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QUALIFICATION PAPER

on

ADVERBS IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

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INTRODUCTION

The subject matter of the given qualification paper is devoted to the study of adverbs, one of the most important parts of speech, that expresses quality, state and property of action. Adverb is one of the most interesting and debatable problems in parts of speech.

The object of the qualification paper is to study adverb as notional part of speech in non-related languages such as English and Uzbek.

The actuality of the qualification paper is that adverbs as the subject of investigation cause great problems in the English and Uzbek languages.

The aim of qualification paper is to analyze adverbs in non-related languages, to define the likeness and differences between them.

The tasks of our research has planned the theory of adverb, in general is referred to solve the following problems:

- to study adverb as a notional part of speech;
- to reveal the adverb synchronically and diachronically;
- to study adverbial clauses in the sentence;
- to study classifications of adverbs in non-related languages.

The following methods are used in this qualification paper. They are: the definitional componential, comparative methods based on contextual analyses and analytical methods.

The novelty of the qualification paper is to define by the concrete results of investigation. Special emphasize is laid on various types of rendering structure and the translation of adverbs from English into Uzbek.

The materials of the qualification paper are: literature of different authors, Internet materials, dictionaries and of course the real speech of native and foreign writers' work of art.

The theoretical value of this qualification paper is that the theoretical positions of this paper can be used in delivering lectures on Theoretical Grammar.

The practical value of the qualification paper is that the illustrated examples in each chapter can be used in practical lessons and seminars on Theoretical Grammar.

This qualification paper consists of Introduction, two Chapters, Conclusion and Bibliography.

Introduction part deals with the brief plot of this qualification paper and also it informs us about the structure of this work.

Chapter I is devoted to study Adverb and its distinctive features, its notion as a part of speech, diachronical and synchronical approaches to the study of adverbs and adverbial clauses in the sentence. .

Chapter II is devoted to study Adverbs in non-related languages, the functions of the adverb in the sentence and their classification in the English and Uzbek languages.

Conclusion deals with the achieved results of the work under the chosen theme.

Bibliography deals with the list of literatures used in carrying out the investigated work.

CHAPTER I. ADVERB AS A NOTIONAL PART OF SPEECH

1.1. ADVERB AND ITS NOTION

The adverb is the fourth major class of words in English language. The category is not as easy to define as nouns, verbs, and adjectives, since adverbs have many kinds meaning and form, and their grammar is quite complex. In meaning, adverbs express such ideas as *manner, time and place* (location or destination). Only manner adverbs have a recognizable form, most of them (but not all) consisting of the ending *-ly* on an adjective base. Their form cannot recognize other adverbs. They may modify almost any kind of construction in English: nouns, adjectives, verbs, other verbs, prepositions, single words, phrases, or even whole sentences. In some cases a speaker may put an adverb almost anywhere in a sentence without changing the meaning very much: in other cases, the position of the adverb is rigidly fixed; and there are grades of variation between these two extremes in the freedom of placement of adverbs in the sentences¹.

Adverbs that modify adjectives.

Adverbs ending in *-ly* that show the range of application of an adjective precede the adjective. A chemically pure substance a financially sound undertaking
Adverbs modifying verbs, predicates, or the sentence as whole. These adverbs vary according whether they are parenthetically or integral. A parenthetically adverb usually expresses some comment of the speaker (or writer) on what is being stated; an integral adverb is used to modify an element in the sentence.

Frankly, I don't understand his attitude.

"Frankly" means approximately, "I, the speaker, am being frank when I say that..."

Such parenthetical adverbs can be put almost anywhere, although preferable they occur at the beginning of the sentence (as above) or after the object.

Three normal positions of adverbs.

- 1) Initially: before the subject.
- 2) Medially: between the subject and the object.

¹ Gordon E. M. "A grammar of present day English". -T, 1974.

3) Finally: after the object.

The medial position is difficult to define, owing to the many forms that the predicate may take. Normally, medial position is one of the following:

Type 1: Just before the verb, if the verb consists of one word only and is not a form of *be* followed by a complement or displaced subject.

He never *plays* tennis.

We *occasionally see* them.

I *always visit* my mother on Sundays.

We *occasionally do*.

They *often are*.

There *seldom are*.

Type 2: Just before the second word in verb phrases (disregarding *not* or inverted subject in questions). He doesn't *ever play* tennis. We would *occasionally see* them.

Don't you *always visit* your mother on Sundays?

Type 3: Just before the expression following *be*, if the verb is a word form of *be* that is not final in the phrase. They are *never* on time.

Is he *often here*? Are you *always so busy*?

There's *always a crowd* in the store on Sundays. Type 4: Just before the verb, regardless of its form, in emphatic statements.

They *never are* on time. There *always is* a crowd in the store on Saturdays.

We *occasionally do* see them.

In the discussion that follows, when medial position is mentioned, it is understood to mean what has just been described.

Adverbs of place

Except for a new words (*here*., *there*, *somewhere*, etc.), adverbial expressions that answer the question where? Are prepositional phrases (*to the sea*, *in the house*, *under the tree*, etc.). These words and phrases occur to normally in final position. For special emphasis or contrast, they may sometimes occur initially.

We ate the breakfast *outside*. He was sitting *at his desk*.

She was wearing a large hat *on her head*.

On her head she was wearing a large hat. Adverbial expressions of place occur initially in sentences of this type:

In front of the house is a large tree. *On his desk* was an old-fashioned lamp.

These sentences are equivalent to sentences beginning with dummy *there*:

There is a large tree in front of the house.

Adverbs of time

Adverbs and adverbial expressions that answer the question *-when?* Occur most often in final position, though they may also occur in initial position for emphasis or contrast. *They are not used medial position*, except as indicated in the special notes following:

I don't want to do anything *today*.

I was very *busy yesterday*. A package came for you *this morning*.

Today I don't want to do anything.

Yesterday I was very busy. *This morning* a package came for you.

Certain short adverbs having to do with *sequence of time*; rather than points in time, may occur in any of the three position.

Now I understand. Soon there will be nothing.

I now understand. There will soon be nothing left.

I understand now. There will be nothing left.

Other adverbs of this type are *first, then, next, recently, lately, immediately, at once*, and *once* (meaning "on a certain occasion").

I first tried to unlock the door.

The eggs are *then* placed in boiled water.

We *immediately* understood what he was trying to say.

Charles *once* called me at 3 A.M.

Adverbs of frequency

These words answer the question *how often?* Those that are phrases occupy initial or final position (with a few restrictions).

Now and then the lightning flashed.

The lightning flashed *now and then*.

From time to time he puffed at his pipe. He puffed at his *pipe from time to time*.

They go there *all the time*

I don't understand his attitude, frankly. *When they occur last, they are spoken with a rising intonation after a pause almost as an afterthought.*

When the adverb is integral, it states the manner in which the predicate is (\vas, etc.) performed.

He frankly admitted his mistake.

(All the time is not used initially.)

The one-word adverbs of frequency occur, preferable, in medial position. Almost all of them may occur there, but they occur readily in other positions as well. Below is a chart of the commonly occurring adverbs of frequency, with comments on restriction on their position¹.

	Adverbs of frequency	!
Initial	Medial	<i>Final</i>
	Always	
	(Not) ever	
Never	Never	
Seldom	Seldom	
Hardly ever	Hardly ever	
Occasionally	Occasionally	Occasionally
Frequently Often '	Frequently Often	Frequently Often
Sometimes	Sometimes	Sometimes
once	once	Once
		twice I

¹ Kaushanskaya B.L. "A grammar of the English language". Leningrad., 1963.

Some idiomatic adverbs

ALREADY and **YET**. These adverbs are troublesome to learners of English. Their meaning and their grammar are quite complicated. First, *already* is used in affirmative contexts *and yet* in interrogative and negative contexts, except that *already* may occur in interrogative and negative contexts when there is an element of surprise or the speaker is sure of a "yes" answer.

They've left *already*.

They haven't left .

Have they left *yet*? (Neutral question; the speaker really doesn't know.)

Have they left *already*¹? (Expressing surprise upon hearing that they have left or implying that the speaker would be surprised to learn that they had left.)

Surely they haven't left *already*!

Second, *already* and *yet* are different in their word order. *Already* occurs in medial or final position, preferable in medial position, in both statements and questions.

They've *already* left. Or: They have left *already*.

I've *already* told him what you said. (*Already* in final positioning this sentence would be poor style; the predicate is too long.)

Yet may occur in medial or final position in statements, but the medial positions are quite formal except when the predicate is long; final position is preferred in ordinary sentences. *Yet* occurs *only in final position in questions*.

They haven't left *yet*. Formal: They haven't left *yet*.

I haven't *yet* told him what you said. (Medial position because of a long predicate.)

Have told him *yet*? (Final position only in questions.)

Third, since *already* and *yet* express a time relationship that includes a space of time beginning at some moment in the past and extending to "now" (or the moment under consideration in the past), they can be used only with verb phrases that are compatible with such time relationships. Specifically, such verb phrases are there:

1) A "process" verb in a perfect phrase (one containing *have*):

Have they left *already*? Can they *have left yet*? They *had left already*.

2) A "status" verb in the simple present or past, or simple modal phrase:

He *knows* it already

I *knew* that already.

They *don't know* it yet.

3) A "process" verb in the progressive:

They *are already* working. They *weren't* working yet.

4) A "process" verb in the simple present or past when the meaning is "activity characteristic of a certain time-span":

The baby is only ten months old, but she *walks* already.

I *don't speak* French well yet. He had only studied French for a few months, but he already *spoke* it beautifully. Quite a few American speakers use *already* and yet with the simple past of process verbs when the meaning is "one past occurrence", in violation of the rule just given:

Did you *eat* yet? (Instead of: Have you *eaten* yet?)

I *saw* him already. (Instead of: I've *seen* him already.)

Careful speakers still avoid these usages, however, and the learner shouldn't imitate them. When *yet* is used with affirmative verbs, it means the same as *still*. (*Yet* also has other meanings as a conjunction or sentence connector; they are not included in this discussion.)

STILL YET and ANY MORE

These adverbial expressions mean "continuously, up to this (or that) moment." *Still* (or yet) is used in affirmative sentences, and *any more* (often written now in the United States as one word: *anymore*) in negative sentences. If *any more* is used in a question, it implies that the speaker expects a negative answer. *Still* occurs preferable in medial position, but also in final position; *any more* and *yet* occur only in final position.

He *still* lives in Cedar Street.

He must be there *yet*; I haven't heard of his moving away. Do you live there *any more*. Yes, we live there *still*.

EARLY and LATE

These occur only in final position, and so *do forever* in its ordinary meaning.

JUST

As an adverb of time, *just* expresses recentness, or sometimes it indicates that an action is on the point of occurring. Have they just come back? They just left a few minutes ago. I was just leaving when you called.

HARDLY, SCARCELY.

These words as adverbs of time (resents) form a unique pattern with the past perfect in many clauses.

Hardly had we returned, when... Scarcely had I opened the door, when...

Adverbs of manner

Most of adverbs ending in *-ly* and based on adjectives belong in this category, as do a great many prepositional phrases.

The announcement was made *publicly*.

This was done *intentionally*. Phrases expressing manner are almost always in initial or final position.

Without a word, he left the room.

One-word adverbs of manner may occur in any of the three positions, but their use in initial position is infrequent in conversation.

Carefully, he signed his name.

The choice between medial and final positions is more or less at the opinion of the speaker. Any long object or complement tends to the adverb to medial position, closer to the adverb¹.

He could see the man *clearly*. He could *clearly* see long column of man on horseback.

Since infinitives and clauses may be modified by adverbs of their own, medial position of adverbs that modify the main verb is sometimes the only position that will prevent ambiguity.

¹ Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка — М., 1959.

He *carefully* explained why he wouldn't be able to help us. Although adverbs ordinarily do not occur between the verb phrase and its object, they are allowed to separate verbs from following infinitives and clauses.

He demanded *angrily* to see the manager. He explained *carefully* why he wouldn't be able to help us. Adverbs of manner that do not end in *-ly* are almost always in final position¹.

He works *hard*. Adverbs with imperative verbs are in final position.

Handle these boxes *carefully*.

Adverbs of degree

A number of adverbs that express degree of intensity, completeness, etc., occur both medially and finally never initially.

I *thoroughly* understood it. I understood it *thoroughly*.

I *very much* appreciate it. I appreciate it *very much*.

I had *completely* forgotten the appointment. I had forgotten the appointment *completely*.

Other adverbs in this group are *entirely*, *badly*, *greatly*, *enormously*, *largely*, *tremendously*, *keenly*, and *somewhat*.

Not quite is used with present and past perfect phrases to express processes that have not yet reached a stage of completion.

I haven't *quite* finished. They hadn't *quite* reached the top of the hill.

The use of *quite* and *rather* as modifiers of verb is restricted by idiom; *quite* means "completely" and *rather* means "to a degree".

I *quite* agree. (An emphatic statement)

Have you *quite* finished? (A question that often implies some impatience or annoyance)

I *rather* doubt it. I *rather* think so.

Much sometimes occurs without *very* after very short predicates in interrogative and negative contexts. *Much* can also occur medially.

¹ Ilysh A.B. "The structure of modern English". 1971.

Do you miss them *much*

I don't miss them *much*.

I don't *much* care.

Hardly, barely, scarcely, narrowly, and just—all showing small degree—regularly appear in medial position, as do *almost, also, even, and mostly*. (*Hardly, barely, and scarcely* counts as "negatives" and are not used with another negative words in the context; constructions that are allowed in negative contexts only may be used with them. Like other negatives, can be reinforced by *at all* at the end of the sentence.)

The rock just missed me. It hardly matters (at all).

I barely felt the pain.

He hardly knows anybody here.

He almost got on the wrong train.

They mostly play cards. He can even develop the films. Mary has also studied German.

The fact that *also*, logically speaking, qualifies *German* rather than the verb in the last example has no effect on its position in the sentence. The same is true of *only* in ordinary style.

ADVERBS IN SERIES

When two or more adverbial expressions occur at the time in final position in a sentence, a problem arises as to how they should be arranged. We find that English grammar is not usually permissive in this matter; in the majority of cases, the order is fixed according to a rule, though the rule may be complicated to state.

Adverbs of manner and place

In this combination, the order is likely to be determined by the «heaviness» of the two elements. (The heavy element goes last.) A short adverb of manner ending in *-ly* ordinarily precedes a prepositional phrase expressing place. He walked slowly *to the door*. I sat down quietly *in the back row*. There is lighter than a *-ly* adverb, and precedes it. We walked there slowly.

If there two phrases of equal weight, either order is allowed. He walked *with some reluctance to the front of the classroom*, (or: *to the front of the classroom -with some reluctance*)

Adverbs of place and time. English syntax prefers that adverbs of place be put ahead of adverbs of time, and this word order is almost always correct. In some cases, when the two elements are of equal weight, the reverse order is also possible¹.

The following expressions of degree occur quite frequently and are used only in final position: *a lot, a little, a great deal, very much*; phrases like *by a wide margin*;

And —ly adverbs like *slightly* and *heavily*. We miss them a lot (a little, very much, etc).

When *be* is followed by an expression of location, the latter functions as a complement of *be*. *Be* is not ordinarily separated from its complement except by adverbs that can occur in medial position.

They live there now. He works *at home* in the morning.

We will be *there* soon. I went *to the dentist* this morning.

In the case of phrases of equal weight, either word order is allowed. I'll meet you in a little while *in front of the library*, (or: *in front of the library* in a little while.)

An adverb of time has to be placed ahead of an adverb of place when a short time expression and a long phrase expressing place occur together. They are living this summer *in the house that -we used to live /«.* (but: They're living in our house *this summer.*)

Adverbs of manner, place, and time, when all three types occur together, manner comes before place and time.

The children played enthusiastically on the swings *all morning*.

He is sitting *unhappily* outside the door *right now*.

¹ Kaushanskaya B.L. "A grammar of the English language". Leningrad., 1963.

Some variation is possible , depending on complex factors of connectedness between the various elements and their "weight":

Charles goes *to school* *happily* *in the morning*.

Go to school is closely connected in meaning, and therefore an expression of place precede an adverb of manner.

PARENTHETICAL ADVERBS

Adverbs are used not only to modify elements within the sentence (they are called *integral* in the case); they are also used to express comments by the speaker (or writer) on the sentence as a whole (in which case they are *parenthetical*). When parenthetical adverbs are in initial or final position , they are usually pauses before or after them, and commas are used in writing. When they are medial, there are usually no pauses. Parenthetical adverbs behave slightly differently in medial position from integral adverbs. Integral adverbs modify what follows them, and in negative sentences they follow *n 't* or *not*, since the adverb is part of the predicate and is negated , along with everything else, by the negative element.

They *usually* have breakfast in the dining room.

They don't *usually* have it in the kitchen.

"Usually have it in the kitchen" is negated by the preceding don't. If we replace *usually* by *obviously*, a parenthetical adverb not stating something about the frequency of occurrence of what follows but stating the speaker's attitude toward information contained the sentence, we find that affirmative sentence, it occupies the same position.

We obviously don't have breakfast in the dining room.(who could possibly think otherwise?)

In negative, however, we cannot put *obviously* after don't, since then it becomes negated along with the rest of the predicate. What we want to say is that *we don't have breakfast in the kitchen* and that this fact is so obvious that it hardly needs to be said. Accordingly, the word order in this case is:

We *obviously* don't have breakfast in the kitchen.

In case some auxiliary other than *do* occurs, the parenthetical adverb may come between the auxiliary and *not*.

We will obviously not stay here very long.

He is obviously not suited for the job.

If we say "He is not obviously not suited for the job," we mean that he is suited for the job, but in ways that are not obvious.

Of course can occur in any of the three adverbial positions. When it is medial, there are no pauses before or after it, although in writing it is commonly set off by commas by many writers.

Of course, this will not be necessary if you pay cash. This will *of course* not be necessary if you pay cash. This will not be necessary, *of course*, if you pay cash. *Naturally, obviously, clearly, certainly*, etc., can also occur in any of the three positions, but they are avoided in medial position when an ambiguity might result from their being interpreted as integral rather than parenthetical adverbs. *Naturally*, I was delighted by the news. (Not: I was naturally delighted by the news.)

It was *certainly* a pity that you missed the meeting.

Enough is often combined with parenthetical adverbs to add a note of ironic emphasis.

Oddly enough, he refused a second piece of pie.

Doubtless (note the absence *of-ly*) and *probably* are used in medial position. This will *doubtless (probably)* be no surprise to you. They have *doubtless (probably)* left the city already.

Parenthetical adverbs can occur almost anywhere in the sentence if, in speech, there are pauses before and after or, in writing there is punctuation¹. She doesn't—obviously—like him very much. He turned down—oddly enough—our offer.

¹ Kaushanskaya B.L. "A grammar of the English language". Leningrad., 1963.

1.2. THE ADVERB IN MODERN ENGLISH

In modern English the suffix *-ly* became the only productive adverb-forming suffix. This suffix can be joined on to the stem of any adjective whose meaning admits of adverb formation.

The Middle English adverbs with the *—e* suffix, inherited from Old English, lost their *-e* and thus became indistinguishable from the corresponding adjectives. A few adverbs of this type have been preserved in modern English, e.g. *fast*, *loud*, *hard*, as in *work hard*. The other old adverbs, which coincided with their adjectives, were placed by new adverbs derived by means of the *—ly*-suffix.

In the formation of degrees of comparison no change occurred in Modern English as against Middle English.

The adverb is a word denoting circumstances or characteristics, which attend or modify an action, state or quality. It may also intensify a quality or characteristics¹.

From this definition it is difficult to define adverbs as a class, because they comprise a most heterogeneous group of the words, and there is considerable overlap between the class and other word classes. They have many kinds of form, meaning and function. Alongside such undoubtful adverbs as *considerable* adverbs as *here*, *now*, *often*, *seldom*, *always*, there are many others, which also function as other word classes. Thus, adverbs like *dead* (dead tired), *clear* (to get clear away), *clean* (I've clean forgotten), and *slow easy* (he would say that slow and easy) coincide with adjectives (*a dead body*, *clear waters*, *clean hands*). Adverbs like *past*, *above* homonymous with prepositions. There is also a special group of pronominal adverbs *when*, *where*, *how*, *why* used either as interrogative words or as connectives to introduce subordinate clauses.

Where shall we go? (An interrogative adverb)

We'll go *where* you want (a connective)

¹ Luch G. "A communicative grammar of English -M., Prosvesheniya" 1971.

Some adverbs may be used rather like a verb, as in "Up, Jenkins! Down, Peter!", where the first word is like an imperative.

In many cases the borderline between adverbs and words of the other classes is defined syntactically.

He walked *past*. (Adverb)

He walked *past the house*. (Preposition)

They took the dog *in*. (adverb)

They left the dog *in the house*. (Preposition)

He did everything slowly but *surely*. (Adverb)

Surely you know him. (Modal word) I. The adverb.

(1) The meaning of the adverb as a part of speech is hard to define. Indeed. Some adverbs indicate time or place of an action (yesterday, here), while others indicate its property (very). As, however, we should look for one central meaning characterizing the part of speech as whole it seems best to formulate the meaning of the adverb as "property of an action or of a property".

(2) Form. Adverbs are invariable. Some of them, however, have degrees of comparison (fast, faster, and fastest).

(3) Function, (a) An adverb combines with a verb (run quickly), with an adjective (very young), occasionally with a noun and with a phrase (so out of things).

(b) An adverb can sometimes follow a preposition (from there).

(c) In a sentence an adverb is almost always an adverbial modifier, or part of it (from there), but it may occasionally be an attribute.

1. The meaning of the adverb as a part of speech is hard to define. Indeed, some adverbs indicate time or place of an action, while others indicate its property. Nevertheless, we showed looking for one central meaning characterizing the part of speech as a whole, it seems best to formulate the meaning of the adverb as "property of an action or a property".

Many linguists - grammarians worked on this problem (Ilyish B. 1971; Buranov G. B. 1974; 1978; 1986; Ganshina M.R. and others, 1964; Kaushanskay B. D., 1963; J. Heed, 1983; Chairmorid B.C. and others, 1967) and discussed the problems connected with adverbs and gave some theoretical and practical positions. Here is what B. Ilysh says.

"We will accept that definition of the meaning of adverb which, though not quite satisfactory, enables us to distinguish what is an adverb from what is not. The adverb, then, expresses either the degree of property or the property of an action or the circumstances under which an action takes place".

[B. Ilyish, 1971, p. 146]

Among the adverbs there are some, which admit of degrees of comparison. and others, which do not. In mentioning this, we need not go into details, since we can apply here everything that has been said about degrees of comparison of adjectives. Thus, if we do not admit such phrases as more difficult, (the) most difficult to be analytical degrees of comparison of the adjective difficult, we shall not admit, e.g. ... more quickly and most quickly to be analytical degrees of comparison of the adverb quickly. In that case, there would be only two types of degrees of comparison in adverbs; (1) the suffix type, for instance, quickly, quicker, quickest, or fast, faster, fastest, and (2) the superlative type, represented by a few adverbs, such as well, better, best or badly, worse, worst.

Adverbs may sometimes be preceded by prepositions, which mean that they become partly substantives. This is seen in such phrases as from here, from there, since when up to now, etc. Further B. Ilyish pays a special attention to this verb and adverb groups¹.

Later special attention has been paid to this problem by many scholars especially to the groups of the type: "come in", "go out", "set up", "put down", "bring up", etc., i.e. groups consisting of a verb and an adverb so closely united in meaning that the adverb does not indicate a property of the action or a

¹ Close R.A. "A reference grammar for students of English" - Moscow., "Prosvesheniya" 1976

circumstance under which the action takes place [Palmer H., 1930; Smirnitskiy A.I. 1959; Anichkov I.E., 1977; Amosova N.N., 1963; Jirtuchenco Y.A., 1954]

This is especially true of such groups as **bring up**, meaning "educate", which certainly does not name an action denoted by the adverb «*up*. This also applies to such groups as *put up* (with something), in which nothing remains either of the meaning of the verb **put** or of that of the adverb *up*. Different scholars have treated these groups. The main difference is between those who think that formations of the type **bring up** are phrases and those who think that they are words.

If they are phrases, the next question is what part of speech the second element is. The prevailing view is that the second element is an adverb, but some scholars think it necessary to modify this statement in some way or other. Thus, the same view was held by Prof. I. Anichkov thinks that they are a special kind of adverbs, which we call "adverbial postpositions". Prof. Amosova thinks that they are a special kind of for of words, which she calls "postpositive". The opposite view, namely those formations of the type **bring up** are words, and consequently their second part is a morpheme, was expressed by Y. Zhluktenko. In his view, **up** in **bring up** and similarly the second element of other formations of this kind is "postpositive prefixes". To support this view, Zhluktenko pointed out that in some cases we find such correspondences as **income** (noun) and come **in** (verb), **upbringing** (noun) and **bring up** (verb), **upkeep** (noun) and **keep up** (verb), etc. an intermediate view was proposed in her earlier book, where she held that the second element of these formations was a separate part of speech. namely a postposition, and that postpositions were half words, half morphemes. The very variety of views on the subject is a sure sign of its complexity¹.

In approaching the subject now from the view point of present day linguistics, we cannot accept the view that the second part of these formations is a morpheme and the whole formation a word. If these were really so, phrases. like

¹ Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка — М., 1959.

brought them up or **put it down** would be impossible. Y. Zhluktenko's theory is based on the assumption that there are "analytical words", that is. words consisting of two parts which are not only written separately but may even be separated from each other by another word (such as the personal pronouns in **brought them up** and **put it down**). This view is unacceptable, since it would destroy the notion of a "word" altogether.

On the other hand, there seems to be no need to constitute the postpositions as a separate part of speech. The peculiarity of meaning, seen in the fact that the second element in **bring up** or **put down** does not indicate the circumstances (the whole has a meaning entirely different from the meanings of the components) may be put down as phraseology. In this view, for example, **bring up**, would be a phraseological unit consisting of the verb **bring** and the adverb up, and the analysis of its meaning would completely fall under the domain of lexicology, of which phraseology is a part¹.

Another difficulty involved in adverbs is that of words like **after** and **before** which are variously used,

E.g. I had never seen him before; I'd never seen before last Sunday; I had never seen him before he arrived in Moscow.

Similar examples might be given with the word **after** and some other words. The following features characterize adverb as a part of speech:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or qualities.
2. The category of the degrees of comparison.
3. Typical stem-building affixes, as in quickly, sideways, clock-wise, backwards a shore, etc.
4. Its unilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with ad links and nouns.
5. The function of adverbial complement, sometimes other functions.

¹ Buranov J.B. The grammatical structure of English, Uzbek and Russian. Tashkent, "Ukituvchi" 1986.

The category of the degrees of comparison of adverbs is similar to that of adjectives. Buranov A.B. and Khaimovich B.C are right when they say that it is (soon-sooner-soonest, actively-more actively-most actively) showing either the characteristic the adverb contains is absolute or relative. The comparative and superlative members of the oppose me are built up either synthetically (by means of affixation or suppletivity) or analytically (by means of word morphemes). The synthetic and analytical forms are in complementary distribution like those of adjective, only the number of synthetic forms is smaller as much as are fewer monosyllabic and disyllabic adverbs. Compare: lazy-lazier-(the) laziest, lazily-more, lazily-most.

With regard to the category of the degrees of comparison adverbs (like adjectives) fall into comparables and non-comparables. The number of non-comparables is much greater among adverbs than among adjectives. In other words, there are many adverbs whose lexemes contain but one word (yesterday, always, northward, upstairs, etc).

As the definition of the lexico-grammatical meaning shows, adverbs may be divided into three lexico-grammatical subclasses: qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

Qualitative adverbs like "loudly", "quickly»,» brightly", etc. usually modify verbs, less other ad links. They show the quality of an action or state much in the same way as a qualitative adjective shows the quality of same substance. Carapace: speaks loudly and loud speech walks quickly and a quick walk.

The connection between qualitative adverbs and adjectives is obvious. In most cases the adverb is derived from the adjective with the help of the most productive adverb-forming suffix **-ly** like the corresponding adjectives qualitative adverbs usually have opposites of the comparative and superlative degrees.

A.I. Smirnitsky advances the view that "quick" and "quickly" might be treated as belonging to the same part of speech, but having different combinability. In other words, "quick"-"quickly" might be regarded as an

adjectival grammatical opossum, and "-ly" is a morpheme of "adverbially". We must take issue with Prof. Smirnitsky over this theory.

1. The most typical feature of a grammatical morpheme distinguishing it from a lexico-grammatical one is its relativity, the morpheme "-s" in "books" with the zero morpheme of "singularity". In the opossum "quick-quickly", it is also possible to assert that "-ly" denotes "adverbially" because "quickly» is opposed to "quick" with the zero morpheme of adjectivally. But in "purpose"- "purposely", "part-partly", "night-nightly" "-ly" denotes adverbially, though it is not opposed to the zero morpheme of adjectivity, but rather to that of substance. In "first"- "firstly", "second"- "secondly", "third"- "thirdly", etc. -- "ly" denotes adverbially though it is opposed to "numerality".

In "mocking"- "mockingly", "admiring"- "admiringly", "confused"- "confusedly", "broken"- "brokenly", the "adverbially" of "-ly" is opposed to "particibiality". In short the adverbial meaning in "-ly" is not relative, and "-ly" is not a grammatical morpheme.

2. The suffix -ly is a lexico-grammatical morpheme which accounts for its being common to all the words of an adverb lexeme e.g. "evidently"- "more violently"- "most violently".

3. Though "-ly" is very productive, there are other lexico-grammatical morphemes forming the stems of qualitative adverbs from adjective stems, or qualitative adverbs from adjective stems, or else adverbs and adjectives are related by conversion. Coupler loud-ally, loudly, loud-adv., aloud; long as-long adv., long ways, longwise-adv.

4. There are many adjectives in "-ly" related by conversion with corresponding adverbs-early", "daily", etc.

There are other adjectives in "-ly" which have no corresponding adverbs. For example "lovely", "lively", etc.

5. The comparison of such words as high a. - high adv., highly late a. - late adv., lately hard a. - late adv., hardly near a. - near adv., nearly

Shows that the suffix “-ly” introduces changes in the lexical meanings of words, so that words with and without “-ly” cannot belong to the same opposeme or lexeme.

The words "probably", "possibly", "luckily", derived from adjective stems, are no longer adverbs but modal words, so that the adjectives "probable", "possible", "lucky" have no corresponding adverbs, but they have corresponding modal words with the suffix “-ly”.

All these and similar facts show that “-ly” is not inflexion but a highly productive stem-building suffix. Therefore “quick” and “quickly” are not members of a grammatical opposeme. They have different stems and belong to different combinability and different syntactical functions, naturally, belong to different parts of speech.

Thus, qualitative adverbs, with or without “-ly”, are a subclass of adverbs with peculiar lexico-grammatical features. As they characterize the quality of an action or state, they are inwardly bound with a verb or as close as possible to the verbs or adlinks they modify.

Quantitative adverbs like “very”, “rather”, “too”, “nearly”, “greatly”, “utterly”, etc. show the degree, measure, quantity of an action, quality, state, etc.

The combinability of this subclass is more extensive than that of the qualitative adverbs. Besides verbs and adlinks quantitative adverbs modify adjectives, adverbs. Besides verbs and adlinks quantitative adverbs modify adjectives, adverbs, numerals, modals, even nouns.

The combinability of some adverbs of this subclass can be rather narrow. The adverbs “very” (frightfully, awfully, etc.), for instance, mostly precedes those adjectives and adverbs which verbs, adlinks or numerals.

The combinability of “nearly” or “almost”, on the other hand, is so extensive, that these words are close to particles.

Quantitative adverbs are correlative with quantitative pronouns, such as “much”, (a) “little”, “enough”. As to their structure adverb are divided into:

element that it logically restricts,

He could *only* succeed by hard work.

He could succeed *only* by hard work. -

That award will *only* be given to a brave man. That award will be given *only* to a brave man.

Too may follow the subject, if it modifies that element specifically; or, it may follow the verb (and its complements, if any), regardless of which element in the sentence it modifies. In speech, it is easy to indicate which, since that element is stressed. In writing, special type (usually italicizing the word) must be resorted to in case of ambiguity.

Mary, *too*, talked about him. (This arrangement is unambiguous; *too* modifies Mary.)

Mary talked about him *too*. (With stress on *Mary*, this sentence means the same as one above.)

Mary *talked* about him *too*. (Mary thought about him; in addition, she talked about him.)

Mary talked *about* him *too*. (Mary talked to him; she also talked about him.)

Mary talked about *him* *too*. (Mary talked about several people; she talked about him also.)

Especially is an adverb that usually modifies (logically) either the subject or the object of a verb. When it modifies the subject, it follows with pauses.

John especially should study this lesson. When it modifies the object, it is in medial position.

John should especially study this lesson. I especially dislike the rainy days.

If especially precedes an adjective or an adverb, it modifies that word.

It was especially hot that day. The grass grows *especially* fast in spring.

For reasons of euphony, *especially* is not regularly used before adverbs ending in *-ly*

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

According to their meaning and function, adverbial clauses express time, place, manner, comparison, condition, purpose, result, cause and concession. Clauses of time. Time clauses are introduced by one of a limited number of words or phrases: *when, while, as, before, until, since, after, as soon as*, and few others. The clause is placed before or after the main clause at the option of the speaker.

Please look at this letter *before you go out*.

Before you go out, please look at this letter.

A time clause that deals with events in the future has its verb in the plain present tense or in the present perfect. *Will* is never used in time clauses in English.

I'll tell him *when he comes*.

After you have eaten, let's go to the park.

You'd better write down the number *before you forget it*.

I'm going to work on this lesson *until I've learned it*.

The action, or the completion of the action of all the time clauses in the examples

just given lies in the future. When the future is viewed from a standpoint in the past, the appropriate change of tense is made.

I promised that I would tell him *when he came*.

I suggested that we go to the park *after he had eaten*.

Sometimes time clauses are introduced by nouns, with or without a connecting word (that or sometimes when).

The moment he learned the truth, he resigned.

I saw them *the day I left for Europe*.

We were there *the week that it snowed so heavily*.

The past perfect, is used to show that one of two events in the past was earlier than the other. Instead of the past perfect, the simple past is often used, if no ambiguity would result.

After she put the bread in the oven to bake, she began to set the table.

The use of *after* makes it clear that putting the bread in the oven is an earlier event than setting the table. If *when* had been used, however, the past perfect would have been required, since *when* may mean either that the completion of one action is the occasion for the other, or that they accurate the same time.

When the baby saw its mother, it smiled broadly.

When we had finished eating, we left the table.

When she had put the bread in the oven to bake she began to set the table.

When also means "every time that" and overlaps with *whenever*.

When (or *whenever*) I read too long, I get a headache.

When often means "and then."

I had just gone to bed *when the telephone rang*.

CLAUSES OF PLACE

These are not frequent, since the idea of place is usually expressed by prepositional phrases.

We live now where *we 've always lived*.

I hid it *where you 'll never find it*.

CLAUSES OF MANNER

Again, these are not frequent, since manner is expressed most of the time by adverbs ending in *—ly* or by prepositional phrase. As introduced clauses of manner. He didn't do it *as I thought he should*.

Informal English often uses *like* instead of *as* in such clauses, to the intense displeasure of traditional grammarians. In fact, the use of *like* instead of *as* is one of the most notorious "errors" in speech today (along with the "double negative" mentioned earlier), and speakers must carefully avoid it if their speech is to be judged correct¹. *Like* is perfectly acceptable as a preposition (that is, if a noun construction follows it). Many speakers use *the way* as a

¹ Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка — М., 1959.

conjunction, thus circumventing the perils of as and *like*.

Do it *like this*. or:

Do it *as I suggest*.

Do it *the way I suggest* or:

(Do it *in the way I suggest*).

CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

Adverbs are inflected for comparison in much the same way that adjectives are, except that only those short adverbs not ending in *-ly* use the endings *—er* and *est*.

Fast	faster	fastest
------	--------	---------

Tight	tighter	tightest
-------	---------	----------

Henry *drives fast*. George *drives faster*. David *drives fastest* of all.

There are some **irregular comparisons**:

Well	better	best
------	--------	------

Badly	worse	worst
-------	-------	-------

Far	farther	farthest
-----	---------	----------

The connecting word *than*, used with comparatives, is a conjunction, and the words following it are a clause, or the vestiges of one. The best English style uses only as many words after *than* as are required to make the meaning clear.

The horse ate more *than the cow ate*.

One way to simplify the foregone *than* clause would be to use an echo verb, *did*, in place of *ate*.

The horse ate more *than the cow did*. And even simpler version would be to omit the verb altogether.

The horse ate more than the cow.

The meaning prevents the only possible misinterpretation, since it is known that horses are not in the habit of eating cows.

In speech, intonation would make the meaning clear; in writing, it would be better to include *did*.

The tiger ate more than the cow; it also ate a sheep. In this case, *cow* is an object. When pronouns follow *than* we encounter the problem of which is correct, the */-* series or the *me* — series (subjective or objective). As has been pointed out earlier, in formal English prefers the objective form whenever the pronoun is not intimately connected with a spoken verb as its subject, while "correct" formal style requires the subjective pronoun¹.

He runs faster than *me* (informal).

He runs faster than *I* (elegant).

All speakers say *I* if there is a following verb:

He runs faster than *I do*. In the next example the meaning is not clear.

Marry likes Paul better than *me*.

Does the speaker mean "better than I do" or "better than she likes me"? It would be better to expand the *then* - clause to make this clear.

The use of *then* implies a clause that parallels the main clause in structure. The verb used, if any, are usually echo verbs.

I can jump farther than you. (=than you can jump)

I can jump farther than you can. (=than you can jump)

I like coffee more than tea. (than I like tea)

We walked farther today than yesterday. (=than we walked yesterday)

The expression *than necessary* and *than usual* are idiomatic replacements for rather complex clauses in sentences like these:

He paid more than necessary. (=more than it was necessary to pay)

He ate more than usual. (=than he usually ate, or usually eats)

Sometimes *than* merely connected equivalent structures.

I would rather *go* than *stay*.

I say this more in *sorrow* than in *anger*.

Similar replacements occur in the comparison of equality.

He ate as much as John. (= as John ate)

¹ Gordon E. M. "A grammar of present day English". -T., 1974.

Jim ran as fast as he could (=as he could run)

PROPORTIONATE CHANGE

The use of the adverb with cooperatives at the beginning of clauses indicates that two (or more) actions or situations are changing in proportion to each other. *The longer* we waited, *the more* impatient we became. *The better* I got to know him, *the less* I liked him.

Frequently in this construction subjects and verbs are omitted altogether.

The sooner, the better.

The more the merrier. (That is, the more people there are, and the merrier we will be.) If the reference is to future time, the verb in the first clause is always present tense or present perfect. The sooner we *start*, the sooner we will finish.

CLAUSES OF CONDITION

These clauses are introduced by *if*, *unless*, *as if*, *as though*, and occasionally *when*. They are of two kinds: *undetermined conditions* (something that may be true, but of whose reality the speaker doesn't have certain knowledge; or something that is in future), and *unreal conditions* (something that is hypothetically or contrary to fact, or at least is thought to be such by the speaker).

Undetermined conditions. The verb in *undetermined* //^clauses is in its ordinary form,, except that future events are always referred to by the present tense. *Will* is never used in //^clauses except to mean "be willing". In conditions having to do with habitual or customary actions, or with future events that are regarded as near-certainties, *-when* can be used instead of *if*.

If I'm working I don't like disturbed. (Habitually.)

When I'm working I don't like to be disturbed. (This sentence and the preceding one are equivalent.)

Give this message to John *if you* see him. (Your seeing him is uncertain.) Give this message to John *when* you see him. (The speaker feels that the addressee is certain to see John.) main clause. *Unless* is generally restricted to use in expressing undermined conditions.

He will be here by 8 o'clock *unless he has car trouble* on the way. (In the absence of his having car trouble, he will be here.) *Unless the weather was bad*, my father always used to take a walk in the evening.

CLAUSES WITH **AS IF**.

This conjunction, along with *as though*, which is equivalent to it in meaning, expresses unreality in contemporary situations. In past situations, it may express undetermined or unreal conditions¹.

He acts *as if* he was a millionaire. (He is not a millionaire.) British English is not nearly so insistent on the use of *were* in unreal clauses with *as-if* as American English is, and consequently sentences such as " He acts as if he *was* a millionaire" can also be found in standard usage.

In the past, if the speaker knows the condition to be unreal, he ordinarily uses *were* instead of *was* (other forms of the past tense are the same for both undetermined and unreal conditions).

Many English speakers use *like* instead of *as if* or *as though*, but this usage is so strongly condemned that all speakers who want to be judged correct avoid it. Learners of English may hear it occasionally, but they are warned not to imitate it.

He acts like he was a millionaire.

CLAUSES OF PURPOSE AND RESULT

The use of the infinitive to express purpose has already been mentioned. There is a clause construction with similar meaning introduced by *so that*. The modals-*will*, *can*, and *May* are usually used in clauses of purpose in the future; *would*, *could* and *might* are frequent used in clauses referring to purpose in the past.

I'll give you his telephone number,
So that you won't have to look it up
so that you can call him when I arrive.

¹ <http://google.com/> English adverbs

so that you may call him when you arrive.

He gave me his telephone number, so that I wouldn't have to look it up so that I could call him when I arrived, so that I might call him when I arrived.

Clauses of result are also expressed by *so that*; the context indicates the difference between result and purpose. Usually the verb in a result clause is expressed without the modals, so that it expresses real events rather than possible future ones. Informally *that* may be omitted from the phrase "so that." He gave me the number, so that I didn't have looked it up.

If it rains tomorrow, we will stay at home. (The speaker has no way of what the future holds, and so uses //to state a possible real event of whose occurrence he cannot be certain.)

Undetermined conditions in the past always indicate that the speaker does not know whether they occurred or not.

Unreal conditions. The verb in unreal //-clauses is always past tense (unreality being one of the meanings of the English "past" tense). The simple past tense expresses contemporary unreality; the past perfect expresses past unreality. The modals *could and would when* used in //-clauses usually have "unreal" meanings. If the verb in a contemporary unreal //-clause is *being*, the form "'were "' is used for all subjects. (The student will recall that the same rule applies to that-clauses after *wish*, which also express unreality.)

CONTEMPORARY UNREALITY:

If my children *spoke* to me that way, I would be angry. (The is that they do not speak tome that way.)

If MR. Evans *were* here, we could begin. (Mr. Evans is not here, and therefore we cannot begin.)

If I *had* a car, I would drive to Mexico. (I do not have a car.)

I would help you if I could. (I cannot help you.)

You would like Chinese food if you would try it.

(Would expresses willingness, and the speaker believe that the addressee is not

willing to try Chinese food.)

PAST UNREALITY:

If I *had had* a car last summer, I would have driven to Mexico. If you *had told* me you were coming, I would have prepared dinner for you. An elegant variation of the clause of past unreality omits //and begins the sentence with *had*.

Had we known what was about to happen, we would have acted differently. A similar elegant variation of the *if*- clause with *should* refer to future events also available.

Should you see him, please give him my regards.

CLAUSES WITH UNLESS.

Clauses with //mean that the actual or supposed presence of the condition stated by the *if*- clause brings about the condition stated by the main clause. With *unless*-clauses, it is the absence of the condition that brings about the result stated by the.

There is also a construction consisting of *so* with an adjective or adverb and *than*, *that* - clause expressing a result of the condition expressed by the preceding word.

It is so early *that no one has arrived*.

This book is so long *that I can't finish it today*.

She sings so beautifully *that I can't believe she has had no training*.

The car was moving so fast *that it could not stop at the intersection*.

If a noun occurs along with an adjective in the structure, two patterns are available:

He is so excellent *a teacher* that many school to hire him. He is *such an* excellent *teacher* that many schools want to hire him.

The pattern with *such* is much more frequent, since the pattern with *so* is considered extremely formal.

CLAUSES OF CAUSE

The idea of cause in an adverbial clause is expressed by *because*, *since*, *as*, and *for*. They occur in descending order of frequency, *because* being the most frequent *and for* the least frequent. "*Since* " usually means that the cause is evident; *as*

expressing cause is not often heard in American English; *for* is literary somewhat archaic.

I brought an umbrella *because* I thought it might rain. *Since* it looks as though it might rain, I brought an umbrella. As it was raining, I brought an umbrella. I brought an umbrella, *for* it was raining.

Clauses with *because*, *since* and *as* may occur either before or after the main clause; those with *ybr* must follow the main clause.

Now that is similar in meaning to *since*; it points *out facts* so that conclusions can be drawn from them.

Now that school is over, you will have more free time.

CLAUSES OF CONCESSION

In formal conversation concession is most often expressed by *but*.

He's small, *but* he is strong. This trunk is big, *but* it isn't heavy.

In more formal language, one of the ideas would be subordinate to the other by means of *although*, *though*, *even though*, *even if*, etc.

Although he's small, he's strong. *Although* this trunk is big, it isn't heavy.

Contrasting ideas are often expressed as separate sentences with parenthetical *though* at the end.

He's small. He's strong, *though*. This trunk is big. It isn't heavy, *though*.

Clauses of concession are also introduced by *despite the fact*, *in spite of the fact that*, *notwithstanding the fact that*, *regardless of the fact that*. Similar meanings can be expressed by omitting *the fact that* and following the initial word by a noun phrase.

CHAPTER II. ADVERBS IN NON-RELATED LANGUAGES

2.1. GRAMMATICAL FUNCTIONS OF ADVERBS IN THE SENTENCE

The syntactical function of the adverb in the sentence is that of any adverbial modifier. An adverb may be connected with a verb, an adjective or another adverb. When connected with a verb the adverb characterizes the quality or the manner of the action, the circumstances in which it occurs, etc.:

CONNECTIVE ADVERBS

Some adverbs serve to connect the parts of a compound sentence or a clauses of a complex sentence retaining at the same time their adverbial meaning (semi-form-words). The following adverbs connect the parts of a compound sentence: *therefore, so, accordingly, consequently, besides, moreover, likewise, nevertheless, however*:

It is very cold *therefore* I shan't go out.

It was late, *so* we went home... (Seton-Thompson.)

She made no friends, for she was Macready's wife; *moreover* Macready didn't want her to make friends. (Galsworthy.)

PRONOMINAL ADVERBS

The following adverbs are called pronominal adverbs: *here, there, where, now, then, when, thus, how*. These adverbs have been formed from the roots of pronouns (*he, that, who*) and have traits in common with pronouns. They indicate place, time and manner in a relative way, similar to the relative way, similar to the relative indication of things and attributes to things found in pronouns:

Your place is here (near the speaker). Compare with the use of the demonstrative pronoun *this*:

This place is yours (the place near the speaker).

Your place is *there* (far from the speaker). Compare with the demonstrative pronoun *that*: *That* place is yours (the place far from the speaker)

How did you do it? I did it *thus* (the meaning of *thus* depends on the actual situation; in one case it may mean by using a hammer, in other case, by climbing the ladder, etc.).

2. **Compound pronominal** adverbs are formed by combining with an adverb. Here belong adverbs the first element which is a pronoun (*some, any, no, every*), the second —an adverb (*where, how*): *somewhere, anywhere, nowhere, everywhere somehow, anyhow*:

In the air, cleared of dust, the scent of way was **everywhere**. Mrs. Duke was **nowhere** seen... (Norris.) "I haven't been **anywhere**," she murmured glumly. (Bennett) **Somewhere** down the stream, a swan unfolded its wings...

Pronominal adverbs may be used as interrogative and connective adverbs.

Interrogative adverbs are used to introduce special questions: *Where? When? Why? How?*

Why didn't you tell me before?

Where did you see her?

When they started?

How are you going to do it?

CONNECTIVE ADVERBS

Pronominal adverbs used to join subordinate clauses are called **connective adverbs**. 1. **Connective adverbs are subdivided into conjunctive and relative.**

a) **Conjunctive** adverbs are introduced **subject, predicative, and object clauses**:

"**How** he got in here is a mystery to me." (Subject clause.) This is why he had thought of Bosinney. (Predicative clause.)

b) I didn't see how that was possible... (Object clause.)

c) **Relative** adverbs introduce **attribute clauses**:

They had a warm hollow in the sand hills where the wind didn't come. Memory of the day when Fleur was born... came to him sharply. I had reached that state of sleepiness when Pegotty seemed to swell and grow immensely large.

Conjunctive and relative adverbs are semi-form-words. They are used to connect clauses—an auxiliary function; but at the same time they have independent function in the subordinate clause they introduce: I should like to know when he would come (*when* is an adverbial modifier of time in the subordinate object clause). This is the place where the old school stood (*where* is an adverbial modifier of place in the subordinate attributive clause).

When an adverb introduces an adverbial clause, it turns into mere conjunction (a form-word) which only connects but has no independent function in the subordinate clause it introduces:

Coming into the Lounge from the far end, he at once saw Fleur where he had left her.

When we reached the door, the child setting down the candle, turned to say good-night, and raised her face to kiss me.

THE DEGREES OF ADVERBS

In Modern English adverbs have only one grammatical category of degrees of comparison. Not all the adverbs can change for degrees of comparison. But certain adverbs of manner can change for degrees of comparison. Adverbs time, place, cause, degree, measure have no degrees. The degrees of comparison of all other adverbs are formed by placing "more" and "most" before them¹.

Besides that a few adverbs have irregular degrees of comparison. The category of degrees of comparison of adverbs expresses different degrees of characteristic features of an action, a quality or state expressed by the verb.

For example:

1. They laughed heartily (positive degree) - (normal action)

¹ <http://www.rambier.ru/> All about English adverbs

2. They welcomed me more heartily to day (comparative degree) (the was' kind and glad to see to day than before)

3. They greeted me most heartily (superlative degree) (This is only case when he is glad to see me and he shared it)

The category of degrees of comparison is represented by the system of the tracheotomy opposition of (1). The positive (2). Comparative and (3). Superlative degrees.

1. The positive degree of adverbs, which are submitted to the degree of comparison mainly morphologically unmarked except the adverbs ending in “-ly”

The positive degree of adverbs is called primary forms and expresses just characteristic features of an action, quality or state

1. He tried hard

2. He came exactly at seven

3. He plays piano well

2. The comparative degree is morphologically marked. Ending «-er» inflects it. This time he spoke louder.

And it is syntactically marked too by the words expressing differences of quality: "more", "less"

- He speaks more fluently this time

3. The superlative degree of adverbs expresses the highest (least) degree of the characteristics of an action, state or quality performed by the verb.

The superlative degree is marked both morphologically ("ending" etc.) syntactically marked by the special words expressing the superiority of the action or state: "most", "least".

He speaks Italian most fluently.

The result of the degrees of comparison we'll give by the following table borrowed from our professor Buranov J.B. [Buranov J.B., 1978, p. 73-77]

The degrees of comparison of adverbs.

1. Morphological way of expression of the degrees of adverbs.

Positive degree	Hard, fast, early, late.	He tried hard to earn the game. The car is running fast. It is early to congratulate me. He comes late to the party
Comparative degree	Harder, faster, earlier, later.	This time he pulled harder but couldn't get the fish asses. Who will be faster he wins the prize. You should earlier if you want a fish. Later you will find her at home.
Superlative degree	Hardest, fastest, earliest, latest.	This is the hardest nut. This is the fastest runner. Tom is the earliest riser among them. There is the latest news.

2. Syntactical way expression of the degrees of adverbs.

Positive degree	Heartily, exactly, fluently	He laughed heartily. He came exactly at seven o'clock. He speaks French fluently.
Comparative degree	More heartily More exactly More fluently	He welcomed me more heartily today. His answer was more exactly right than yours. Pronounce this word more fluently.
Superlative degree	Most heartily Most exactly Most fluently	Helen greeted father most heartily. Cricket may most exactly be called the national game of England. He speaks Italian most fluently.

There are adverbs in English whose comparative and superlative degree are formed by changing the root.

Positive degree	Well Badly Much Little Far	Diana plays the piano well. He was badly wounded in the battle. He had traveled much in his youth. He was a little late to the concert. He is standing far from his master.
Comparative degree	Better Worse More Less Further	He knows English better than French. Today she played worse than yesterday. You promised to bring more books. She picked cotton less than yesterday. Further he found a girl milking a cow.

Superlative degree	Best Worst More Least Furthest	Best of all you should bring your report. That frightened me worst of all. What most desire is to go to Africa? Tom worked most and was paid least. This village is the furthest one in our region.
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"Late" and "later" refer to time. "Latest" has also the meaning of most recent. "Later" and "last" are used with reference to order.

This is the latest edition of the book. The last edition of this book is sold out. That is the last news we heard of him (we have heard no more of him). This is the latest news we have heard of him (we expect to hear something more). The Carrier and his wife exchanged a look of perplexity. The stranger raised his head, and glancing from the latter to the former, said "Your daughter, my good friend!" (Ch. Dickens).

2. "Nearest" refers to distance, "next" is used when order is meant:

- My next care will be to find the nearest way to the next village. He is my nearest relation. Next day; next year: next door.

- The nearest village at the shortest distance. The next village immediately following another.

3. "Older" and "oldest" denote age and long duration:

- "Yusen.. the oldest friend have", said Florence, is about to leave here suddenly, and quite alone, poor girl". (Ch. Dickens). She was older than fan, darker, not so tall... (Cossack). Although you are a little older than, you belong essentially to the same generation... (Oldington)

4. "Elder" and "eldest" are to distinguish members of the same family, also when speaking of people higher in rank and authority. Elder is never followed by than: - When met her she'd lost her elder child (Yalsworthy) he was their favorite nephew, the son of their dead elder sister. The eldest boy ran out to beat some milk. (Oickows) "Elder", can be used as a noun. Her elder had reason on their side (moony how)

5. "Farther", "farthest"- "further", "furthest" are used with reference to distance. -
The school is at the farthest (furthest) end of the village.

2.2. ADVERBS AND THEIR CLASSIFICATION IN THE ENGLISH AND UZBEK LANGUAGES

In English and Uzbek the adverb is characterized by:

- 1) Its general meaning of qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, qualities and states;
- 2) The category of the degrees of comparison;
- 3) Typical stem building morphemes such as:

English: -ly, -a, -wise, etc.

Uzbek: -парча, -она, -часига, -га/сига ...

- 4) Its ability to combine with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, occasionally will; nouns;

- 5) Its functioning mainly as an adverbial modifier:

According to their meaning adverbs fall under several groups:

1. adverbs of time:

English: today, yesterday, tomorrow, soon, when... Uzbek: бугун, кеча, эртага, тезда, қачон ...

2. adverbs of frequency:

English: often, seldom, ever, never, sometimes, once, twice... Uzbek: кўпинча, баъзан, ҳар доим, ҳеч қачон...

3. adverbs of place and direction;

English: here, there, upstairs, inside, outside, where, etc. Uzbek: олға, (They are few in number)

4. adverbs of cause:

English: there, fore, why, etc. Uzbek: нега, нечун ...

5. adverbs of purpose:

English: purposely, deliberately, etc. Uzbek: жўрттага, атайлаб атайин...

6. adverbs of manner:

English: quickly, hard, kindly, slowly, now, etc.

Uzbek: дарҳол, меҳрибонлик билан, аста, ҳозир, қийналиб.

7. adverbs of degree and measure:

English: very, enough, too, rather, almost, etc.

Uzbek: жуда, етарли, деярли, ўта, ғоят, сал ...

In the languages compared some qualitative adverbs have the category of the degrees of comparison, which is similar to that of adjectives.

In English and Russian, as opposed to Uzbek, all adverbs formally differ from adjectives.

Compare:	Adjectives	Adverbs
English:	Good, quick	Well, quickly
Uzbek:	яхши, тез	яхши, тез

Their difference may cause inter language interference when Uzbek students speak English, which will be studied in the next part of the work.

As an independent part of speech adverb modifies the property of action and state and property of property. Morphologically adverb is constant and is mostly used in connection with verb. In some cases may be used nouns objectives and adverbs also. e.g. **Кундузи шакарғуфторлик қилиб кечкурун орқангга пичоқ ургувчи дўстлардан қўрқ.**

Special word building affixes, like (-ча, -она, -ларча, -лаб, -дай) also indicating that adverbs have their grammatical categories.

With their indicating the property of an object, adverbs are close to adjectives. Adverbs have the category of indicating the property of action and property, like the adjectives.

But functionally (syntactically), adverbs differ from adjectives. The adjectives usually follow the nouns and indicate the property of an object, and syntactically functions as an attribute.

Adverbs basically follow the verbs, and show the property of an action, which is related to the process and function as a modifier.

In Uzbek the use of one word instead of other is very frequent. We can see it between the adverbs and adjectives. Some adjectives follow the verb and indicate the property of action that is they are used in place of adverbs, and functions as a modifier¹.

Adverbs also follow the nouns and show the property of an object and function as an attribute in the sentence. But as the objectives, which follow the verbs, can't turn into an adverb, adverbs also don't become adjectives. Some adverbs when they follow the nouns and express the property of an object may be substantiated. In such cases adverbs acquire the substantial affixes of possessiveness and case, and syntactically functions as subject, object and prepositional object.

SEMANTIC TYPES OF UZBEK ADVERBS

Semantically the adverbs are subdivided into four sub-groups:

Adverbs of manner; adverbs of degree; adverbs of place; adverbs of time;

An adverb of manner indicates how or in what way the action is performed.

Adverb of manner may indicate manner of action to be done, in comparison with other cases and process. Adverb of manner syntactically functions:

- 1) As a modifier of adverb
- 2) As an attribute, in connection parts of sentence, which are expressed by noun
- 3) As a predicate

Adverbs of degree serve to indicate in cases of action and state, answer to question қанча? қандай? According to the meaning they indicate the adverbs of degree and into the adverbs, which show quantity of action, and into adverbs which show the excess of property (sign) or action.

The adverbs which express the quantity of action and manner are: кўп, мўл, **анча, кам, бир оз, пича**; The adverbs, which express the excess of action or property, are: жуда, **энг, ғоят, ниҳоят, яна, тағин, ўта**,

¹ Буранов Ж.Б, Инглиз ва узбек тиллари киёсий грамматикаси. Т. «Укитувчи», 1973.

The adverbs of degree basically function as modifier or predicate in the sentence. In some cases, following the nouns the adverbs of degree may function as attribute. **Adverbs of place** show the place or destination where the action or state takes place and answers to questions **қаерда? қаерға? қаердан?** Syntactically function as modifier of place... sometimes may also function as predicate.

Adverbs of time serve to show the time when the action or event takes place, and answer to questions as **қачон? қачонғача? қачондан бери?** Adverbs of time syntactically function as modifier of time and sometimes as predicate.

FORM BUILDING IN ADVERBS

The adverbs, acquiring the affix **-поқ**, which modify the degrees of comparison of adjectives and adverbs **энг, жуда, ғоят, ниҳоят**, express the extra shade of property. Adverbs with the affix **-поқ** modify weakness, defect or lackness of actions sign, and sometimes strength of the sign of action; with the word **"энг"**, show the excess of sign. The adverbs **жуда, ниҳоят, ғоят** express the excess and strengthening of sign of action, if come together. With the affix **-гина** the adverbs modify the weakening or emphasizing of a sign (**озгина, секингина**).

FORMATION OF ADVERBS

Like other parts of speech, the adverbs are also formed morphologically and syntactically. The following are the adverb-forming affixes¹:

1) **-ча**. The affix when added to nouns, adjectives, pronouns, adverbs and verbs, forms the adverbs expressing how the action is performed, process of action passing into an object which expressed in the stem of the word or similarity of one sign to the other.

¹ Gordon E. M. "A grammar of present day English". -Т., 1974.

- 2) **-часига**. This affix is added to different words and forms the adverbs expressing the similarity of execution of an action to the object in the stem of a word.
- 3) **-ларча**. The adverbs which are formed by this affix also express the action performed, by the affixes **-ча, часига**, that is how, they are executed, and similarity of the senses, signs and actions.
- 4) **-лаб**. The adverbs formed by this affix from nouns, adjectives, adverbs and other parts of speech; express the manner, time and the quantity of action.
- 5) **-дек, -дай**. The adverb formed with these affixes expresses the similarity of action and sign with the object or sign, which are expressed in the stem.
- 6) **-гача**. This affix is added to nouns, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns so as to form the adverbs, which express the time limit continuation of the action to be formed.
- 7) **-она**. This affix is added to different words and forms the adverbs so as to express the comparison of a sign of action with the other.
- 8) **-ига, -сига**. The adverbs formed with these affixes express the execution of an action that is compared to one process.

Besides the affixes **-ан, -(и) н, -лай** also are added to different words and form adverbs, which express various signs and features of action.

The words, which turn into adverbs, with the help of affixes **жўналиш, чиқиш, ўрин** case, are also considered the morphological formation. In these words, the case affixes lose their senses.

The case affixes here don't express the declension, but express the lexical sense of a word. Of course not every word, which is in the same form indirect case, is an adverb. Generally these words are the followings:

- 1) Noun or auxiliary word, in sense of time or place
- 2) Adjectives and adverbs in the case form pass into adverbs.
- 3) Some verb forms and numeral with prepositional case pass into adverbs.

COMPOUND ADVERBS

There are many variants of forming compound adverbs and it depends on the constituent words which parts of speech, and their meaning and necessity, which compose it.

According to the constituents' combining, Compound adverbs may be formed as a result of combination, doubling and repetition¹.

1) The followings are the compound adverbs formed by the combination of words:

a) Words denoting time and place in combination with word compose **xap** **Compound** Adverbs.

b) Compound adverbs composed by the combination of words **ён, ер, ёк**, with demonstrative pronouns.

c) Compound Adverbs composed by the combination of different parts of speech.

d) Compound Adverbs composed by the combination of words denoting, time, quantity, and place, with the word **xap**.

2) By the doubling of words Compound Adverbs basically are doubled.

3) Compound Adverbs composed by the repetition of words:

a) By repetition of adverbs

b) By the repetition of adjectives

c) Compound Adverbs composed by the elements **-ma, -ёa** or by repetition of indirect cases.

d) Compound Adverbs composed by the repetition of different verb forms.

e) Adverbs composed by the repetition of numerals, pronouns and...

MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The only pattern of morphological change for adverbs is the same as for adjectives, the degree of comparison. The three degrees are called positive?

¹ Buranov J.B. The grammatical structure of English, Uzbek and Russian. Tashkent, "Ukituvchi" 1986.

Comparative and superlative.

Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives take the inflections following the same spelling and phonetic rules as for adjectives:

Early - earlier - earliest

Late - later - latest

Hard - harder - hardest

Slow - slower - slowest

Quick - quicker - quickest

Long - longer - longest

Wide - wider - widest

Several adverbs ending in -ly (quickly, loudly) form comparatives according to the same pattern, dropping their adverb-forming suffix. These adverbs acquired the form in -ly only recently and retained the older forms of the comparative and superlative:

Quickly - quicker - quickest

Loudly - louder - loudest

However most disyllabic adverbs in -ly form the comparative and superlative analytically, by means of more and most:

Wisely - more wisely - most wisely

Softly - more softly - most softly

Deeply - more deeply - most deeply.

The adverb often occurs with both types of comparison:

Often {oftener, more often

As with adjectives, there is a small group of adverbs with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stem (superlative forms). These comparatives and superlatives are identical with those for the corresponding adjectives and can be differentiated from the latter only syntactically.

Well - better - best

Badly - worse - worst

Little - less - least

Much — more — most

Far < further - furthest < farther - farthest

Which do you like best?

This is least painful for you.

Either farther (farthest) or further (furthest) are used when speaking of places, directions or distance:

He is too tired to walk any farther (further). Otherwise only further (furthest) is used with the meaning more, later:

Don't try my patience any further.

Most of the adverbs, however, stand outside the degrees of comparison: pronominal adverbs denoting place and time (here, somewhere, there, sometimes, when), denoting manner (somehow, thus), and adverbs of manner denoting gradation (minimally, optimally, and proximally).

SEMANTIC CHARACTERISTICS

According to their meaning adverbs fall into many groups. Here are the main ones:

Adverbs of place: outside, there, in front, etc. **Adverbs of time** include those denoting duration (long, continually), interval (all day), timing (yesterday, today, recently, lately, immediately, once, at once, now), frequency (often, now and then, occasionally). Several of them denote an indefinite time - soon, yet, always, already, never, ever.

Adverbs of manner: well, carefully, intentionally, silently, clearly, etc. **Adverbs of degree:** thoroughly, very, much, completely, quite, rather, a lot, a little, a great deal, badly, greatly, hardly, barely, scarcely, narrowly, just, almost, mostly, enormously, largely, tremendously, keenly, somewhat, too, so most, all but.

Among these some are synonymous, but their combinability is different. Thus much is used to modify verbs, nouns, statives and adjectives, and very is used

with adjectives and adverbs in the positive and superlative degrees, with comparatives only much is used:

To travel much	very nice
To be much improved	very glad
Much better	very slow
Much slower	very quickly
Very much in love Very much alike	
Very much afraid Very much alive	

With participles, however, both much and very may be used, often they go together:

Much admired, very surprised, very much amused

Among adverbs of degree there are many the meaning of which has become weakened and which are used as intensifiers, adding emotional coloring to the content of what is said. This group of adverbs is very difficult to define because adverbs of other semantic groups can occasionally function as intensifiers: awfully, painful, terribly, unjust, extremely, beautiful, very quiet, faintly uneasy, too frightful, rather calm, really pretty, so nice, most expensive, positively wonderful, etc.

SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS AND PATTERNS OF COMBINABILITY

Adverbs may perform different functions, modifying different types of words, phrases, and sentences. Some adverbs are restricted in their combinability whereas others may modify different words, for instance *enough*, which may be used in *to* -word *enough* , *not quickly enough*, *quick enough*. The most typical function of the adverb is that of adverbial modifier. However when combined with a noun it functions as attribute¹. The combinability and functions of the adverbs are the followings:

1. Adverbs may function as **adverbial modifiers** of manner, place, time, degree to a finite or non-finite form pf the verb.

¹ Ilysh A.B. "The structure of modern English". Leningrad, "Prosvesheniya", 1971.

He spoke aloud; I quite forgot about it; he spoke well.

Note: some adverbs of time though synonymous, are used in different syntactical patterns. Thus, *already* is used in affirmative sentences and *yet*- interrogative and negative sentences:

They have already finished.

They haven't finished yet.

Have they finished yet?

However, *already* may occur in interrogative and negative sentences when there is an element of surprise or the question is suggestive, that is the speaker expects an affirmative answer.

Have they finished *already*? (The speaker is surprised at their having already finished)

In the same way *still*, meaning "continuously, up to this moment", is used in affirmative sentences and *any more* in negative sentences. If *any more* is used in a question, it implies that the speaker expects a negative answer.

Ha *still* works at the library. He does not work there *any more*. Does he take music lessons *any more*? — No, he doesn't

2. Adverbs may function as adverbial modifiers to an adjective or another adverb. Usually the modifying adverb is an intensifier *very*, *rather*, *awfully*, *so*. *Terribly*, *extremely*, *most*, *utterly*, *unusually*, *delightfully*, *unbelievably*, *amazingly*, *strikingly*, *highly*, *that*, etc. The same applies to composite adverbs, *such as kind of*, *sort of*, *a good bit of*, *a lot of*, *a hell of*, *a great deal of*, etc. a. She is terribly awkward; they are very happy; Meg is clever enough; you speak so slowly; they settled in a rather quiet street; the boy is unbelievable fat; she was strikingly handsome; we did it sort of proudly; quite definitely, too much, right there, a great deal too much.

Some adverbs—*still*, *yet*, *far*, *much*, *any* combine with comparative adjectives: *much worse*, *not any better*, *still greater*, etc.

He couldn't speak *any plainer*.

You could do it far *more neatly*.

She is *much wittier* than her friend.

Comparative adverbs are used in clauses of proportional agreement, that is, parallel clauses in which qualities or actions denoted in them increase or decrease at an equal rate. This construction is some times called the comparative of proportion.

The longer I think about it the less I understand your reasons. Note: To express the idea that a quality or action decreases or increases at an even rate the comparative may be repeated, the two identical forms being connected by *and*:

He *ran faster and faster*.

There are adverbs which may modify nouns or words of nominal character, functioning as attribute, as in: the way *ahead*, the trip *abroad*, the journey *home*, his return *home*, the sentence *above (below)*, my friend *here*, the house *opposite*, the day *before*, etc. When they premodify their head—words such adverbs are tending towards adjectives. Compare the following; the upstairs flat—the flat *upstairs*

The back room—the way *back*

A few adverbs promodify nouns without losing their adverbial character: the *then* president, in *after* years the *above* the sentence, the *now* generation. 3. Their combinability with prepositional phrases can be illustrated by the following: *right up* to the ceiling¹.

POSITIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

As adverbs modify words of different classes, they accordingly occupy different positions in the sentence. In comparison with other words, adverbs may be considered as the most movable words. However this doesn't apply to all of them; adverbs are not identical in their ability to be moved to another position in the structure. Thus, adverbs of manner and degree are very closely attached to the word they modify and cannot be moved away from it. *He sings well*-is the only possible arrangement of the three words, unless the change of position is

¹ Gordon E. M. "A grammar of present day English". -T., 1974.

accompanied by inversion and a general shift of the communicative focus: *Only well does he sing* (у фақат яхши куйлайди). If such an adverb is put in other positions this may result in a change of meaning, in which case it is no longer an adverb (it has already been mentioned that adverbs are often defined by position rather than form): *well, he sings when nobody is in*. If the predicate is an analytical form adverbs of frequency and indefinite time are usually placed between its parts: Have you ever seen him?

You are always laughing at me.

Adverbs of degree usually pre-modify adjectives or verbs: *awfully, painful, terribly unjust, really pretty, so nice*, etc.

The most mobile are adverbs of time and place. They can occupy several positions without any change in their meaning, as in *usually* he sings well. He *usually* sings well. He sings well *usually*. The initial position of the adverb of manner always makes it emphatic. ***Proudly he showed his diploma to his parents.***

Carefully he signed his name.

In these sentences, despite detachment of the adverbial modifier, its connection with the verb is evident (*showed proudly, signed carefully*).

Note: care should be taken not to confuse adverbs of manner and modal words, which may have the same word-form and occur in the same position. The only guide in these cases punctuation and the relation between the words:

Naturally I wanted him to answer—modal word.

I wanted him to answer *naturally*—adverb

They wanted to live *naturally*—adverb

They wanted to live, *naturally* modal word.

MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

1. According to form, adverbs may be classified as follows:

a) **S i m p l e** adverbs, which have no endings to show that they are adverbs: *here, how, then, now, quite, still*.

b) Derived adverbs formed from other parts of speech either by composition (sometimes, *somewhere*, *midway*) or derivation (*ashore*, *towards*, *namely*, *hardly*). Mostly, adverbs are derived from qualitative adjectives by means of adding the suffix *-ly*: *slowly*, *quickly*, *seriously*, *actively*, etc.

Much rarer adverbs are formed by the addition of the suffix *—ly* to the stems of:

1. p a r t i c i p l e s : *inquiringly*, *meaningly* (многозначительно), *decidedly* or
2. nouns: *partly*, *bodily* (лично, целиком).

c) Phrase adverbs formed from nouns with prepositions (phraseological units): *at last at least one by one*, *to and fro*, etc.

d) Combinations of an adverb with a p r e p o s i t i o n , such as: *till now*, *since then*, *from where*, *from within*, etc.:

it was a from there that the scent of azaleas came.. .(Galsworthy).. .no sound from within.(Galsworthy.)

2. Rules of spelling of adverbs derived by adding the suffix *-ly*:

a) Adjectives ending in *-y* change *-y* into *-i*: *happy-happily*, *gay-gaily*.

Adjectives ending in *-ble* drop *-e*: *noble-nobly*, *humble-humbly*.

c) Adjectives ending in *-ue* drop *-e*: *true- truly*, *due-duly*.

3. Some qualitative adverbs have the same form as their corresponding qualitative adjectives: you % *early*, *lively*, *daily*, *late*, *hard*, *long*, *far*, *low*, *well* etc.

In Old English the common adverbial suffix was *—e* (*harde*, *faste*). In the course of time the final *-e* was dropped and the distinction between the adverb and the adjective was lost (*hard*, *fast*). The new adverbial suffix *-ly* was originally an adjectival suffix (*lice>like>ly*). When the old adverbial suffix *-e* was lost the adjectival suffix *-ly* began to be used as an adverbial - forming suffix: *quickly*, *hardly*, and *strongly*. Some adverbs didn't develop a new form in *-ly*, and are thus similar to their corresponding adjectives: *fast*, *far*, *long*, *early*, *daily*.

4. Some adverbs alongside of their adjectival form has the form in -ly as in *slow-slowly; right-rightly; hard-hardly; warm-warmly; safe-safely*. These two forms are sometimes used with no difference of meaning¹:

Wrap yourself up warm (warmly). Hold it tight (tightly). The ship arrived safe (safely). You can buy it quite cheap (cheaply). Cut the cheese thin (thinly). Adverbs often have the simple form in compounds: *a loud-ticking watch, new-mown grass, new-baked bread, a light-yellow dress, a quick-growing shrub. ... there was the scent of new-mown grass. (Galsworthy) ... there was the smell of fresh-cut grass.*

Adverbs often have the simple form in the comparative and the superlative degrees where as the positive has the -ly, form:

Easier said than done. Let us walk a little quicker. Who can run there quickest?

The form in -ly is often preferred in figurative speech:

He sold his life dearly (but: you bought those things very dear [or dearly]). He is a highly educated man (but: the airplane flew high above the city). He loudly praised her work (but: do I speak loud enough?). He flatly refused to meet them. (Chesterton) (but: he began to run, caught his foot in a root and fell flat on his face. Henry studied the new comer closely, (but: ... the two boys... slunk close behind the old gentleman towards whom his attention was directed.

(Dickens)

Sometimes the two forms are differentiated in meaning: Although Tom didn't hold the clue to her full meaning, he could guess it pretty nearly. It was a prettily furnished room... (Dickens).

They came nearer. I watched her for nearly half an hour. (Ch. Bronte)

"Can't a man who works hard all the time have a little rest when he comes home?"

(Henry)

There is hardly any wind now, only a slight breeze that is hardly noticeable.

(Potter)

¹ Gordon E. M. "A grammar of present day English". -T., 1974.

CONCLUSION

In our research paper we studied adverb as a part of speech. As part of speech adverb expresses some circumstances that attend an action or state, or points out some characteristic features of action or a quality.

These two non-related languages, English and Uzbek uses adverb differently. In English in most cases it forms from adjective or with the help of expressions. But in Uzbek it forms with the help of word-forming (adding several suffixes as -ча, -ма, -лаб, -дай, -часига,).

Adverbs are miscellaneous class of words in English, which have disserved lexical meanings.

Besides that they differ from each other in their structure:

- 1) Some of them are single words: "fast, well, somehow, nowhere, south wards".
- 2) Others are phrases: "at last, all along, at first, in front, the day before tomorrow, all of a sudden".

But all adverbs are characterized by one common feature - they serve to modify a) verbs, b) adjectives and c) other adverbs.

- a) He spoke resolutely
- b) They are coming here tomorrow
- c) She knew him very well

In English language adverbs according to the meaning fall into 7 groups.'

1. Adverbs of place and direction:

- To, from

2. Adverbs of time:

- Today, ago, early, soon, shortly

3. Adverbs of time:

- Quickly, beautifully, well, by heart

4. Adverbs of frequency:

- Often, ever, rarely, daily

5. Adverbs of degree, measure and quantity:

- Very, rather, little, half, firstly

6. Adverbs of cause and consequence:

- There, consequently, because, accordingly

7. Interrogative adverbs:

- Where?, why?, when?, how?, how often?

II In Uzbek language also adverbs are divided into 8 semantic groups: Adverbs:

1. **of place:** бу ерда, пастга, ҳамма-ерда

2. **of time:** бугун, эртага, тезда

3. **of manner:** тез, оқилона, бемалол

4. **of frequency:** тез-тез, гоҳ-гоҳ, одатдагича

5. **of degree, measure and quantity:** жуда, роса, ўта, ниҳоятда

6. **Interrogative adverbs:** қачон?, қаерда?, қанча?

7. **of cause and consequence:** демак, чунки, шунинг учун, ноиложликдан

8. **of purpose:** атайин, жўрттага, қасддан

So, in English we have 7 semantic groups, in Uzbek 8 semantic groups in English and Uzbek:

1. **Simple adverbs:** long, there, hard [in English] - тез, узун, оғир

2. **Derivative adverbs:** slowly, forward, headlong [in English] - - Касддан, атайин, кўпинча

3. **Compound adverbs:** anyhow, sometimes, nowhere [in English] аллақачон, бирйўла, бирлиги

4. **Composite adverbs:** at last, at once [in English] - куни кеча, шу заҳоти, ўтган куни

III. Adverbs have only one grammatical category -- category of degree in both languages: a) positive b) comparative c) superlative degree.

But there is a difference between the expression of degrees between English and Uzbek languages.

1) In English the category of degrees of adverbs is expressed by three ways:

1. Morphological way

2. Syntactical way

3. Supperlatives way

In Uzbek language it is expressed by

1. Morphological way

2. Syntactical way

1. Morphological way:

a) The comparative degree forms by adding "-er" and superlative degree b) adding "-est" (in English)

- Fast - faster - fastest

b) In Uzbek it forms by adding "рок," comparative degree: тез - тезроқ,

2. Syntactical way: a) adverbs ending in "-ly" from the comparative degree by means of "more" and the superlative by means of "most" in English.

If "more" and "most" are used to express the majority of features, the words "less", "least" are used to express its "minority" in English For example:

- Beautifully - more beautifully - most beautifully

- Carefully - less - less carefully - least carefully

b) In Uzbek superlative degree is formed nits the help of words: энг, жуда, (да) яхши - яхшироқ — энг (жуда, ниҳоятда) яхши

3. In comparison to Uzbek English language has a special way of expressing degrees, a) It concerns the adverbs which have irregular forms of comparison.

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