

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ  
НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ ТЕХНІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ  
«ХАРКІВСЬКИЙ ПОЛІТЕХНІЧНИЙ ІНСТИТУТ»

## **ТЕКСТИ ЛЕКЦІЙ**

до лекційних занять з курсу

**«Зіставна граматика англійської та української мов»**

**за темою «Самостійні частини мови. Ч. 1»**

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## ВСТУП

Тексти лекцій з дисципліни «Зіставна граматики англійської та української мов» є оглядом основних проблем морфології та синтаксису сучасної англійської мови. Вступ у теоретичні проблеми граматики здійснюється на фоні узагальненого опису основ її граматичної будови. Особлива увага приділяється аналізу саме теоретичних граматичних явищ на конкретному текстовому матеріалі з метою розвитку у студентів професійного лінгвістичного мислення.

Ця дисципліна є більш глибоким вивченням морфологічних та синтаксичних особливостей англійської мови та спонукає студентів до детальнішого дослідження граматичних особливостей англійської мови та специфіки її функціонування, пошуку аналогів в українській мові, зіставлення граматичних конструкцій двох мов. Ця дисципліна є логічним, проте більш глибоким вивченням граматики, дослідженням її теоретичної складової на базі набутих знань, які були отримані на заняттях із практичної граматики.

Структурно тексти лекцій складаються з 6 розділів, які охоплюють всі самостійні частини англійської мови.

# 1. NOUN

## What is a Noun?

The simplest definition of a noun is a *thing* and nouns are the basic building blocks of sentences. These things can represent a person, animal, place, idea, emotion – almost *anything* that you can think of. *Dog, Sam, love, phone, Chicago, courage* and *spaceship* are all nouns. The more nouns you know in a language, the better you will be able to communicate your ideas. Here, we'll take a closer look at what makes a noun a noun, and we'll provide some examples of how nouns are used.

Noun examples: respect, faith, apple, seashore, peanut, motorcycle

Noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

1. The **boy** and **girl** were holding **hands** as they crossed the **bridge** on the **way** to **town**.
2. I love watching **my cat** play with the pink **yarn**.
3. **It** is raining! **Everyone**, grab **your umbrella** and rain **hat** and watch out for the **puddles**!

## 1.1. Categories of Nouns

There are several categories of nouns, and there can be an overlap across the categories. For example, there are *common* and *proper* nouns, and *concrete* and *abstract* nouns, yet some nouns are both concrete and common, or concrete and proper. It will become clear as you read on.

*Common* nouns are the words that refer to most general things: country, evening, laughter, puppy, umbrella

Common noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- Cathy loves the **weekends** in the **country**.
- We enjoy **swimming** after **breakfast**.
- The **cup** fell and broke.

**Proper** nouns are the name that identifies someone or something, a person or a place. Proper nouns are capitalized. John is a proper noun, since the word John represents a particular, single example of a thing, John.

Proper noun examples: Mary, Jimmy, Aunt Audrey, Honda, Philadelphia

Proper noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- **Emily** loved spending time with her **Aunt Nancy** in **Paris**.
- **Buick** and **Jeep** are two important carmakers.
- We visited **Lake Erie**, which separates the **United States** and **Canada**.

**Concrete** nouns represent a thing that is real and tangible: *pig, person, rock, smell, air, soup, Larry* are all concrete nouns.

Concrete noun examples: cup, computer, diamond, rollercoaster, shampoo, Debby

Concrete noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- The **person** threw the **rock** across the **yard**.
- **My dog, Oreo**, jumped in the **air** and caught the **ball**!
- Can **you** smell the **soup, John**?

An **abstract** noun represents a thing that is more like a concept or idea: *love, integrity, democracy, friendship, beauty, knowledge* are examples of abstract nouns.

Abstract noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- **Love** and **friendship** are equally important.
- **Beauty** is in the eye of the beholder.

- Your **mind** can know a million things.

Nouns can also be categorized as *countable* or *uncountable*.

A **countable** noun is a thing can be numbered or counted: airplane, sock, bowl, noodle, teacher, as in two airplanes, three socks, 1000 noodles.

Countable noun examples: peach, horse, shirt, telescope

Countable noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- There are five **dogs** in the street.
- I bought three **tons** of coal.
- Margaret has six **pairs** of blue **sandals**.

*Uncountable* nouns can have a quantity or amount but cannot be actually counted: water, music, clothes, understanding. In the second example above, *tons* is a countable noun, but *coal* is not. Coal is referred to as an **uncountable** noun.

Uncountable noun examples: hate, confidence, attractiveness, wisdom

Uncountable noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- **Love** is in the air.
- The four elements are **air**, **earth**, **fire** and **water**.
- Her **humor** knows no **bounds**.

*Collective* nouns refer to a group of people or things: audience, team, bunch, family, class. When speaking of collective nouns, Americans consider them as singular, using singular verbs with them, such as the group dances happily. When speaking British English, both singular verbs and plural verbs might be used, as in the group dance crazily before the Queen.

Collective noun examples: government, jury, team, bunch, school, class, and room (the people in the room or building)

Collective noun examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- The **team** threw **confetti** when it was over.
- Steve buys the **band** some sandwiches.
- Meredith told the **class** she was getting married.

As mentioned above, when we talk of categories of nouns, some nouns can be described as being in more than one category. Some nouns are concrete and countable, for example, such as raindrops and wedding rings, while some are proper and uncountable, such as the Atlantic Ocean and Alaska.

## 1.2. Forms of Nouns

The same noun can appear in different forms, depending on how it is used.

A countable noun can be **singular** or **plural**. Most nouns in English form the plural by adding *-s* or *-es* to the noun, although there are some exceptions:

- One dog, two **dogs**, red dog, blue dog.
- I missed not just one bus today, but two **buses**.
- New York City is one of the grandest **cities** in the world.

Uncountable nouns and proper nouns are always considered to be singular:

- The **air** in the countryside and in the city is clean and fresh (not the **airs**).
- All **knowledge** is a good thing (not **knowledges**).
- **Florida** has mostly warm weather in the winter.

Nouns can also indicate **ownership**. This form of a noun is called a **possessive** noun, and is indicated by an apostrophe and the letter *-s*. It is equivalent to using the word *of* and the noun.

- The **light's** color is red. (or: The color of the light is red.)
- The **country's** flag has blue stripes. (or: The flag of the country has blue stripes.)
- The **hunters'** guns were loaded. (or: The guns of the hunters were loaded.)

Note that when the noun already ends with *-s*, possession is indicated by adding only an apostrophe – *hunters'* guns, not *hunters's* guns.

A noun can be used as the **subject** of a sentence, or in another capacity as an **object**:

- **John** is nice. – John is the *subject* of the sentence
- I saw **John** – John is the simple (direct) *object* of the sentence.
- I gave **John** the phone. – John is the indirect *object* of the sentence.
- I gave the phone to **John**. – John is the *object* of the preposition *to*.

### 1.3. Additional Info About Nouns

Sometimes nouns are used as **adjectives**, which is referred to as a **noun adjunct**. In fact, English is amazingly flexible in that almost any noun can also be used as an adjective, though sometimes the use is considered comical or slangy:

- **Ocean** view – Ocean describes the type of view you would see outside your window.
- **Jazz** concert – Jazz is specifying what kind of concert is being played.
- **Cheese** omelet – It's a certain type of omelet, eggs with cheese. Using a true adjective as in a *cheesy* omelet means any type of omelet (onion and peppers, mushroom) that has a lot of cheese.

- **Dog** tired – Really really tired – even though dogs aren’t known to be especially tired.
- **Fear** Factor – An example of using just any old word as a noun adjunct.

## 2. VERB

### What is a verb?

Verbs are the action words in a sentence that describe what the subject is doing. Along with nouns, verbs are the main part of a sentence or phrase, telling a story about what is taking place. In fact, without a verb, full thoughts can’t be properly conveyed, and even the simplest sentences, such as *Maria sings*, have one. Actually, a verb can be a sentence by itself, with the subject, in most case you, implied, such as, *Sing!* and *Drive!*

When learning the rules of grammar, schoolchildren are often taught that verbs are ‘doing’ words, meaning they signify the part of the sentence which explains the action taking place: *He ran away, she eats chocolate cake on Sundays, the horses gallop across the fields.* **Ran, eats** and **gallop** are the ‘action’ parts of those sentences, thus they are the verbs. However, it can be confusing because not all verbs are easily identifiable as action: *I know your name, Jack thought about it, we considered several applications.* These are non-action verbs, i.e. those that describe a state of being, emotion, possession, sense or opinion. Other non-action verbs include include **love, agree, feel, am, and have.**

### 2.1. How to Recognize a Verb

As you can see from the examples above, one clue to help you recognize a verb is its location compared to the subject. Verbs almost always come after a noun or pronoun. These nouns and pronouns are referred to as the subject. The

verb **thought** comes after the noun Jack, so the action Jack (subject) was taking was **thinking** (verb).

1. Mark **eats** his dinner quickly.
2. We **went** to the market.
3. You **write** neatly in your notebook.
4. They **thought** about all the prizes in the competition.

Here are some other ways to recognize verbs in a sentence:

1. If you're not sure if a word is a verb, ask yourself, "Can I do \_\_\_\_\_?"

Can I think, wonder, walk, yawn? Yes, so these are verbs.

2. You can also ask, "What is happening?"

In the sentence *Mark eats his dinner quickly*, what is happening? Eating is happening, so eating is the verb.

In the sentence *They thought about all the prizes* what is happening? Thought (thinking) is happening, so thought is the verb.

### **Physical Verbs – Definition and Examples**

Physical verbs are action verbs. They describe specific physical actions. If you can create a motion with your body or use a tool to complete an action, the word you use to describe it is most likely a physical verb. For example, *Joe sat in his chair*, *the dog breathes quickly after she chases her ball*, and *should we vote in the election?* Even when the action isn't very active, if the action is done by the body or a tool, consider it a physical verb.

## Physical Verb Examples

The physical verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- Let's **run** to the corner and back.
- I **hear** the train coming.
- **Call** me when you're finished with class.

## Mental Verbs – Definition and Examples

Mental verbs have meanings that are related to concepts such as discovering, understanding, thinking, or planning. In general, a mental verb refers to a cognitive state.

Mental verbs have meanings that are related to concepts such as discovering, understanding, thinking, or planning. In general, a mental verb refers to a cognitive state.

## Mental Verb Examples

The mental verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- I **know** the answer.
- She **recognized** me from across the room.
- Do you **believe** everything people tell you?

## States of Being Verbs – Definition and Examples

Also known as linking verbs, state of being verbs describe conditions or situations that exist. State of being verbs are inactive since no action is being performed. These verbs, forms of to **be**, such as am, is, are, are usually complemented by adjectives.

## States of Being Verb Examples

The state of being verbs in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- I **am** a student.
- We **are** circus performers.
- Please **is** quiet.

## 2.2. Types of Verbs

There are many types of verbs. In addition to the main categories of physical verbs, mental verbs, and state of being verbs, there are several other types of verbs. In fact, there are more than ten different types of verbs that are grouped together by function.

### 1. Action Verbs

Action verbs express specific actions and are used any time you want to show action or discuss someone doing something. It's important to remember that the action does not have to be physical.

Action verb examples:

1. Run
2. Dance
3. Slide
4. Jump
5. Think
6. Do
7. Go
8. Stand
9. Smile
10. Listen.

The action verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I **run** faster than David.

He **does** it well.

She **thinks** about poetry all day long

## 2. Transitive

## Verbs

Transitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities that relate or affect someone or something else. These other things are generally direct objects, nouns or pronouns that are affected by the verb, though some verbs can also take an indirect object, such as show, take, and make. In a sentence with a transitive verb, someone or something receives the action of the verb.

Transitive verb examples:

1. Love
2. Respect
3. Tolerate
4. Believe
5. Maintain.

The transitive verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Gary **ate** the cookies.

The transitive verb is *ate*, Gary is the subject, because it is Gary who is doing the eating, and *the cookies* are the direct object, because it is the cookies that are being eaten. Other examples:

He **kicked** John.

John **punches** him.

They **sold** the tickets.

Examples of verbs used with both direct and indirect objects:

They **sell** him the tickets.

In this sentence, *the tickets* are the direct object while *him* is the indirect object.

Mary **baked** her mother a pie.

In this sentence, *a pie* is the direct object while *her mother* is the indirect object.

### 3. Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities. They are different from transitive verbs because there is no direct object following an intransitive verb.

Intransitive verb examples:

1. Walk
2. Laugh
3. Cough
4. Play
5. Run

The intransitive verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

We **travelled** to London.

The intransitive verb is *travelled*, the subject is *we*, because *we* are doing the travelling, but *London* is not a direct object because London is not receiving the action of the verb. Other examples:

I **sneeze** in the morning.

He **arrived** with moments to spare.

Kathryn **sat** away from the others.

John **eats** before leaving for school.

The last example shows that the verb *eats* can be both transitive and intransitive depending on whether there is a direct object or not. If the sentence read: *John eats the cookies before leaving for school*, *eats* would be transitive as there is a direct object – *the cookies*.

By the way, some verbs can be both transitive and intransitive. These verbs include: start, leave, change, live, stop.

#### **4. Auxiliary Verbs**

Auxiliary verbs are also known as helping verbs and are used together with a main verb to show the verb's tense or to form a question or negative. Common examples of auxiliary verbs include *have*, *might*, *will*. These auxiliary verbs give some context to the main verb, for example, letting the reader know when the action took place.

Auxiliary verb examples:

1. Would
2. Should

3. Do
4. Can
5. Did
6. Could
7. May

The auxiliary verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I **will** go home after football practice.

The auxiliary verb **will** is telling us that the action of the main verb *go* is going to take place in the future – *after football practice* has ended. If the auxiliary verb **will** was removed, we get the sentence:

I **go** home after football practice.

In this case, there is no definite time frame for the action. The sentence suggests that going home after football practice is just something the subject *I generally* does. Other examples:

I **may** dance with you later.

We **did** consider Bryan's feelings.

Jenny **has** spoken her final words.

In addition, we can sometimes use the auxiliary very before the pronoun to make a question:

**Might** you dance with me later?

**Did** we consider Bryan's feelings?

**Has** Jenny spoken her final words?

Also, auxiliary verbs are used to help form negative statements, with the use of words like *not* and *never*. These will usually split the auxiliary and main verbs:

I **may** never dance with you again.

We **did** not consider Bryan's feelings.

Jenny **has** not spoken her final words.

## 5. Stative Verbs

Stative verbs can be recognized because they express a state rather than an action. They typically relate to thoughts, emotions, relationships, senses, states of being, and measurements. The best way to think about stative verbs is that they are verbs that describe things that are not actions. The stative verbs are all expressing a state: A state of doubting, a state of believing, a state of wanting. These states of being are often temporary.

The stative verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

The doctor **disagrees** with your analysis.

Disagree is a stative verb here, as it describes the doctor's state of being – disagreement.

John **doubts** the doctor's opinion.

I **believe** the doctor is right.

She **wanted** another opinion.

## 6. Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are auxiliary verbs that are used to express abilities, possibilities, permissions, and obligations.

Modal verb examples:

1. Can
2. Must
3. May
4. Should
5. Would

The modal verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

He **can** shoot a three-point shot easily.

The auxiliary verb *can* is expressing an ability, suggesting that shooting a three-point shot is a skill the subject possesses.

Please note that in the case of *should* and *must* in the examples below, the modal verbs are expressing obligations, whereas *would* and *may* are expressing possibilities.

I **should** go home.

You **must** not delay.

Sally **would** not recommend the sushi.

David **may** be late.

## 7. Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal verbs aren't single words; instead, they are combinations of words that are used together to take on a different meaning to that of the original verb. There are many examples of phrasal verbs, some of which have colloquial meanings, such as

make up, hand in, bring up, point out, look forward to. Each time the verb takes the extra word(s) it takes on a new meaning. For example, *make* without the *up* expresses that something is being created, whereas with *make up*, the suggestion is that there are some lies or a fantastical element to the story and *make out* can mean either to grasp or see something difficult, or to kiss passionately.

Phrasal verb examples:

1. Run out
2. Go all out
3. Make out
4. Hand out
5. Bring out
6. Face up
7. Think through

The phrasal verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Mary **looked forward to** her high school reunion.

The verb *looked* has taken on *forward to* to become a phrasal verb meaning to be excited about or eagerly await something.

He **brought up** the same points again and again.

Leroy **handed in** the wallet to the police.

I **make up** stories all the time.

She **pointed out** Donald's mistake.

## 8. Irregular Verbs

Irregular verbs are those that don't take on the regular spelling patterns of past simple and past participle verbs. Unfortunately, there are hundreds of irregular verbs in the English language. But don't worry, while many are used often, the majority are not in common usage – or if they are, you will use them so often you will learn them quickly. Some of the most common irregular verbs include: say, make, go, take, come, know and see.

Irregular verb examples:

1. Eat
2. Think
3. Bring
4. Hold
5. Bear
6. Buy
7. Lay
8. Catch
9. Drive
10. Paid
11. Feel

The irregular verb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

I **take** my time when I *go* to the shops (present tense)

I **took** my time when I *went* to the shops (past tense)

Julie **makes** cake for the classroom (present tense)

Julie **made** a cake for the classroom (past tense)

She **sees** a silhouette shaped like a man in the window (present tense)

She **saw** a silhouette shaped like a man in the window (past tense)

We **come** to Aunt Jane's for Thanksgiving each year (present tense)

We **came** to Aunt Jane's for Thanksgiving each year (past tense).

You should also remember that auxiliary verbs 'do' and 'have' are also irregular verbs:

I **do** agree.

He **does** it often.

We **have done** our homework early.

They **do** their homework on Fridays.

I **have** a suspicion about Fran

Fran **has** a devious look.

We have no money left.

They have **had** a cough twice this winter.

### 3. ADJECTIVE

#### What Is an Adjective?

Adjectives are words that describe the qualities or states of being of nouns: *enormous, doglike, silly, yellow, fun, fast*. They can also describe the quantity of nouns: *many, few, millions, eleven*.

## Adjectives modify nouns

Most students learn that adjectives are words that modify (describe) nouns. Adjectives do not modify verbs or adverbs or other adjectives.

Margot wore a **beautiful** hat to the pie-eating contest.

**Furry** dogs may overheat in the summertime.

My cake should have **sixteen** candles.

The **scariest** villain of all time is Darth Vader.

In the sentences above, the adjectives are easy to spot because they come immediately before the nouns they modify.

But adjectives can do more than just modify nouns. They can also act as a complement to linking verbs or the verb *to be*. A linking verb is a verb like *to feel*, *to seem*, or *to taste* that describes a state of being or a sensory experience.

That cow sure is **happy**.

It smells **gross** in the locker room.

Driving is **faster** than walking.

The technical term for an adjective used this way is *predicate adjective*.

### 3.1. Usage of adjectives

Adjectives tell the reader how much or how many of something you're talking about, which thing you want passed to you, or which kind of something you want.

Please use **three white flowers** in the arrangement.

*Three* and *white* are modifying flowers.

Often, when adjectives are used together, you should separate them with a comma or conjunction. See “Coordinate Adjectives” below for more detail.

I’m looking for a **small, good-tempered dog** to keep as a pet.

My new dog is **small and good-tempered**.

### 3.2. Degrees of comparison

Adjectives come in three forms: *absolute*, *comparative*, and *superlative*. Absolute adjectives describe something in its own right.

A **cool** guy

A **messy** desk

A **mischievous** cat

**Garrulous** squirrels

Comparative adjectives, unsurprisingly, make a comparison between two or more things. For most one-syllable adjectives, the comparative is formed by adding the suffix *-er* (or just *-r* if the adjective already ends with an *e*). For two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y*, replace *-y* with *-ier*. For multi-syllable adjectives, add the word *more*.

A **cooler** guy

A **messier** desk

A **more mischievous** cat

**More garrulous** squirrels

Superlative adjectives indicate that something has the highest degree of the quality in question. One-syllable adjectives become superlatives by adding the suffix *-est* (or just *-st* for adjectives that already end in *e*). Two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y* replace *-y* with *-iest*. Multi-syllable adjectives add the word *most*. When you use

an article with a superlative adjective, it will almost always be the definite article (*the*) rather than *a* or *an*. Using a superlative inherently indicates that you are talking about a specific item or items.

The **coolest** guy

The **messiest** desk

The **most mischievous** cat

The **most garrulous** squirrels

### **Coordinate adjectives**

Coordinate adjectives should be separated by a comma or the word *and*. Adjectives are said to be coordinate if they modify the same noun in a sentence.

This is going to be a **long, cold** winter.

Isobel's **dedicated** and **tireless** efforts made all the difference.

But just the fact that two adjectives appear next to each other doesn't automatically mean they are coordinate. Sometimes, an adjective and a noun form a single semantic unit, which is then modified by another adjective. In this case, the adjectives are not coordinate and should not be separated by a comma.

My cat, Goober, loves sleeping on this **tattered woolen** sweater.

No one could open the **old silver** locket.

In some cases, it's pretty hard to decide whether two adjectives are coordinate or not. But there are a couple of ways you can test them. Try inserting the word *and* between the adjectives to see if the phrase still seems natural. In the first sentence, "this tattered and woolen sweater" doesn't sound right because you really aren't talking about a sweater that is both tattered and woolen. It's a *woolen sweater* that is *tattered*. *Woolen sweater* forms a unit of meaning that is modified by *tattered*.

Another way to test for coordinate adjectives is to try switching the order of the adjectives and seeing if the phrase still works. In the second sentence, you wouldn't say "No one could open the silver old locket." You can't reverse the order of the adjectives because *silver locket* is a unit that is modified by *old*.

### 3.3. Adjectives vs. adverbs

As mentioned above, many of us learned in school that adjectives modify nouns and that adverbs modify verbs. But as we've seen, adjectives can also act as complements for linking verbs. This leads to a common type of error: incorrectly substituting an adverb in place of a predicate adjective. An example you've probably heard before is:

I feel **badly** about what happened.

Because "feel" is a verb, it seems to call for an adverb rather than an adjective. But "feel" isn't just any verb; it's a linking verb. An adverb would describe *how* you perform the action of feeling—an adjective describes *what* you feel. "I feel badly" means that you are bad at feeling things. If you're trying to read Braille through thick leather gloves, then it might make sense for you to say "I feel badly." But if you're trying to say that you are experiencing negative emotions, "I feel bad" is the phrase you want.

It's easier to see this distinction with a different linking verb. Consider the difference between these two sentences:

Goober smells badly.

Goober smells bad.

"Goober smells badly" means that Goober, the poor thing, has a weak sense of smell.

"Goober smells bad" means Goober stinks—poor us.

### 3.4. When nouns become adjectives and adjectives become nouns

One more thing you should know about adjectives is that, sometimes, a word that is normally used as a noun can function as an adjective, depending on its placement.

For example:

Never try to pet someone's **guide** dog without asking permission first.

*Guide* is a noun. But in this sentence, it modifies *dog*. It works the other way, too.

Some words that are normally adjectives can function as nouns:

Candice is working on a fundraiser to help the **homeless**.

In the context of this sentence, *homeless* is functioning as a noun. It can be hard to wrap your head around this if you think of adjectives and nouns only as particular classes of words. But the terms “adjective” and “noun” aren't just about a word's form—they're also about its function.

## 4. ADVERB

### What is an Adverb?

An adverb is a word that is used to change, modify or qualify several types of words including an **adjective**, a **verb**, a **clause**, another **adverb**, or any other type of word or phrase, with the exception of determiners and adjectives, that directly modify nouns. A good way to understand adverbs is to think about them as the words that provide context. Specifically, adverbs provide a description of how, where, when, in what manner and to what extent something is done or happens. Normally, we can spot an adverb by the fact that it often ends in *-ly*, but there are lots of adverbs that don't end in this way. Moreover, adverbs can be used in many combinations with each other.

Traditionally considered a single part of speech, adverbs perform a wide variety of functions, making it difficult to treat them as a single, unified category. However, spotting an adverb, especially one that ends in -ly is easy. Adverbs normally help paint a fuller picture by describing how something happens, such as

- When? She *always* arrives early.
- How? He drives *carefully*.
- Where? They go *everywhere* together.
- In what way? She eats *slowly*.
- To what extent? It is *terribly* hot.

This function of providing more information about how something is done is called the adverbial function, and it may be accomplished by using adverbial clauses and adverbial phrases as well as by adverbs that stand alone.

There are many rules for using adverbs, and these rules often depend upon which type of adverb you are using. Remember these basics and using adverbs to make sentences more meaningful will be easier for you.

- Adverbs can always be used to modify verbs. Notice that the second of these two sentences is much more interesting simply because it contains an adverb:
  - The dog ran. (You can picture a dog running, but you don't really know much more about the scene.)
  - The dog ran *excitedly*. (You can picture a dog running, wagging its tail, panting happily, and looking glad to see its owner. You can paint a much more interesting picture in your head when you know how or why the dog is running.)
- Adverbs are often formed by adding the letters “-ly” to adjectives. This makes it very easy to identify adverbs in sentences. There are many exceptions to this rule; *everywhere*, *nowhere*, and *upstairs* are a few examples.
- An adverb can be used to modify an adjective and intensify the meaning it conveys. For example:

- He plays tennis well. (He knows how to play tennis and sometimes he wins.)
- He plays tennis extremely well. (He knows how to play tennis so well that he wins often.)

As you read the following adverb examples, you'll notice how these useful words modify other words and phrases by providing information about the place, time, manner, certainty, frequency, or other circumstances of activity denoted by the verbs or verb phrases in the sentences.

## 4.1. Types of Adverbs

### 1. Adverbs of Manner

An *adverb of manner* will explain how an action is carried out. Very often adverbs of manner are adjectives with -ly added to the end, but this is certainly not always the case. In fact, some adverbs of manner will have the same spelling as the adjective form.

Some examples of adverbs of manner include:

1. Slowly
2. Rapidly
3. Clumsily
4. Badly
5. Diligently
6. Sweetly
7. Warmly
8. Sadly

*Adverb of manner* examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- She passed the exam **easily**.
- They walk **quickly** to catch the train.
- The dinner party went **badly**.
- John answered the question **correctly**.

Notice how the adverbs are formed by adding *-ly* to the adjectives *bad*, *correct* and *quick*, although there is a slight spelling change when forming an adverb with the adjective *easy*.

As mentioned, some adverbs of manner take the same spelling as the adjective and never add an *-ly* to the end:

- The boys had worked **hard**.
- The car drives **fast**.
- Julia dances **well**.

## 2. Adverbs of place

An *adverb of place*, sometimes called spatial adverbs, will help explain where an action happens. Adverbs of place will be associated with the action of the verb in a sentence, providing context for direction, distance and position: southeast, everywhere, up, left, close by, back, inside, around. These terms don't usually end in *-ly*.

Adverbs of place examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

### Directions

- New York is located **north** of Philadelphia.
- They traveled **down** the mountainside.

- First, I looked **here**, and then I looked **there**, but I can't find them **anywhere**.

Notice that *here* and *there* are often used at the beginning of a sentence to express emphasis or in exclamation.

- **Here** comes the sun.
- **There** is love in the air.
- **Here** you are!

Many times, adverbs of place can be used as prepositions as well. The difference is, when the phrase is used as an adverb, it is modifying a verb; when it is used as a preposition, it is always followed by a noun.

- New York is located **north** of Philadelphia -> New York is *on the map*.
- They travelled **down** river -> They travelled *in the first compartment*.
- That puppy was walking **around** by itself-> We put a collar *around its neck*.

## Distance

- There was a deli
- Jane is moving **far away**.
- Carly is sitting **close** to me.

## Position

- The treasure lies **underneath** the box.
- The cat is sleeping **on** the bed.
- Why are you standing **in** the middle of the dancefloor?

In addition, some adverbs of position will refer to a direction of movement. These often end in -ward or -wards.

- Oscar travelled **onward** to Los Angeles.
- Hannah looked **upwards** to the heavens.

- Molly, move **forward** to the front of the queue, please.

### 3. Adverbs of Frequency

*Adverbs of frequency* are used to express time or how often something occurs. Adverbs of frequency can be split two main groups. The first, adverbs of indefinite frequency, are terms that have an unclear meaning as to how long or *how often* something occurs: *usually, always, normally*. These adverbs will usually be placed after the main verb or between the auxiliary verb and infinitive.

Adverbs of frequency examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- The adverb is **usually** placed before the main verb.
- I can **normally** make the shot.
- I will **always** love

Adverbs of definite frequency will usually be placed at the end of the sentence.

- We get paid **hourly**.
- I come here
- The situation seems to change **monthly**.
- The newspaper is bought **daily**.

### 4. Adverbs of Time

*Adverbs of time*, while seemingly similar to adverbs of frequency, tell us *when* something happens. Adverbs of time are usually placed at the end of a sentence.

Adverbs of time examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- I will see you
- Harvey forgot his lunch **yesterday** and again **today**.
- I have to go **now**.
- We first met Julie **last year**.

While it's almost always correct to have the adverb of time at the end of the sentence, you can place it at the start of the sentence to put a different emphasis on the time if it is important to the context.

- **Last year** was the worst year of my life.
- **Tomorrow** our fate will be sealed.
- **Yesterday** my troubles seemed so far away.

## 5. Adverbs of Purpose

*Adverbs of purpose*, sometimes called adverbs of reason, help to describe *why* something happened. They can come in the form of individual words – *so, since, thus, because* – but also clauses – *so that, in order to*. Notice in the examples that the adverbs of purpose are used to connect sentences that wouldn't make sense if they were formed alone.

Adverbs of purpose examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- I was sick, **thus** didn't go to work today.
- I started jogging **so that** I wouldn't be late.
- **Because** I was late, I jogged a little faster.
- **Since** it's your birthday, I will buy you a gift.

## Positions of Adverbs

The *positions of adverbs* are not a fixed or set thing. As you have seen, adverbs can appear in different position in a sentence. However, there are some rules that help us decide where an adverb should be positioned. The rules will be different depending on whether the adverb is acting to modify an adjective or another adverb, a verb or what type of adverb it is.

Positional adverb examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

### 4.2. Adverb position with adjectives and other adverbs

These adverbs will usually be placed before the adjective or adverb being modified:

- We gave them a **really** tough match. The adverb *really* modifies the adjective *tough*.
- It was **quite** windy that night. The adverb *quite* modifies the adjective *windy*.
- We don't go to the movies **terribly often**. The adverb *terribly* modifies the adverb *often*.

### Adverb position with verbs

This can be a bit trickier because, it will depend on the type of adverb – place, position, time etc. – and there are many exceptions to the rules. However, a basic set of guidelines is shown below:

Adverbs of manner or place are usually positioned at the end of the sentence:

- She laughed *timidly*.
- I stroked the cat *gently*.
- Janine lived *here*.
- There is money *everywhere*.

As mentioned, if the adverb is of *definite time* it will be placed at the end of the sentence.

- I did it **yesterday**.
- We can discuss it **tomorrow**.
- Let's go to Paris **next week**.

However, if it is an *indefinite period of time*, it will go between the subject and main verb.

- We **often** go to Paris in the springtime.
- Debbie **regularly** swims here.
- Bobby and Audrey **always** loved fishing by the lake.

## Order of Adverbs

Adverb order is so important it has clear rules. It's already mentioned that some adverbs will act to modify another, but how do you decide the structure of a sentence with several adverbs? Thankfully, there is a simple set of rules to follow, called the order of adverbs. Handily, the order of adverbs, sometimes also called the royal order of adverbs, can help us determine sentence structure too. In short, the adverbs get preference (are placed first) in the following order:

1. Adverbs of manner.
2. Adverbs of place.
3. Adverbs of frequency.
4. Adverbs of time.
5. Adverbs of purpose.

Consider this sentence:

I run (verb) **quickly** (manner) **down the road** (place) **every morning** (frequency) **before school** (time) **because** (purpose) I might miss the bus.

While it is good to remember the order of adverbs, there is always flexibility with language, and we have already mentioned that adverbs of time and frequency can be placed at the start of a sentence to change the emphasis. So, bottom line: think of the order of adverbs as more of a guideline than a rule that can't be broken.

### Examples of Adverbs

As you read each of the following adverb examples, note that the adverbs have been italicized for easy identification. Consider how replacing the existing adverbs with different ones would change the meaning of each sentence.

1. She was walking *rapidly*.
2. The kids love playing *together* in the sandbox.
3. Please come inside *now*.
4. His jokes are always *very*
5. You don't *really* care, do you?

There are many different words that function as adverbs. The following list is broken down into segments which list adverbs by function. After reading, you will be able to think of additional adverbs to add to your own list – after all, there are thousands.

**Many adverbs end in “-ly”. This makes it very easy to spot the adverbs in most sentences.**

Abruptly

Mildly

Boldly

Naughtily

Carefully

Openly

Deliberately

Poorly

Excitedly

Quickly

Financially

Sadly

Horribly

Terribly

**Some adverbs tell us where the action happened. These are known as adverbs of place.**

Everywhere

There

Here

Underground

Inside

Upstairs

**Certain adverbs let us know when or how often the action happened. These are known as adverbs of time and adverbs of frequency.**

After

Now

Always

Today

Before

Yesterday

Later

**Many adverbs tell us the extent of the action.**

Almost

Enough

So

Too

Quite

Rather

Very

**Some adverbs are used as intensifiers.**

Absolutely

Certain

Completely

Heartily

Really

**Certain adverbs called adverbs of manner tell us about the way in which something was done.**

Briskly

Cheerfully

Expectantly

Randomly

Willingly

Some groups of words serve the same functions as adverbs. These are known as adverb clauses.

## **5. PRONOUN**

### **What is a Pronoun?**

The pronoun is a part of speech, which points out objects and their qualities without naming or describing them.

### **5.1. Classification of pronouns**

Pronouns fall under the following groups:

1. **Personal** pronouns: *he, she, it, I, we, you, and they.*

2. **Possessive** pronouns: *my, his, her, its, our, your, their, mine, his, hers, our's, yours, theirs.*
3. **Reflexive** pronouns: *myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourself (yourselves) and themselves.*
4. **Reciprocal** pronouns: *each other, one another.*
5. **Demonstrative** pronouns: *this (these), that (those), such, (the) same.*
6. **Interrogative** pronouns: *who, whose, what, which.*
7. **Relative** pronouns: *who, whose, which, that, as.*
8. **Conjunctive** pronouns: *who, whose, which, what.*
9. **Defining** pronouns: *each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, all, either, both, other, another.*
10. **Indefinite** pronouns: *some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone, one.*
11. **Negative** pronouns: *no, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing.*

There is no uniformity of morphological and syntactical characteristics in the groups of pronouns. Some pronouns have the grammatical categories of **person, gender, case** and **number**. The categories of person and gender (in the third person singular) exist only in personal and possessive pronouns.

Pronouns as well as nouns have two cases but whereas some pronouns (e.g., personal pronouns and the relative and interrogative *who*) have the nominative and objective cases, others (e. g. indefinite pronouns such as *somebody*, reciprocal pronouns such as *one another*, negative pronouns such as *nobody*) have the common and genitive cases.

The category of number is found in demonstrative pronouns (*this* and *that*) and the defining pronoun *other*.

Many pronouns are characterized by double syntactical use (they may be used as subject, predicative, object, and at the same time as attribute). Here belong demonstrative pronouns, possessive pronouns etc.

## 1. Personal pronouns

1. The personal pronouns are *I, he, she, it, we, you, and they*. The personal pronouns have the grammatical categories of person, case, number and (in the third person singular) gender.

The personal pronouns have **two cases**: the **nominative** case and the **objective** case. The nominative case: *I, he, she, it, we, you, they*. The objective case: *me, him, her, it, us, you, them*. The objective case of the pronouns *I, he, she, we* is expressed by suppletive forms.

In colloquial speech *me*, not *I* is commonly used as a predicative:

*Who is there? — It is me.*

The personal pronouns have two numbers, singular (*I, he, she, it*) and plural (*we, they*).

The second-person pronoun *you* is both singular and plural.

The pronouns of the third person *he, she, it* distinguish gender. Male beings (*man, father, uncle, boy* etc.) are referred to as *he*; female beings (*woman, mother, aunt, girl* etc.) are referred to as *she*; inanimate things (*house, tree, cap* etc.) are referred to as *it*.

Her **husband** asked a few questions and sat down to read the evening paper. He was a silent man... (*Dreiser*)

And then he turned and saw the **girl**... She was a pale, ethereal creature, with wide, spiritual eyes and a wealth of golden hair. (*London*)

He did not know what to do with his **cap**, and was stuffing it into his coat pocket... (*London.*)

As some nouns denote animate beings of either sex, masculine or feminine (*friend, teacher, servant, cousin* etc.), personal pronouns are often used to specify them:

"Tell your **servant** that **he** must not use such words to Hendrike, Mr. Allan," Stella said to me. (*Haggard*)

2. Personal pronouns may have different functions in the sentence, those of subject, object, and predicative:

**I** am not free to resume the interrupted chain of my reflections till bedtime... (*Ch. Bronte*) (subject)

He arranged to meet **her** at the 96th Street station... (*Wilson*) (OBJECT)

"Who's there?" "It's **me.**" "Who's me?" "George Jackson, sir." (*Twain*) (PREDICATIVE)

But I think that was **him** I spoke to. (*Cronin*) (predicative)

## 2. Possessive pronouns

1. Possessive pronouns have the same distinctions of **person, number** and **gender** as personal pronouns.

2. Possessive pronouns have two forms, namely the **dependent (or conjoint)** form and the **independent (or absolute)** form.

### Conjoint forms of possessive pronouns

1st person 2nd person 3rd person

SINGULAR my his, her, its, your

PLURAL our, their

Absolute forms of possessive pronouns

SINGULAR mine his, hers, yours

PLURAL ours theirs

The **conjoint** form is used when the possessive pronoun comes before the noun it modifies. The conjoint form of the possessive pronoun is used as an attribute.

**In his** turn old Jolyon looked back at **his** son. (*Galsworthy*)

The **absolute** form is used when the possessive pronoun does not modify any noun.

The absolute form of the possessive pronoun may be used as subject, predicative or object. The group “preposition + absolute form” may be used as an attribute.

**"Yours** (sum of money) won't come short of a hundred thousand, my boy," said old Jolyon. (*Galsworthy*) (SUBJECT)

When he turned round again he saw Fleur standing near the door holding a handkerchief, which the boy had evidently just handed to her. "F.F.", he heard her say. "Fleur Forsyte—it's **mine** all right. Thank you ever so." (*Galsworthy*) (predicative)

... he realized that she was making an effort to talk his talk, and he resolved to get away from it and talk **hers**. (*London*) (object)

... and while she rattled on, he strove to follow her, marveling at all the knowledge that was stowed away in that pretty head of **hers** ... (*London*) (attribute)

Possessive pronouns are often used before the names of the parts of the body, clothing, things belonging to a person, etc.

Young Jolyon rose and held out **his** hand to help **his** father up.

The girl dropped **her** handkerchief and he picked it up. (*Galsworthy*)

### 3. Reflexive pronouns

1. Reflexive pronouns have the categories of **person**, **number**, and **gender** in the third person singular.

1st person 2nd person 3rd person

singular: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself

plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves

Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence in which they are used, indicating that the action performed by the doer passes back to him or is associated with him. In the sentence they are usually used as direct objects.

In that moment of emotion he betrayed the Forsyte in him—forgot **himself**, his interests, his property—was capable of almost anything... (*Galsworthy*) (object)

Reflexive pronouns may be used as predicatives.

When she came back she was **herself** again. (*Hardy*) (predicative)

Reflexive pronouns preceded by a preposition may be used as indirect prepositional objects, as attributes and as adverbial modifiers.

He could not see that it would be better to make her feel that she was competing **with herself**... (*Dreiser*) (prepositional indirect object)

“I fancied you looked a little downcast when you came in,” she ventured to observe, anxious to keep away from the subject **of herself**. (*Hardy*) (attribute)

If June did not like this, she could have an allowance and live **by herself**. (*Galsworthy*) (adverbial modifier of manner)

Reflexive pronouns may be used to form the reflexive voice (in this case reflexive pronouns are structural words):

Undressing again, she washed **herself** intensively... (*Galsworthy*)

And then I dressed **myself** and came away to find you. (*Hardy*)

Sometimes reflexive pronouns are used emphatically:

Moreover, Soames **himself** disliked the thought of that. (*Galsworthy*)

She was never idle it seemed to him, and he envied her now that he **himself** was idle nearly all his time. (*Galsworthy*)

#### 4. Reciprocal pronouns

1. Reciprocal pronouns are the group-pronouns *each other* and *one another*. They express mutual action or relation. The subject to which they refer must always be in the plural.

"I didn't really know him," he thought, "and he didn't know me; but we loved **each other**." (*Galsworthy*)

We haven't set eyes on **one another** for years. (*Priestly*)

*Each other* generally implies only two, *one another* two or more than two persons:

He had never heard his father or his mother speak in an angry voice, either to **each other**, himself, or anybody else. (*Galsworthy*)

Seated in a row close to **one another** were three ladies—Aunts Ann, Hester (the two Forsyte maids) and Julie (short for Julia)... (*Galsworthy*)

It must be mentioned that this distinction, is not always strictly observed:

I should have been surprised if those two could have thought very highly of **one another**. (*Dickens*)

Reciprocal pronouns have two case forms.

Girls banged into **each other** and stamped on **each other's** feet. (*Mansfield*)

The **common case** of reciprocal pronouns is used as an object.

The men were not grave and dignified. They lost their tempers easily and called **one another** names... (*London*)

Elizabeth and George talked and found **each other** delightful. (*Aldington*)

The **genitive case** of reciprocal pronouns may be used as an attribute.

At first it struck me that I might live by selling my works to the ten per cent who were like myself; but a moment's reflection showed me that these must all be as penniless as I, and that we could not live by, so to speak, taking in **one another's** washing. (*Shaw*)

Not until moon and stars faded away and streaks of daylight began to appear, did Meitje Brinker and Hans look hopelessly into **each other's** face. (*Dodge*)

Reciprocal pronouns preceded by a preposition are used as a prepositional indirect object:

+They look **at one another** for a moment. (*Dickens*)

...in silence they stared **at each other**. (*Saxton*)

## 5. Demonstrative pronouns

1. The demonstrative pronouns are *this, that, such, (the) same*.

The demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that** have two numbers *this*— *these*; *that*— *those*.

**This** is used to point at what is nearer in time or space; **that** points at what is farther away in time or space.

He looked him over critically. "Yes, **this** boy might do," he thought. (*Dreiser*)

"I like **that** fellow," Henry Waterman confided to his brother the moment Frank had gone with instructions to report the following morning. (*Dreiser*)

**This** and **that** may be applied both to persons and things.

And **this** girl was French, not likely to lose her head, or accept any unlegalized position. (*Galsworthy*)

Other people were anxious to get **this** soap at **this** price. (*Dreiser*)

What do you think of **that** Belgian fellow, Profond? (*Galsworthy*)

To Forsyte imagination **that** house was now a sort of Chinese pillbox... (*Galsworthy*)

The pronoun **such**.

She wore a red ribbon in her hair, and was the only one of the white company who could boast of **such** a pronounced adornment. (*Hardy*)

The pronoun **same** is always used with the definite article.

The driver was a young man... wearing a dandy cap, drab jacket, breeches of **the same** hue. (*Hardy*)

The demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that** are used as subjects, predicatives, objects and attributes.

It's all right, but I'd rather try my hand at brokerage, I think **that** appeals to me. (*Dreiser*) (subject)

The only honest people — if they existed — were **those** who said: "This is foul brutality..." (*Aldington*) (predicative)

Tell me just how you did **this**. (*Dreiser*) (object)

"If **that** young fellow wanted a place, I'd give it to him," he thought. (*Dreiser*) (attribute)

The demonstrative pronoun **that** (*those*) may be used as a word-substitute:

But in thinking of his remaining guest, an expression like **that** of a cat who is just going to purr stole over his (Swithin's) old face.. (*Galsworthy*)

The features (of young Jolyon) were certainly **those** of a Forsyte, but the expression was more the introspective look of a student or philosopher. (*Galsworthy*)

The pronoun **such** is used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute:

If any living man can manage this horse I can: —I won't say any living man can do it— but if **such** has the power, I am here. (*Hardy*) (subject)

Her idolatry of this man was **such** that she herself almost feared it to be ill omened. (*Hardy*) (predicative)

But **such** thoughts and visions did not prevent him from following Professor Caldwell closely. (*London*) (attribute)

The pronoun (*the*) **same** usually performs the function of an attribute, but it may be used as subject, predicative, object:

We were in **the same** classes. (*London*) (attribute)

It is to be feared **the same** could not be said of you, were you to be called hence. (*Ch. Bronte*) (subject)

Martin's Sunday was **the same** as before. (*London*) (predicative)

May this young man do **the same!**" said Angel fervently. (*Hardy*) (object)

## 6. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used in inquiry, to form special questions. They are: *who*, *whose*, *what*, *which*.

The interrogative pronoun **who** has the category of **case**; the nominative case is *who*, the objective case *whom*.

*Who* refers to human beings?

Slipping her hand under his arm, she said: "**Who** was that?" "He picked up my handkerchief. We talked about pictures." (*Galsworthy*)

**What** when not attributive usually refers to things but it may be applied to persons when one inquires about their occupation.

"**What** are you looking for, Tess?" the doctor called. "Hairpins," she replied. (*London*) "**What** was he?" "A painter." (*Galsworthy*)

**Which** has a selective meaning: it corresponds to the Russian "который из" (an individual of the group). It may refer to persons and things.

The boys clasped each other suddenly in an agony of fright. "**Which** of us does he mean?" gasped Huckleberry. (*Twain*)

**Which** side of the bed do you like, Mum? (*Galsworthy*)

The questions *Who is he? What is he? Which is he?* differ in their meaning. The first question inquires about the name or parentage of some person. The second question inquires about the occupation of the person spoken about. The third question inquires about some particular person out of a definite group of persons.

In the sentence interrogative pronouns may have different functions—those of subject, predicative, object and attribute:

**Who, do** you think, has been to see you, Dad? She couldn't wait! Guess. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

"**What's** been happening, then?" he said sharply. (*Eliot*) (subject)

"No, **who's** he?" "Oh, he's a Polish Jew." (*Aldington*) (predicative)

"**What** are you, Mr. Mont, if I may ask?" "I, sir? I was **going** to be a painter." (*Galsworthy*) (predicative)

"**What** was her father?" "Heron was his name, a Professor, so they tell me." (*Galsworthy*) (predicative)

"He says he's married," said Winifred. "**Whom to**, for goodness' sake?" (*Galsworthy*) (object)

"**Who** do you mean?" I said. (*Du Maurier*) (object)

"**What** did you see in Clensofantrim?" "Nothing but beauty, darling." (*Galsworthy*) (object)

"**What** sort of a quarrel?" he heard Fleur say. (*Galsworthy*) (ATTRIBUTE)

**Whose** pain can have been like mine? **Whose** injury is like mine? (*Eliot*) (attribute) **Which** day is it that Dorloote Mill is to be sold? (*Eliot*) (attribute)

## 7. Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns (*who, whose, which, that, as*) not only point back to a noun or a pronoun mentioned before but also have conjunctive power. They introduce attributive clauses. The word they refer to is called their antecedent. It may be a noun or a pronoun.

**Who** is used in reference to human beings or animals.

Jolyon bit his lips; he **who** had always hated rows almost welcomed the thought of one now. (*Galsworthy*)

...in his voice was a strange note of fear that frightened the animal, **who** had never known the man speak in such way before. (*London*)

**Whose** is mainly used in reference to human beings or animals but it may be applied to things.

Then there was the proud Rychie Korbes, **whose** father, Mynheer van Korbes, was one of the leading men of Amsterdam. (*Dodge*)

Again he (Soames) looked at her (Irene) huddled like a bird that is shot and dying, **whose** poor breast you see panting as the air is taken from it, **whose** poor eyes look at you who have shot it, with a slow, soft, unseeing look... (*Galsworthy*)

... he (superintendent), wore a stiff standing-collar **whose** upper edge almost reached his ears, and **whose** sharp points curved forward abreast the corners of his mouth... (*Twain*)

**Which** is used in reference to things and animals.

Here was her own style—a bed, **which** did not look like one and many mirrors. (*Galsworthy*).

They strove to steal a dog —the fattest, which was very thin — but I showed my pistol in their faces and told them be gone. (*London*)

**That** is mainly used in reference to animals and things. It may also be used in reference to human beings.

This... gave him much the same feeling a man has when a dog **that** he owns wriggles and looks at him. (*Galsworthy*)

On one side was a low wall **that** separated it from the street. (*London*)

In the factory quarter, doors were opening everywhere, and he was soon one of a multitude **that** pressed onward through the dark. (*London*)

**As** usually introduces attributive clauses when the demonstrative pronoun *such* is used in the principal clause (it is a rare case when *as* is used without *such* in the principal clause).

**As** may refer to living beings and things.

...perhaps the books were right and there were many such **as** she (Ruth) in the upper walks of life. (*London*)

*His* mother was a poor peasant woman; too poor even to think of such a thing **as** buying skates for her little ones. (*Dodge*)

For nobody's ever heard me say, as it wasn't lucky for my children to have aunts and uncles **as** can live independent. (*Eliot*)

.... *I* went into Snow Park. It wasn't **as** one expects a municipal park to be... (*Braine*)

Relative pronouns can also refer to a clause. Relative pronouns always perform some syntactical function in the clause they introduce.

Gemma, there's a man downstairs **who** wants to see you. (*Voynich*)(subject).

She flashed a look at him **that** was more anger than appeal. (*London*) (subject)

...then discussion assumed that random volubility **which** softens a decision already forced on one. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

I think I have taken nothing **that** you or your people have given *me*. (*Galsworthy*) (object)

Families often think it due to themselves to turn their back on newcomers, **whom** they may not think quite enough for them. (*Shaw*) (object)

+It pleased Denny to exert, the full force of his irony upon the work, **which** they were doing. (*Cronin*) (object)

## 8. Conjunctive pronouns

Conjunctive pronouns (*who, what, whose, which*) not only point back to some person or thing mentioned before but also have conjunctive power, introducing subordinate clauses (subject clauses, object clauses, predicative clauses).

**What** June had taken for personal interest was only the impersonal excitement of every Forsyte... (*Galsworthy*) (subject clause)

What you want, in fact, is a first-rate man for a fourth-rate fee, and that's exactly **what** you've got! (*Galsworthy*) (predicative clause)

I don't want to hear **what** you've come for. (*Galsworthy*) (object clause)

In the clause they introduce they perform different functions, those of subject, predicative, attribute and object.

**What** had made her yield he could never make out; and from Mrs. Heron, a woman of some diplomatic talent, he learnt nothing. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

Erik realized with a sinking sensation that Haviland didn't know **who** he was. (*Wilson*) (predicative)

I've spent a lot of time in the chart-room now, and I'm on the edge of knowing my way about, **what** charts I want to refer to, **what** coasts I want to explore. (*London*) (attribute)

**What** Savina could no longer do for him, he did himself, and brutally brushed aside all other interests except her. (*Wilson*) (object)

## 9. Defining pronouns

The defining pronouns are: *all, each, every, everybody, everyone, everything, either, both, other, another.*

1. **All** is a generalizing pronoun; it takes a group of things or persons as a whole. **All** may be used as subject, predicative, object, and attribute.

... when **all** is said and done... (*London*) (subject)

He just loved me, that is **all**. (*London*) (predicative)

And Martin forgot **all** about it. (*London*) (object)

... **if all** the doors are closed... (*London*) (attribute)

2. **Both** points out two persons, things or notions mentioned before.

“But there is more to be said,” he continued, after a pause painful to **both**. (*London*)

You can study French, or you can study German, or cut them **both** out and study Esperanto... (*London*)

The pronoun **both** may be used as subject, object and attribute.

**Both** seemed to implore something to shelter them from reality. (*Hardy*) (subject)

The light, admitted by windows at **both** ends, was unfortunately not Chinese. (*Galsworthy*) (attribute)

When preceded by a preposition **both** may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

He invariably paid the way for **both**, and it was through him that Martin learned the refinement of food. (*London*)

### 3. **Each, every, everybody, everyone, everything.**

**Each** and **every** refer to all the members of the group of persons, things, or notions mentioned before and taken one by one. When used as subject, **each etc.** require a verb in the singular.

**Each** may be used as subject, object, and attribute.

The train coming in a minute later, the two brothers parted and entered their respective compartments. **Each** felt aggrieved that the other had not modified his habits to secure his society a little longer. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

He paid a dollar **each**. (*London*) (object)

It (a blackbird) started singing as I looked out of the window ending **each** phrase abruptly as if out of breath, a curiously amateur effect. (*Braine*) (attribute)

When preceded by a preposition **each** may be used as a prepositional indirect object:

They began to deal swiftly with the cocoa tins, slipping a stick of dynamite in **each**. (*Cronin*)

**Every** is used only as an attribute:

This is something more than genius. It is true, **every** line of it. (*London*)

**Everybody, everyone** refer to all the members of the group of persons mentioned before or taken one by one.

The pronouns **everybody, everyone** have **two cases**: the **common** case and the **genitive** case.

The common case may be used as subject and object.

You walked into the waiting room, into a great buzz of conversation, and there was everybody; you knew almost **everybody**. (*Mansfield*) (subject, object)

The genitive case of the pronouns **everyone** and **everybody** is used as an attribute.

... he almost forgot the nearly intolerable discomfort of his new clothes in the entirely intolerable discomfort of being set up as a target for **everybody's** gaze and **everybody's** laudations. (*Twain*)

When preceded by a preposition **everyone** and **everybody** may be used as a prepositional indirect object.

How know? And without knowing how give such pain to **everyone**? (*Galsworthy*)

**Everything** may be applied to things, animals and abstract notions. In the sentence it is used as subject, predicative, and object.

No one will see us. Pull down that veil and **everything** will be all right. (*London*) (subject)

Of course, class is **everything** really. (*Galsworthy*) (predicative)

He was not long in assuming that Brissenden knew **everything**. (*London*) (object)

**4. Either** has two meanings:

1. each of the two;

(b) one or the other.

The trail wasn't three feet wide on the crest, and on **either** side the ridge fell away in precipices hundreds, of feet deep. (*London*)

Then he remembered the underwriters and the owners, the two masters a captain must serve, **either** of which could and would break him and whose interests were diametrically opposed. (*London*)

In the sentence *either* is usually used as attribute or part of the subject (see the above examples).

### 5. *Other, another.*

**Other** denotes some object different from the one mentioned before.

**Other** has **two numbers**: singular—*other*, plural—*others*. It has **two cases**: the common case and the genitive case (*other's, others'*).

He walked at the **other's** heels with a swing to his shoulders and his legs spread unwittingly... (*London*)

In the sentence it is used as subject, object and attribute.

After tea the **others** went off to bathe... (*Mansfield*) (subject)

When he brought his suitcase down into the hall, Isabel left the **others** and went over to him. (*Mansfield*) (object)

But the circumstance was sufficient to lead him to select Tess in preference to the **other** pretty milkmaids. (*Hardy*) (attribute)

When preceded by a preposition it may be used as a prepositional indirect object:

You are not fair to the **others**. (*Voynich*)

**Another** has two meanings:

1. “a different one”,
2. “an additional one”.

He has learnt sheep farming at **another** place, and he's now mastering dairy work. (*Hardy*)

Yes, thought Soames, **another** year of London and that sort of life, and she'll be spoiled. (*Galsworthy*)

**Another** may be used as subject, object, and attribute.

The lantern hanging at her wagon had gone out but **another** was shining in her face much brighter than her own had been. (*Hardy*) (subject)

Often among the women he met, he would see now one, now **another**, looking at him, appraising him, selecting him. (*London*) (OBJECT)

+Now I won't say **another** word. I am overwhelmed, crushed. (*London*) (ATTRIBUTE)

## 10. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns point out some person or thing indefinitely. The indefinite pronouns are *some*, *any*, *somebody*, *anybody*, *someone*, *anyone*, *something*, *anything*, and *one*.

The pronouns *somebody*, *anybody*, *someone*, *anyone*, *one* have **two cases**: the **common** case and the **genitive** case.

1. **Some** is chiefly used in affirmative sentences while *any* is used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses.

We spread down **some** wide blankets. (*0. Henry*)

But his chief trouble was that he did not know **any** editors or writers. (*London*)

Do you see **any** sign of his appreciating beauty? (*Galsworthy*)

If you have **any** new books, show them to me, please.

When used with nouns of material *some* and *any* have the meaning of indefinite quantity.

Now run along and get **some** candy, and don't forget to give **some** to your brothers and sisters. (*London*)

*Some*, not *any*, is used in special and general questions expressing some request or proposal.

"Do you want **some** water?" "No, I don't want any water." (*Maltz*)

*Some* may have the meaning of "certain" (некоторые) before a noun in the plural.

You have **some** queer customers. Do you like this life? (*Galsworthy*)

*Any* may be used in affirmative sentences with the meaning of "every".

Above a square-domed forehead he saw a mop of brown hair ... nut-brown, with a wave to it and hints of curls that were a delight to **any** woman ... (*London*)

*Somebody*, *someone*, *something* are chiefly used in affirmative sentences.

He wanted **someone** young; you know a dark Spanish type... (*Mansfield*)

I want to say **something**. (*Galsworthy*)

*Anybody*, *anyone*, *anything* are used in negative and interrogative sentences and in conditional clauses.

I don't want **anything**. (*Voynich*)

Is there **anything** between him and Annette? (*Galsworthy*)

If **anyone** had asked him if he wanted to own her soul, the question would have seemed to him both ridiculous and sentimental. (*Galsworthy*)

If Erik were ever to do **anything** of importance he would have to find a third way. (*Wilson*)

*Somebody, someone, something* are used in special and general questions if they express some request or proposal.

Will **someone** help me?

*Anyone, anybody, anything* may be used in affirmative sentences. *Anyone, anybody* are used with the meaning of “everyone” (будь-який); *anything* is used with the meaning of “everything” (будь що).

"You've no business to say such a thing!" she exclaimed. "Why not? **Anybody** can see it." (*Galsworthy*)

There is a limit to what **anyone** can bear. (*Voynich*)

... she sank in spirit inwardly and fluttered feebly at the heart as she thought of entering **anyone** of these mighty concerns and asking for something to do — something that she could do — **anything**. (*Dreiser*)

2. The indefinite pronouns *some* and *any* may be used as subject, object and attribute.

**Some** say the world will end in fire,

**Some** say in ice (*Frost*) (subject)

"I watch the fire—and the boiling and the roasting—" "When there is **any**," says Mr. George, with great expression. (*Dickens*) (subject)

... and his attention slid at once from such finality to the dust motes in the bluish sunlight coming in. Thrusting his hand up he tried to catch **some**. (*Galsworthy*) (object)

Where is his home? He didn't have **any** (*Maltz*) (object)

Are there **any** real Indians in the woods? (*O. Henry*) (attribute)

**Someone, anyone, somebody, anybody, something, anything** may be used as subject, predicative or object. When used as a subject they require a verb in the singular.

In the next house **someone** was playing over and over again “La Donna e mobile” on an untuned piano. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

... What he likes is **anything** except art. (*Aldington*) (predicative)

And not merely did he not know any writers, but he did not know **anybody** who had ever attempted to write. (*London*) (object)

The genitive case of the pronouns **somebody, someone, anybody, anyone** is used as an attribute:

... lie could pull his cap down over his eyes and screen himself behind **someone's** shoulder. (*London*)

"It's **anybody's** right," Martin heard somebody saying. (*London*)

...Hooked up: I was in **somebody's** arms. (*Shaw*)

When preceded by a preposition the pronouns **somebody, someone, something, anybody, anyone, anything** may be used as prepositional indirect objects.

The girl doesn't belong **to anybody** — is no use **to anybody** but me. (*Shaw*)

Such a purse had never been carried **by anyone** attentive to her. (*Dreiser*)

So, though he wasn't very successful **at anything**, he got along all right. (*Aldington*)

3. The indefinite-personal pronoun **one** is often used in the sense of any person or every person.

New York presents so **many** temptations for **one** to run into extravagance (*O. Henry*)

The indefinite pronoun **one** is often used in a general sense.

...Only **one** with constitution of iron could have held himself down, as Martin did. (*London*)

The pronoun **one** may be used in the genitive case:

I know exactly what it feels like to be held down on **one's** back. (*Galsworthy*)

**One** may be used as a word-substitute:

I was looking at them, and also at intervals examining the teachers—none of whom precisely pleased me; for the stout **one** was a little coarse, the dark **one** not a little fierce. (*Ch. Bronte*)

As a word-substitute **one** may be used in the plural:

Some of the gentlemen were gone to the stables; the younger **ones**, together with the younger ladies, were playing billiards in the billiard room. (*Ch. Bronte*)

## 11. Negative pronouns

Most of the indefinite pronouns correspond to negative pronouns: *some* — *no*, *none*; *something* — *nothing*, *none*; *somebody*, *someone*—*nobody*, *no one*, *none*.

Some defining pronouns also correspond to negative pronouns: *everything—nothing; all, everybody, every, each—no, none, nobody; both, either—neither*.

1. The negative pronoun **no** is used only before a noun as its attribute.

**No** dreams were possible in *Dufton*, where the snow seemed to turn black almost before it hit the ground. (*Braine*)

**No** Forsyte can stand it for a minute. (*Galsworthy*)

The negative pronoun **none** may be applied both to human beings and things.

**None** of us—**none** of us can hold on forever! (*Galsworthy*)

... he took the letters from the gilt wire cage into which they had been thrust through the slit in the door. **None** from Irene. (*Galsworthy*)

It can be used as subject or object.

In this he would make little fires, and cook the birds he had not shot with his gun, hunting in the coppice and fields, or the fish he did not catch in the pond because there were **none**. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

. ... besides, it required woods and animals, of which he had **none** in his nursery except his two cats... (*Galsworthy*) (object)

2. The negative pronouns **nobody**, **no one** refer to human beings. They correspond to the indefinite pronouns *somebody, someone* and to the defining pronouns *all, every, each, everybody*.

The negative pronoun **nobody** may be used in the genitive case: *nobody's*.

The negative pronouns **nobody** and **no one** are mostly used as subjects and objects.

**Nobody** seemed, to know him well. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

He remembered the days of his desperate starvation when **no one** invited him to dinner. (*London*) (subject)

I told you once that I have **no one** in the world but you. (*Voynich*) (object)

We'd have **nobody** to fight the war. (*Heym*) (object)

The pronoun *nobody* in the genitive case is used as an attribute.

Now Mr. Pullet never rode anything taller than a low pony, and was the least predatory of men, considering firearms dangerous, as apt to go off themselves by **nobody's** particular desire. (*Eliot*)

The pronouns *nobody*, *no one* preceded by a preposition are used as prepositional indirect objects.

Among all the crowd who came and went here, there and everywhere, she cared for **nobody**. (*Galsworthy*)

3. The negative pronoun *nothing* refers to things. It is opposite to the indefinite pronoun *something* and to the defining pronoun *everything*.

And **nothing** of vital importance had happened after that till the year turned. (*Galsworthy*)

*Nothing* may be used as subject, predicative or object.

There is **nothing** to worry about. (*Galsworthy*) (subject)

Now, look here, Marian, this is **nothing** but nonsense," Martin began. (*London*) (predicative)

... she brought **nothing** with her but the feeling of adventure. (*Galsworthy*) (object)

When preceded by a preposition **nothing** may be used as a prepositional indirect object:

On that train he thought **of nothing** but Lilly. (*Wilson*)

The negative pronoun **neither** is opposite to the defining pronouns *either, both*.

**Neither** of them answered; but their faces seemed to him as if contemptuous. (*Galsworthy*)

In the sentence it may be used as subject, object and attribute.

**Neither** was wise enough to be sure of the working of the mind of the other. (*Dreiser*) (subject)

I like **neither** of them. (object)

We approved **neither** plan. (attribute)

The negative pronouns **nobody, no one, nothing** are singular in meaning and when they are used as the subject of the sentence they require a verb in the singular (see the above examples).

## 6. NUMERAL

### What is a Numeral?

A figure or letter, or a group of figures or letters, expressing a number. Accordingly, numerals are divided into **cardinals** (cardinal numerals) and **ordinals** (ordinal numerals).

## 6.1. Cardinal numerals

Cardinal numerals indicate exact number; they are used in counting. As to their structure, the cardinal numerals from 1 to 12 and 100, 1000, 1,000,000 are simple words (*one, two, three, etc., hundred, thousand, million*); those from 13 to 19 are derivatives with the suffix *-teen* (*thirteen, fourteen, etc.*); the cardinal numerals indicating tens are formed by means of the suffix *--ty* (*twenty, thirty, etc.*). The numerals from 21 to 29, from 31 to 39, etc. are composite: *twenty-two, thirty-five, etc.*

**Note 1.** *Twenty-two, thirty-five* etc. are spelt with a hyphen.

**Note 2.** In *two hundred and twenty-three, four hundred and sixteen* etc. there must be the word *and* after the word *hundred*.

Such cardinal numerals as *hundred, thousand, million* may be used with articles (*a hundred, a thousand, a million*), they may be substantivized and used in the plural (*hundreds, thousands, millions*). When used after other numerals they do not take *-s* (*two hundred times, thirty thousand years* etc.). The word *million* may be used with or without *-s* (*two million, two millions*). When the word *million* is followed by some other cardinal numeral only the first variant is possible: *two million five hundred inhabitants*.

## 6.2. Functions of cardinal numerals in a sentence

Cardinal numerals are used in the function of subject, predicative, object, adverbial modifier and attribute (apposition).

... the young man opposite had long since disappeared. Now the other **two** got out. (*Mansfield*) (subject)

Earle Fox was only **fifty-four**, bill he felt timeless and ancient. (*Wilson*) (PREDICATIVE)

And again she saw them, but not **four**, more like **forty** laughing, sneering, jeering... (*Mansfield*) (*object*)

**At eight** the gang sounded for supper. (*Mansfield*) (*adverbial modifier*)

**Four** men in their shirtsleeves stood grouped together on the garden path. (*Mansfield*) (*attribute*)

And he remembered the holidays they used to have the **four** of them, with a little girl, Rose, to look after the babies. (*Mansfield*) (*apposition*)

Cardinals are sometimes used to denote the place of an object in a series. Cardinals are used in reading indications: *line 23, page 275, Chapter X, No. 49* etc.

... but from the corner of the street until she came to **No. 26** she thought of those four flights of stairs. (*Mansfield*)

Class nouns modified by a numeral in post-position are used without articles.

All he wanted was to be made to care again, but each night he took up his briefcase and walked home to dinner at 117th Street and Riverside Drive, **apartment 12D**. (*Wilson*)

### 6.3. Ordinal numerals

Ordinal numerals show the order of persons and things in a series.

+With the exception of the first three (*first, second, third*) *the* ordinal numerals are formed from cardinal numerals by means of the suffix *-th*.

In ordinal groups only the last member of the group takes the ordinal form: (*the*) *sixty-fifth, (the) twenty-third*. Ordinal numerals are generally used with the definite article (*the first, the fifth, the tenth* etc.). Ordinal numerals may be used with the

indefinite article when they do not show a definite order of persons and things in a series:

"I've torn simply miles and miles of the frill," wailed **a third**. (*Mansfield*)

#### 6.4. Functions of ordinal numerals in a sentence

As a rule ordinal numerals are used as attributes.

"No, this is my **first** dance," she said. (*Mansfield*)

Almost immediately the band started and her **second** partner seemed to spring from the ceiling. (*Mansfield*)

But they may also be used as subject, as predicative and as object.

Then, advancing obliquely towards us came **a fifth**. (*Wells*) (SUBJECT)

Sooner or later, someone is going to tell you about that damned river, so I might as well be **the first**. (*Wilson*) (predicative)

... she noted a scar on his cheek, another that peeped out from under the hair of the forehead, and **a third** that ran down and disappeared under the starched collar. (*London*) (object)

In fractional numbers the numerator is a cardinal and the denominator is a substantivized ordinal: *two-thirds*, *three-sixths*.

Decimal fractions are read in the following way: 7.58—*seven point (decimal) five eight*.

## СПИСОК ДЖЕРЕЛ

1. [Електронний ресурс] Режим доступу:  
<https://www.gingersoftware.com/content/grammar-rules/nouns/>
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Видавничий центр НТУ «ХП».

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