪm]	become [br`kʌm]	becoming [br`kʌmɪŋ]
5. begin [br`gɪn] – başlamaq	began [br`gæŋ]	begun [br`gʌn]	beginning [br`gɪnɪŋ]
6. bend [bend] – əymək	bent [bent]	bent [bent]	bending [`bendɪŋ]
7. bind [baɪnd] – bağlamaq	bound [baund]	bound [baund]	binding [`bamdɪŋ]
8. bite [baɪt] – dişləmək	bit [bɪt]	bitten [bɪtɪn]	biting [`baɪtɪŋ]
9. bleed [bli:d] – qanamaq	bled [bled]	bled [bled]	bleeding [`bli:dɪŋ]
10. blow [blou] – üfürmək	blew [blu:]	blown [bloun]	blowing [`blouɪŋ]
11. break [breɪk] – sındırmaq	broke [brouk]	broken [`broukən]	breaking [`breɪkɪŋ]
12. bring [brɪŋ] – gətirmək	brought [brɔ:t]	brought [brɔ:t]	bringing [`brɪŋɪŋ]
13. build [bɪld] – tikmək	built [bɪlt]	built [bɪlt]	building [`bɪldɪŋ]
14. burn [bɜ:n] – yandırmaq	burnt [bɜ:nt]	burnt [bɜ:nt]	burning [`bɜ:nɪŋ]
15. buy [baɪ] – almaq	bought [bo:t]	bought [bo:t]	buying [`baɪɪŋ]
16. catch [kætʃ] – tutmaq	caught [kɔ:t]	caught [kɔ:t]	catching [kætʃɪŋ]
17. choose [tʃu:z] – seçmək	chose [tʃouz]	chosen [`tʃouzɪn]	choosing [`tʃu:zɪŋ]
18. come [kʌm] – gəlmək	came [keɪm]	come [kʌm]	coming [`kʌmɪŋ]
19. cost [kɔst] – qiyməti olmaq	cost [kɔst]	cost [kɔst]	costing [`kɔstɪŋ]
20. cut [kʌt] – kəsmək	cut [kʌt]	cut [kʌt]	cutting [`kʌtɪŋ]
21. dig [dɪg] – qazmaq	dug [dʌg]	dug [dʌg]	digging [`dɪgɪŋ]
22. do [du:] – etmək	did [dɪd]	done [dʌn]	doing [du:ɪŋ]
23. draw [drɔ:] – çəkmək	drew [dru:]	drawn [drɔ:n]	drawing

			[ˈdrə:mɪŋ]
24. dream [dri:m] – arzulamaq	dreamt [dremt]	dreamt [dremt]	dreaming [ˈdri:mɪŋ]
25. drink [driŋk] – içmək	drank [dræŋk]	drunk [drʌŋk]	drinking [ˈdriŋkɪŋ]
26. drive [draɪv] – sürmək, qovmaq	drove [drouv]	driven [ˈdri:vɪn]	driving [ˈdraɪvɪŋ]
27. eat [i:t] – yemək	ate [et]	eaten [ˈi:tn]	eating [ˈi:tnɪŋ]
28. fall [fɔ:l] – düşmək	fell [fel]	fallen [ˈfɔ:lɪn]	falling [ˈfɔ:lɪŋ]
29. feed [fri:d] – yedirtmək	fed [fed]	fed [fed]	feeding [ˈfi:di]
30. feel [fi:l] – hiss etmək	felt [felt]	felt [felt]	feeling [ˈfi:lɪŋ]
31. find [faɪnd] – tapmaq	found [faund]	found [faund]	finding [ˈfaɪndɪŋ]
32. fight [faɪt] – vuruşmaq	fought [fɔ:t]	fought [fɔt]	fighting [ˈfaɪtnɪŋ]
33. fly [flaɪ] – uçmaq	flew [flu:]	flown [floun]	flying [ˈflaɪɪŋ]
34. forget [fəˈget] – unutmək	forgot [fəˈgɒt]	forgotten [fəˈgɒtn]	forgetting [fəˈgetnɪŋ]
35. freeze [fri:z] – bağışlamaq	frouze [frouz]	frozen [ˈfrouzn]	freezing [ˈfri:zɪŋ]
36. get [get] – əldə etmək	got [gɒt]	got [gɒt]	getting [ˈgetnɪŋ]
37. give [gɪv] – vermək	gave [geɪv]	given [gɪvn]	giving [ˈgɪvɪŋ]
38. go [gəʊ] – getmək	went [went]	gone [gɒn]	going [ˈgəʊɪŋ]
39. grow [grəʊ] – böyümək	grew [gru:]	grown [groun]	growing [ˈgrəʊɪŋ]
40. hang [hæŋ] – asmaq	hung [hʌŋ]	hung [hʌŋ]	hanging [ˈhæŋɪŋ]
41. have [hæv] – malik olmaq	had [hæd]	had [hæd]	having [ˈhævɪŋ]
42. hear [hɪə] – eşitmək	heard [hɜ:d]	heard [hɜ:d]	hearing [ˈhɪəriŋ]
43. hide [haɪd] – gizlətmək	hid [hɪd]	hidden [ˈhɪdn]	hidig [ˈhaɪdnɪŋ]
44. hit [hɪt] – zərbə vurmaq	hit [hɪt]	hit [hɪt]	hitting [ˈhɪtnɪŋ]
45. hold [həʊld] – tutmaq	hid [hɪd]	hidden [ˈhɪdn]	hidig [ˈhaɪdnɪŋ]
46. hurt [hɜ:t] – zədələmək, incitmək, yaralamaq	hurt [hɜ:t]	hurt [hɜ:t]	hurting [ˈhɜ:tnɪŋ]
47. keep [ki:p] – saxlamaq	kept [kept]	kept [kept]	keeping [ˈki:pɪŋ]
48. know [nəʊ] – bilmək	knew [nju:]	known [nəʊn]	knowing [ˈnəʊnɪŋ]
49. lay [leɪ] – qoymaq	laid [leɪd]	laid [leɪd]	laying [ˈleɪɪŋ]
50. lead [li:d] – rəhbərlik etmək	led [led]	led [led]	leading [ˈli:dnɪŋ]
51. learn [lɜ:n] – öyrənmək	learnt [lɜ:nt]	learnt [lɜ:nt]	learning [ˈlɜ:nɪŋ]
52. leave [li:v] – tərk etmək	left [left]	left [left]	leaving [li:vɪŋ]

53. lend [lend] – borc vermək	lent [lent]	lent [lent]	lending [ˈlendɪŋ]
54. let [let] – icazə vermək	let [let]	let [let]	letting [ˈletɪŋ]
55. lie [laɪ] – uzanmaq	lay [leɪ]	lain [leɪn]	lying [ˈlaɪɪŋ]
56. light [laɪt] – yandırmaq	lit [lɪt]	lit [lɪt]	lighting [ˈlaɪtɪŋ]
57. lose [luːz] – itirmək	lost [lɒst]	lost [lɒst]	losing [ˈluːzɪŋ]
58. make [meɪk] – etmək	made [meɪd]	made [meɪd]	making [ˈmeɪkɪŋ]
59. mean [miːn] – mənə daşımaq	meant [ment]	meant [ment]	meaning [ˈmeɪnɪŋ]
50. meet [miːt] – rast gəlmək	met [met]	met [met]	meeting [ˈmiːtɪŋ]
61. pay [peɪ] – ödəmək	paid [peɪd]	paid [peɪd]	paying [ˈpeɪɪŋ]
62. put [pʊt] – qoymaq	put [pʊt]	put [pʊt]	putting [ˈpʊtɪŋ]
63. read [riːd] – oxumaq	read [red]	read [red]	reading [ˈriːdɪŋ]
64. ride [raɪd] – atla getmək	rode [roud]	ridden [ˈrɪdn]	riding [ˈraɪdɪŋ]
65. ring [rɪŋ] – zəng etmək	rang [ræŋ]	rung [rʌŋ]	ringing [ˈrɪŋɪŋ]
66. rise [raɪz] – qalxmaq	rose [rouz]	risen [ˈrɪzn]	rising [ˈraɪzɪŋ]
67. run [rʌn] – qaçmaq, yüyürmək	ran [ræn]	run [rʌn]	running [ˈrʌnɪŋ]
68. say [seɪ] – demək	said [sed]	said [sed]	saying [ˈseɪɪŋ]
69. see [siː] – görmək	saw [sɔː]	seen [siːn]	seeing [ˈsiːɪŋ]
70. sell [sel] – satmaq	sold [sould]	sold [sould]	selling [ˈselɪŋ]
71. send [send] – göndərmək	sent [snet]	sent [snet]	sending [ˈsendɪŋ]
72. set [set] – batmaq (günəş)	set [set]	set [set]	setting [ˈsetɪŋ]
73. sew [sou] – tikmək	sewed [soud]	sewn/sewed [soun/soud]	sewing [ˈsouɪŋ]
74. shake [ʃeɪk] – silkələmək	shook [ʃuk]	shaken [ˈʃeɪkən]	shaking [ˈʃeɪkɪŋ]
75. shine [ʃaɪn] – parlammaq	shone [ʃɒn]	shone [ʃɒn]	shining [ˈʃaɪnɪŋ]
76. shoot [ʃuːt] – (tüfəng) atmaq	shot [ʃɒt]	shot [ʃɒt]	shooting [ˈʃuːtɪŋ]
77. show [ʃou] – göstərmək	showed [ʃoud]	showed/shown [ʃoud/ʃoun]	showing [ˈʃouɪŋ]
78. shut [ʃʌt] – örtmək	shut [ʃʌt]	shut [ʃʌt]	shutting [ˈʃɪtɪŋ]
79. sing [sɪŋ] – nəğmə oxumaq	sang [sæŋ]	sung [sʌŋ]	singing [ˈsɪŋɪŋ]
80. sink [sɪŋk] – batmaq	sank [sæŋk]	sunk [sʌŋk]	sinking [ˈsɪŋkɪŋ]
81. sit [sɪt] – oturmaq	sat [sæt]	sat [sæt]	sitting [ˈsɪtɪŋ]
82. sleep [sliːp] – yatmaq	slept [slept]	slept [slept]	sleeping [ˈsliːpɪŋ]
83. smell [smel] – iyələmək, iyələnmək	smelt [smelt]	smelt [smelt]	smelling [ˈsmelɪŋ]

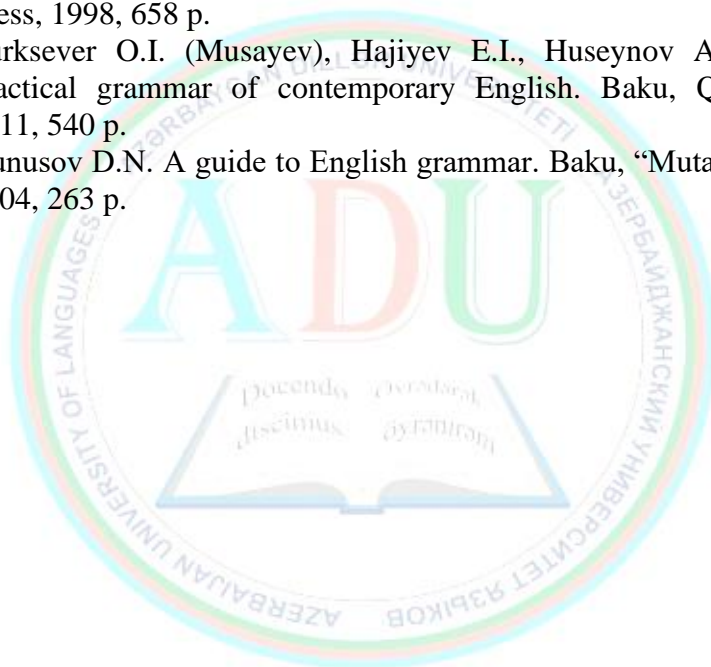


84. speak [spi:k] – danışmaq	spoke [spouk]	spoken [ˈspoukən]	speaking [ˈspi:kɪŋ]
85. spend [spend] – xərcləmək	spent [spent]	spent [spent]	spending [ˈspendɪŋ]
86. spoil [spɔɪl] – xarab etmək	spoilt [spɔɪlt]	spoilt [spɔɪlt]	spoiling [ˈspɔɪlɪŋ]
87. spread [spred] – yay(ıl)maq	spread [spred]	spread [spred]	spreading [ˈspredɪŋ]
88. stand [stænd] – durmaq	stood [stud]	stood [stud]	standing [ˈstændɪŋ]
89. steal [sti:l] – oğurlamaq	stole [stou]l	stolen [ˈstoulən]	stealing [ˈsti:lɪŋ]
90. strike [straɪk] – vurmaq	struck [strʌk]	1) stricken [ˈstrɪkən] 2) struck [strʌk]	striking [ˈstraɪkɪŋ]
91. swear [swɛə] – and içmək	swore [swɔː]	sworn [swɔːn]	swearing [ˈswɛərɪŋ]
92. swim [swɪm] – üzmək	swam [swæm]	swum [swʌm]	swimming [ˈswɪmɪŋ]
93. take [teɪk] – götürmək	took [tuk]	taken [ˈteɪkən]	taking [ˈteɪkɪŋ]
94. teach [ti:tʃ] – öyrətmək	taught [tɔ:t]	taught [tɔ:t]	teaching [ˈti:tʃɪŋ]
95. tear [teə] – cırmaq	tore [tɔː]	torn [tɔːn]	tearing [ˈteərɪŋ]
96. tell [tel] – demək	told [tould]	told [tould]	telling [telɪŋ]
97. think [θɪŋk] – fikirləşmək	thought [θɔ:t]	thought [θɔ:t]	thinking [θɪŋkɪŋ]
98. throw [θrou] – atmaq, tullamaq	threw [θru:]	thrown [θroun]	throwing [ˈθrouɪŋ]
99. understand [ˌʌndəˈstænd] – anlamaq, başa düşmək	understood [ˌʌndəˈstud]	understood [ˌʌndəˈstud]	understanding [ˌʌndəˈstændɪŋ]
100. wake [weɪk] – oyatmaq, oyanmaq	woke/waked [wouk/weɪkt]	waked/woken [weɪkt/woukn]	waking [weɪkɪŋ]
101. wear [weə] – geyinmək	wore [wɔː]	worn [wɔːn]	wearing [ˈweərɪŋ]
102. weep [wi:p] – ağlamaq	wept [wept]	wept [wept]	weeping [ˈwi:pɪŋ]
103. win [wɪn] – qalib gəlmək	won [wʌn]	won [wʌn]	winning [ˈwɪnɪŋ]
104. write [raɪt] – yazmaq	wrote [rout]	written [ˈrɪtɪn]	writing [ˈraɪtɪŋ]

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