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QUALIFICATION PAPER

Translation of passive voice from English into Uzbek

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**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС
ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ**

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INTRODUCTION.

The President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Karimov I.A. speaking about the future of Uzbekistan underlines that “harmonious generation is the guarantee of prosperity”.

It is our task to prepare taught, professional competent and energetic personnel, real patriots to see them in the world depository of science and culture.

In this plan the national program about training personnel was worked of the formation of the new generation of the specialist “with the high common and professional culture, creative and social activity, with the ability of orientate in the social and political life independently capable to raise and solve the problems to the perspective”¹

This qualification **paper is devoted** to the study of passive voice in modern English .The theme of the given qualification paper is "The passive voice and its translation from English into Uzbek and Russian" .

Great linguists’ and scientists’ points of view about the Passive voice are taken as the base of this qualification paper.

The actuality of the qualification paper is directed to define the necessity of studying of passive voice in the English language and its translation from English into Uzbek and Russian.

The aim of our qualification paper is to show the general classification of the parts of speech ,the usage of Passive Voice and its translating into Uzbek and Russian.

The close study of Passive Voice puts forward a lot of **tasks** :

- 1) to light out the definition of voice.
- 2) to show its classification.
- 3) to work out the usage of Passive voice.
- 4) to compare the translation of voice.

The material of our qualification work was based upon the investigations made by a number of well known English, Russian and Uzbek lexicologists as

¹ Kadrlar tayyorash milliy dastur..-Toshkent: Ma'naviyat, 1997.-B.35.

A.I.Smirnitsky, B.A. Ilyish, N.Buranov, V.V. Vinogradov, O.Jespersen and some others.

The object matter of this qualification paper is to study the voices in the English and Uzbek languages.

The subject matter of this qualification paper is to study of Passive Voice the importance of its usage in the English language and compare it with the Uzbek language.

The novelty of this qualification paper is that we have discussed the ways of translation and the usage of Passive Voice in the English language comparing with Uzbek and Russian languages.

The methods used in this qualification paper are comprehensive, comparative and analytical ones.

The theoretical value of the qualification paper is that the theoretical position of this qualification paper can be used in translating works of any spheres in delivering lectures on Grammar and Theoretical Grammar.

The practical value of the qualification paper is that the practical results and conclusion can be used while translating different literary text from English into Russian and Uzbek, they also can be used as examples or tasks for mini tests at seminars on Grammar and Translation.

The structure of the qualification paper The work is composed of three major parts: Introduction, Main part and Conclusion then Bibliography.

Introduction part of the paper leads us to get information about the structure and the main plot of the qualification paper.

The main part of the work includes three chapters.

The first chapter named "Grammar is the part of linguistics" and it has two paragraphs,. Here we analyzed Grammar as the part of linguistics and gave the general classification of parts of speech.

The second chapter named "Verbs as a parts of speech" includes six paragraphs in itself. Here we have shown the verb as a notional part of speech, the

voice as a category of verb and study of the Passive Voice, its types and use in tense Aspect, types of passive Construction.

The third chapter named " Translation of passive voice from English into Uzbek". In this paragraph we compare the passive voice in the English with the Uzbek and Russian languages.

Conclusion deals with the result of the qualification paper

The list of used literatures can be found in alphabetical order.

CHAPTER I.

1.1.GRAMMAR IS THE PART OF LINGUISTICS.

Grammar branch of linguistics dealing with the form and structure of words (morphology), and their interrelation in sentences (syntax).The study of grammar reveals how language works.

Most people first encounter grammar in connection with the study of their own or of a second language at school. This kind of grammar is called normative, or prescriptive ,because it defines the role of the various parts of speech and purports to tell what is the norm, or rule of "correct" usage. Prescriptive grammar state how words and sentences are to be put together in a language so that the speaker will be perceived as having good grammar. When people are said to have good or bad grammar, the inference is that they obey or ignore the rules of accepted usage associated with the language they speak.

Language -prescriptive specific grammar is only one way to look at word and sentence formation in language. Other grammarians are interested primarily in the changes in word and sentence construction in a language over the years for example , how Old English, Middle English, and Modern English differ from one another; this approach is known as historical grammar. Some grammarians seek to establish the differences or similarities in words and word order in various languages. Thus, specialists in comparative grammar study sound and meaning correspondences among languages to determine their relationship to one another. By looking at similar forms in related languages, grammarians can discover how different languages may have influenced one another .Still other grammarians investigate how words and word order are used in social contexts to get messages across; this is called functional grammar.

Some grammarians are more concerned, however, with determining how the meaningful arrangement of the basic word-building units (morphemes) and sentence-building units (constituents) can best be described, This approach is called descriptive grammar .Descriptive grammars contain actual speech form

recorded from native speakers of a particular language and represented by means of written symbols.

Descriptive grammars indicated what languages -often those never before written down or otherwise recorded-are like structurally.

These approaches to grammar(prescriptive),(historical, comparative, functional, and descriptive) focus on word building and word order; they are concerned only with those aspects of language that have structure. These types of grammar constitute a part of linguistics that is distinct from phonology (the linguistic study of sound) and semantics (the linguistic study of meaning or content).Grammar to the prescriptivism, historical, comparatives, functionalist and descriptivist is then the organizational part of language -how speech is put together, how words and sentences are formed, and how messages are communicated. Specialists called transformational - generative grammarians, such as the American linguistic scholar Noam Chomsky, approach grammar quite differently -as a theory of language. Such a grammar is kind of universal grammar, an analysis of the principles underlying all the various human grammars.

1.2.PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR CLASSIFICATION.

According to their meaning, syntactical function and morphological characteristics, words fall into certain classes called part of speech.

The following is the classification of the parts of speech in English:

- 1.Noun
- 2.The adjective
- 3.The pronoun
- 4.The numeral
- 5.The verb
- 6.The adverb
7. The preposition
- 8.The conjunction
- 9.The article

10.The particles

11.Modal (parenthetical) words

12.Words of affirmation and negation (yes ,no)

13. The interjection .

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

Preposition, conjunctions, articles and particles are form-words; they have no independent function in the sentence. They serve either to connect words or sentences(preposition and conjunctions) or to specify or emphasize the meaning of words (articles and particles).

The problem parts of speech is one that causes great controversies both in general linguistic theory and in the analysis of separate languages.

I'll have to examine here briefly a few general questions concerning parts of speech which are of some importance for Modern English. The term "parts of speech "(as well as the corresponding terms in Uzbek, Russian, German, French and other languages), though firmly established, is not a very happy one.What is meant by a "part of speech " is the type of a word differing from other types in that verb alone has the grammatical category of tense. Thus while it is perfectly reasonable to ask "What is the past tense of the word live?" (The answer of course is ,lived),it would make no sense to ask ,"What is the past tense of the word city?" or what is the past tense of the word big?" Those words just have not got any past tense , or any tense or whatever that matter: , the notion of tense cannot be applied to them .Tense is one the of distinctive features characterizing the verb as against every other type o word .However, the question is much less simple with reference to some other types of words, and a general definition of the principles on which the classification of parts of speech is based becomes absolutely necessary .We cannot here go into the controversy over these principles that has lasted a

considerable time now, and we will limit ourselves to stating the principles of our classification and pointing out some difficulties inherent in it.

The principles on which the classification is based are three in number (1) "meaning", (2) "form", (3) "function". Each of these requires some additional explanations.

(1)By meaning we do not mean the individual meaning of each separate word (it is lexical meaning) but the meaning common to all the words of the given class and constituting its essence. Thus, the meaning of the substantive (noun) is "thing-ness". This applies equally to all and every noun and constitutes the structural meaning of the noun as the type of word. Similarly, the meaning of separate verb may happen to be. We shall have to dwell on this later in considering every part of speech in detail.

(2)By form we mean the morphological characteristics of word. Thus, the noun is characterized by a category of number (singular and plural) the verb by tense, mood, etc. Several types of words (preposition),(conjunctions, and others) are characterized by invariability.

(3)By function we mean the syntactical properties of type of word. These are subdivided into two, (a) its method of combining with other words,(b) its function in the sentence;(a) has to deal with phrases,(b) with sentence structure. Talking, as we did previously, the verb as specimen, we can state that, for example, a verb combines with a following noun (write letters) and also with a following a adverb (write quickly). As to (b),i.e. the syntactical function of a verb in a sentence, it is that of a predicate. Two additional remarks are necessary before we proceed to the analysis of parts of speech in detail.

In the first place, there is the question about the mutual relation of the criteria.

We cannot be sure in advance that all three criteria will always point the same way. Then, again, in some cases, one of them may fail (this especially applies to the criterion of form). Under such circumstances, it may prove necessary to choose between them, i.e. to attach to one of them greater value

than to another. We may say, provisionally, that we shall treat them in the order in which they have been enumerated, **meaning** shall come first, **form** next, and **function** last. It will also be seen that the theory of parts of speech, though considered by most scholars to be a part of morphology². Some scholars took a different view of the problem. Thus, Academician A. Shakhmatov held that parts of speech should be treated in syntax. , cannot do without touching on some syntactical functions of words (point 3 in on list of criteria), on some syntactical problems and namely phrases. We shall regard " the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

² Шахматов А.А. Синтаксис русского языка.– Москва: Просвещение, 1941.-Р.28-29.

The system of parts of speech.

There may be better ways to classify English parts of speech than by using the parts of speech. But this classification has been used for a long time and many grammar books use it, so it is easier to keep on using it. It is possible to speak or learn a language without knowing the part of speech, but for us, knowing about part of speech makes things easier.

The 11 part of speech that are used to describe English words are:

Part of speech

Table 1

Nouns	Adverbs	Prepositions
Adjectives	Interjections	Articles
Pronouns	Conjunctions	Numeral
Verbs	Modal words	Particle

Proceeding in usual order, we start with the noun, or substantive

1. The Noun.

The noun is the word expressing substance in widest sense of the word.

The concept of substance we include not only names of living beings (**E.g. boy, girl, bird**) and lifeless things (**E.g. table, chair, book**), but also names of abstract notions, i.e. qualities, states, actions (**kindles, strength, sleep, fear, conversation, fight**), abstracted from their bearers.

The noun has the following **morphological characteristics**:

1) Nouns that can be counted have **two numbers: singular and plural**

Singular and plural nouns.

Table 2

-girl	star	book	cup
-girls	stars	books	cups

2) Nouns denoting living beings (and some nouns denoting lifeless things) have **two case forms: the common case and genitive case.**

It is doubtful whether the grammatical category of gender exists in Modern English for it is hardly ever expressed by means of grammatical forms.

There is practically only one gender-forming suffix in Modern English, suffix **-es**, expressing **feminine gender**. It is not widely used..

Feminine gender

Table 3

heir -heir+ ess=heiress	host-host+ ess=hostess
waiter-waiter+ ess=waitress	actor-actor+ ess=actress
poet-poet+ ess=poetress	lion-lion+ ess=lioness

Morphological composition of nouns.

According to their morphological composition we distinguish **simple, derivative** and **compound nouns**.

1)Simple nouns are nouns which have neither prefixes nor suffixes. They are indecomposable:

Simple nouns

Table

4

-chair	-room	-fish
-table	-map	-work

2) **Derivative nouns** are nouns which have derivative elements (prefixes or suffixes or both):

Derivative nouns

Table 5

-reader	-blackness	-misconduct
-sailor	-childhood	-inexperience

Productive noun -forming suffixes are:

Table 6

-er:	reader	teacher	worker
-ist:	communist	telegraphist	dramatist
-ess:	heiress	hostess	actress
-ness:	carelessness	madness	blackness
-ism:	socialism	nationalism	imperialism

Unproductives

Table 7

-hood:	childhood	Manhood
-dom:	freedom	Wisdom
-ship:	friendship	Relationship
-ment:	development	Government
-ance:	importance	Furnace
-ence:	dependence	Competence
-ty:	cruelty	Guilty
-ity:	generosity	Curiosity

3)Compound nouns are nouns built from two or more stems. Compound nouns often have one stress. The meaning of a compound often differs from the meanings of its elements.

The main types of compound nouns are follows:

- (a)**noun stem+ noun -stem:** snowball
- (b)**adjective- stem+ noun stem:** blackbird, bluebell
- (c)**verb-stem+ noun stem:** pickpocket

The stem of a gerund or of a participle may be the first component of a compound noun:

E.g. dining-room, reading-hall, dancing- girl.

Types Of Nouns

There are many different types of noun. Grammarians have developed a whole series of noun types, including the proper noun, the common noun, the concrete noun, the abstract noun, the countable noun (also called the count noun),

the non-countable noun (also called the mass noun), and the collective noun. You should note that a noun will belong to more than type: it will be proper or common, abstract or concrete, and countable or non-countable or collective

Proper nouns

A. Proper nouns are individual names given to separate persons or things. As regards their meaning proper nouns may be personal names (e.g. Mary, Peter, Joe), geographical names (**E.g. Moscow, London, the Caucasus**), **the names of ships, hotels, clubs, etc. of the week (e.g. February, Friday).**

E.g. Don't forget, Hettinger, Europe is still the heart of the world, and Germany is the heart of Europe.

B. Common nouns are names that can be applied to any individual of a class of persons or things:

E.g. man, dog, book, pen, cat, girl, boy, hen, etc.

- Collections of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit:

E.g. peasantry, family, foliage, machinery.

-Materials

E.g. snow, cotton, iron, gold, paper.

-Abstract notions:

E.g. cruel, development, kindness, strong.

Thus there are different groups of common nouns: **class nouns**, **collective nouns**, nouns of **material** and **abstract nouns**. Nouns may also be classified from another point of view: nouns denoting things (the word things is used in a broad sense) that can be counted are called **countable nouns**, nouns denoting things that cannot be counted are called **uncountable nouns**.

Concrete Nouns

A **concrete noun** is a noun which names anything (or anyone) that you can perceive through your physical senses: touch, sight, taste, hearing, or smell. A concrete noun is the opposite of an abstract noun.

E.g. The judge handed the files to the clerk.

Abstract Nouns

An **abstract noun** is a noun which names anything which you can not perceive through your five physical senses, and is the opposite of a concrete noun.

E.g. There are these people with fixed **ideas**.

She was a **beauty** ... but she isn't one of those horrid regular **beauties**.

Countable Nouns

A **countable noun** (or **count noun**) is a noun with both a singular and a plural form, and it names anything (**or** anyone) that you can count. You can make a countable noun can be made plural and attach it to a plural verb in a sentences. Countable nouns are the opposite of non-countable nouns and collective nouns.

E.g. There are very many **libraries** in Tashkent.

Do you need an **umbrella**.

Non-Countable Nouns

A **non-countable noun** (or **mass noun**) is a noun which does not have a plural form, and which refers to something that you could (**or** would) not usually count. A non-countable noun always takes a singular verb in a sentence. Non-countable nouns are similar to collective nouns, and are the opposite of countable nouns.

E.g. Knowledge - is the power.

I'm going to give **advice to** your friend but he went.

Since “knowledge ” is a non-countable noun, it takes a singular verb, “is.”

Collective Nouns

A **Collective Noun** is a noun naming a group of things, animals, or persons. You could count the individual members of the group, but you usually think of the group as a whole is generally as one unit. You need to be able to recognize collective nouns in order to maintain subject-verb agreement. A collective noun is similar to a non-countable noun, and is roughly the opposite of a countable noun

E.g. The **flock** of geese spends most of its time in the pasture.

The collective noun “geese” takes the singular verb “spends.”

The **jury** is dining on take-out chicken tonight.

In this example the collective noun “jury” is the subject of the singular **compound verb** "

E.g. The steering **committee** meets every Wednesday afternoon.

Here the collective noun “committee” takes a singular verb, “meets.”

The **class** was startled by the busting light bulb.

In this sentence the word “class” is a collective noun and takes the singular compound verb “was startled.”

2. The verb.

The verb is the part of speech which denotes an action. The verb has the following grammatical categories: person, number, tense, aspect, voice and mood. These categories can be expressed by means of affixes, inner flexion (change of the root vowel) and by form words.

Verb may be transitive and intransitive.

Verbs have finite forms which can be used as the predicate of a sentence and non-finite forms which cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence.

According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into:

- (a) **simple** (E.g. **read, live, hide, speak**)
- (b) **derived** i.e. having affixes (E.g. **magnify, fertilize, captivate, undo, decompose**)
- (c) **compound**, i.g. consisting of two stems (**daydream, browbeat**)
- (d) **composite**, consisting of a verb and a postposition of adverbial origin (**sit down, go away, give up**)

The basic forms of the verb in Modern English are: the Infinitive, The Past indefinite and Participle II: **to speak - spoke -spoken.**

according to the way in which the Past Indefinite and Participle II are formed, verbs are divided into 3 groups: **regular** verbs, **irregular** verbs and **mixed** verbs.

Regular, irregular, mixed verbs

Table 8

Regular verbs	to play - played	to study-studied
Irregular verbs	to steal -stole -stolen	to teach-taught-taught
Mixed verbs	to sew-sewed-sewn to show-showed-shown	to know-knew-known

A verb is often defined as a word which shows action or state of being. The verb is the heart of a sentence - every sentence must have a verb. Recognizing the verb is often the most important step in understanding the meaning of a sentence. In the sentence *The dog bit the man*, *bit* is the verb and the word which shows the action of the sentence. In the sentence *The man is sitting on a chair*, even though the action doesn't show much activity, *sitting* is the verb of the sentence. In the sentence *She is a smart girl*, there is no action but a state of being expressed by the verb *is*. The word *be* is different from other verbs in many ways but can still be thought of as a verb.

Unlike most of the other parts of speech, verbs change their form. Sometimes endings are added (**learn - learned**) and sometimes the word itself becomes different (**teach-taught**). The different forms of verbs show different meanings related to such things as tense (**past, present, future**), person (**first person, second person, third person**), number (**singular, plural**) and voice (**active, passive**). Verbs are also often accompanied by verb-like words called modals (**may, could, should, etc.**) and auxiliaries(**do, have, will, etc.**) to give them different meanings³.

One of the most important things about verbs is their relationship to time. Verbs tell if something has already happened, if it will happen later, or if it is happening now. For things happening now, we use the present tense of a verb; for something that has already happened, we use the past tense; and for something that

³ www.English grammar. com

will happen later, we use the future tense. Some examples of verbs in each tense are in the chart below:

Verbs in tenses

Table 9

Present	Past	Future
close	closed	will close
watch	watched	will watch
love	loved	will love

Verbs like those in the chart above that form the past tense by adding -d or -ed are called regular verbs. Some of the most common verbs are not regular and the different forms of the verb must be learned. Some examples of such irregular verbs are in the chart below:

Irregular verbs

Table

10

Present	Past	Future
leave	left	will leave
keep	kept	will keep
forbid	forbade	will forbid

The charts above show the simple tenses of the verbs. There are also progressive or continuous forms which show that the action takes place over a period of time, and perfect forms which show completion of the action. These forms will be discussed more in other lessons, but a few examples are given in the chart below:

Verbs in Present Continuous and Perfect forms

Table

11

Present Continuous	Present Perfect
Is smoking	Has smoked
Is cooking	Has cooked
Is playing	Has played

A verb must "agree" with its subject. Subject-verb agreement generally means that the third person singular verb form must be used with a third person subject in the simple present tense. The word be - the most irregular and also most common verb in English - has different forms for each person and even for the simple past tense. The forms of the word "be" are given in the chart below:

Usually a subject comes before a verb and an object may come after it. The subject is what does the action of the verb and the object is what receives the action. In the sentence **-Bob ate a hamburger**, Bob is the subject or the one who did the eating and the hamburger is the object or what got eaten. A verb which has an object is called a transitive verb and some examples are throw, buy, hit, love. A verb which has no object is called an intransitive verb and some examples are go, come, walk, listen.

As you can see in the charts above, verbs are often made up of more than one word. The future forms, for example, use the word will and the perfect forms use the word have. These words are called helping or auxiliary verbs. The word be can serve as an auxiliary and will and shall are also auxiliary forms.

3. The adjective.

The adjective is the word expressing a quality of substance.

The adjective has the following morphological characteristics:

Most adjectives have degrees of comparison:

- a) positive degree
- b) the comparative degree
- c) the superlative degree

The comparative degree denotes a higher degree of a quality;

E. g. She is the taller than her sister.

The box is smaller than hers.

The superlative degree denotes the highest degree of quality;

E.g. She is tallest of the three sisters.

Her box is the smallest off all our boxes.

Adjective form their degrees of comparison in the following way:

- a) by inflexion **-er, -est** (syntactical way)
- b) by placing more and most before the adjective (analytical way).

Monosyllabic adjectives usually form their comparatives and superlatives in the first way, polysyllabic adjectives in the second way.

The following polysyllabic adjectives, however, generally form their comparative and superlatives degrees inflexion ally:

1) Adjectives of two syllables which end in **-y, -ow, -er, -le**.

Adjectives

Table 12

happy	happier	(the)happiest
narrow	narrower	(the)narrowest
clever	cleverer	(the)cleverest
simple	simpler	(the)simplest

Adjectives of two syllables which have the stress on the last syllable

Table13

complete	completer	(the) completest
concise	conciser	(the) concisest

Some adjectives have irregular forms of degrees of comparison

Table 14

good	better	(the)best
Bad	worse	(the)worst
Many ,much	more	(the) most
little	less	(the)least
far	Farther, further	(the)farthest, furthest
old	older, elder	(the)oldest, eldest

4. The pronoun.

The pronoun is a part of speech which points out objects and their qualities without naming them. **A pronoun is often defined as a word which can be used instead of a noun.** We use pronouns very often, especially so that we do not have to keep on repeating a noun. Further information on pronouns will be given in the main part of our work.⁴

Pronouns fall under the following groups

Table 15

1.	Personal pronouns:	I, he, she, it, we, you, they.
2.	Possessive pronouns:	My, his, her, its, our, your, their.
3.	Reflexive pronouns:	Myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourself(yourselves), themselves.
4.	Reciprocal pronouns:	Each other, one another.

⁴.Ilyish B.A. The structure of modern English. — Moscow:Prosvesheniya,1965. —P.31-32.

5.	Demonstrative pronouns:	This(these), that (those), such, (the) same.
6.	Interrogative pronouns:	Who, whose, what, which.
7.	Relative pronouns:	Who, whose, what, which.
8.	Conjunctive pronoun:	Who, whose, which, what.
9.	Defining pronouns:	Each, every, everybody, everything, all, either, both, other, another.
10.	Indefinite pronouns:	Some, any, somebody, something, anything, someone, one.
11.	Negative pronouns:	No, none, neither, nobody, no one, nothing.

5. The adverb.

The adverb is the part of speech which expresses some circumstances that attend an action or state, or points out some characteristics features of an action or a quality.

The function of adverb is that of an adverbial modifier. An adverb may modify verbs(verbals), words of the category of state, adjectives, and adverbs.⁵

E.g. Harris spoke **quite** kindly and **sensibly** about it.

For a second they stood with hands **hard** clasped.

The man must have had diabolically acute hearing.

Types of adverbs

Table 16

1.	Simple adverbs:	Long, enough, then, there, etc.
2.	Derivative adverbs:	Slowly, likewise, forward, headlong, etc.
3.	Compound adverbs:	Anyhow, sometimes, nowhere, etc.
4.	Composite adverbs:	At once, at last, etc.

⁵ Kaushanskaya U.L English grammar. — Moscow: Pavlin,1978.—P.80.

According to their meaning adverbs fall under several groups

Table 17

1.	Adverbs of time:	To-day, to-morrow, soon, etc.
2.	Adverbs of repetition or frequency:	Often, seldom, ever, never, sometimes, etc.
3.	Adverbs of place and direction:	Inside, outside, here, there, backward, upstairs, etc.
4.	Adverbs of cause and consequence:	Therefore, consequently, accordingly, etc.
5.	Adverbs of manner:	Kindly, quickly, hard, etc.
6.	Adverbs of degree , measure and quantity:	Very, enough, half, too, nearly, almost, much, little, hardly, rather, exceedingly, quite, once, twice, firstly, secondly, etc.

Three groups of adverbs stand aside and adverbs:

a) Interrogative

b) Relative

c) Conjunctive

Interrogative adverbs (where, when, why, how) are used in special questions.

Conjunctive and relative adverbs are used to introduce subordinate clauses.

Some adverbs are homonymous with prepositions, conjunctions, and words of category of state.

6.The Preposition.

The preposition is the part of speech which denotes the relations between objects and phenomena. It shows the relations between a noun or a pronoun and

other words. In a sentence a preposition never is a separate part of it. It goes together with the following word to form an object, adverbial modifier, predicative or attribute, and in extremely rare cases a subject (**E.g. There were about a hundred people in the hall**).⁶

As the morphological structure prepositions fall under the following groups:

Table 18

1.	Simple	In, on, at, for, with, etc.
2.	Derivative	Behind, below, across, along, etc.
3.	Compound	Inside, outside, within, etc.
4.	Composite	Because of, in front of, in accordance with, etc.

According to their meaning prepositions may be divided into:

Table 19

1.	Place and directions	In, on, below, under, between, etc.
2.	Time	After, before, at, etc.
3.	Abstract relations	By, with, because of, with or view to, etc.

E.g. The book was **in** the table, not **on** it.

There is an old saying that if a man has not fallen in love before forty, he had better not fall in love **after**.

He didn't write to her, and it was almost a year **before** he began to see her again. Desert moved quickly **to** the windows⁷.

7. The Conjunction.

The conjunction is a part of speech which denotes connections between objects **and** phenomena. It connects parts of the sentence, clauses and sentences.

E.g. Sadie brought books and went back to the door.

⁶ www. my study.ru

⁷ Buranov J.B, Yusupov U.K The grammatical structure of English. –Toshkent:Ukituvchi,1986. -P.32-33.

... the blinds were down in the dining room and the lights turned on- and all the lights were red-roses.

Functions:

a) they connect any two words, phrases or clauses.

b) In a sentence, conjunctions are never special part of it. They either connect homogenous parts of a simple sentence or homogenous clauses (the so-called coordinating conjunctions), or they join a subordinate clause to its head clause (the so-called subordinating conjunctions). A further remark is necessary here. We have said that prepositions express relations between phenomena, and conjunctions express connections between them. It must be acknowledged that the notions, relations and connections, are somewhat hard to distinguish. This is confirmed by the well-known fact that phrases of one and the other kind may be more or less synonymous (.e.g. "an old man and his son" and "an old man and his son"). It is also confirmed by the fact that in some cases a preposition and a conjunction may be identical in sound and have the same meaning. (e.g. "before" introducing a noun and "before" introducing a subordinate clause; the same about "after")

According to their morphological structure conjunctions are divided into the following groups:

Table 20

1.	Simple conjunctions	And, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when, etc.
2.	Derivative conjunctions	Until, unless, etc.
3.	Compound conjunctions	However, whereas, wherever, whatever, etc.
4.	Composite conjunctions	As well as, as long as, in case, for fear(that), on the ground that, for the reason that, etc.

Since it is hard to distinguish between prepositions and conjunctions as far as meaning goes, and morphologically they are both invariable, the only palpable

difference between them appears to be their syntactical function. It may be reasonably doubted whether this is a sufficient basis for considering them to be separate parts of speech. It might be argued that prepositions and conjunctions make up a single part of speech, with subdivisions based on the difference of syntactical functions. This view would go some way toward solving the awkward problem of homonymy with reference such words as "before, after, since" and the like. However, since this is an issue for further consideration, for the time being, stick to the traditional view of prepositions and conjunctions as separate parts of speech

8. The Article.

The article is a structural part of speech used with nouns. There are two articles in Modern English:

- 1) The indefinite article
- 2) The definite article

The **indefinite article** has the forms **a** and **an**. The form **a** is used before words beginning with a consonant sound (a **book**, a **pen**, a **student**). The form **an** is used before words beginning with a vowel sound (an **opera**, an **apple**, an **hour**).

The word **the** is known as the **definite article** and indicates a specific thing. The difference between the sentences I sat on a chair and I sat the chair is that the second sentence refers to a particular, specific chair, not just any chair.

Many nouns, especially **singular** forms of **countable** nouns which you will learn about later, must have an **article**. In English, it is not possible to say without an article, but a demonstrative or possessive adjective can be used instead of an article as in the sentence **I sat on that chair** and **I sat on his chair**

Whenever you see an article, you will find a noun with it. The noun may be the next word as in the man or there may be adjectives and perhaps adverbs between the article and the noun as in the very angry, young man.

9. The interjection.

The interjection is the part of speech⁸ which expresses various without naming them. Interjections express feelings (ah, alas). They are not names of feelings but the immediate expression of them. Interjections are invariable.

Some interjections represent noises, etc., with a strong emotional coloring (bang!)

According to their meaning interjections fall under two main groups:

Table 21

1.	Emotional interjections	Ah, oh, eh, bravo, pooh, alas, etc.
2.	Imperative interjections	Here, hush, sh-sh, well, come, now, why, etc.

10. The Modal word.

The modal words express the attitude of the speaker to the reality, possibility of the action he speaks about.

According to their meaning modal words fall under the following main group⁹

Table

22

1.	Words expressing certainly	Certainly, surely, assuredly, of course, no doubt, apparently, undoubtedly, etc.
2.	Word expressing supposition	Perhaps, maybe, possibly, probably, etc.
3.	The speaker considers the action he speaks about desirable or undesirable	Happily- unhappily, luckily-unluckily, fortunately-unfortunately, etc.

⁸ Hubsellor J C, Rampton H.F. A Modern English grammar. USA: Oxford, 1964.-P.69-71.

⁹ www.linguist.ru.

Function :**a)** Modal words usually do not enter any phrases but stand outside them. In a few cases, however, they may enter into a phrase with a noun, adjective, etc.(he will arrive soon, possibly to-night). **b)** The function of modal words in a sentence is a matter of controversy. Modal words perform the function of a parenthesis. Modal words may also be a sentence in themselves.

11.The numeral.

The numeral is the part of speech which indicates number of or the order of persons and things in a series.

Accordingly numerals are divided into **cardinals** (cardinal numbers) (e.g. one, two, five, etc) and **ordinals** (e.g. first, second, fifth, etc.) (ordinal numbers).

Function. **a)** As far as phrases go, both cardinal and ordinal numerals combine with a following noun (three rooms, third room); occasionally a numeral follows as noun (soldiers three George the Third). **b)** In the sentence, a numeral most usually is an attribute (three rooms, the third room), but it can also be subject, predicative, and object: Three of them come in time; "We are Also Seven"

CHAPTER II.

2.1. VERBS AS A PARTS OF SPEECH.

A verb is a term or a word with which one make a assertion in regard to an action on in regard to a state or a condition. The simpler definition - a verb is the word that expresses action. In "the officer struck the thief", the verb struck denotes action and the expression itself makes, an assertion in regard to action. But in "**The young man was successful**", the verb **was** denotes a state or condition the expression itself makes an assertion or statement of fact and condition in a sentence, there can be only naming of action and condition.

Other parts of speech - even nouns (subjects)- are frequently, understood or implied. The verb may but is understood for less frequently. A single intransitive verb may be constitute a sentence, **as Go**, that is, **You go**. A single noun may not be to do this without already established connections . Sometimes the action of a verb is so asserted that is passes over to or is directed toward a receiver or object as in the above." The officer struck the thief ". The officer's action passes over to the thief that is thief is the object of the action taken by the officer, asserted of the officer. In such construction the verb is said to be transitive. In transitive's may sometimes be made transitive through prefixed prepositions or adverbs, as **I stand here alone** and **I understand the problem** , **He has grown tall and John out grown him; They looked every where and they over looked the closed**, They tread lightly and the retreat the fire. Sometimes an idiomatic preposition - **to trifle with, to speak to, to be taken in, to look at , to pretend to, to laugh at** , following an intransitive verb makes it transitive, **as**

laugh (in **transitive**) and **I laugh at John** (**transitive**). A causative verb is a derivative that indicates causing or producing an action that is named in the original verb as darken to cause darkness; Frighten (from fright) to cause fright ; drench (from drink) to cause wetness, raise (from rise) to cause to rise. Most such verbs have the suffix in which is sometimes called the causative suffix- blacken, brighten, shorten, tighten, whiten, and so on.

An impersonal verb is one that is indefinite in regard to subject and those in regard to source of action, as It rains and It is said.

A verb of incomplete prediction is one that makes to sense used as a predicate. unless it is followed by a complement, that is , unless it is prediction is completed by a word or phrase or clause that makes it meaning full. Thus, **The boy is** and **The girl becomes** and **The audience feels** are all expressions of in complete prediction, the predicate in each calling for a completing term- The boy is bad and The girl becomes successful and The audience feels enthusiastic. Of course , in an abstract sense these sentences may be complete. The first may mean they boy exists; the second the girl grew or developed; The third, the audience is moved , But in customary usage is and feels above would be nonsensical intransitives calling for completion.

A Principal or Notional is a verb that in and of itself expresses act or state or in a verb phrase, that part of the phrase that does so. In a verb phrase it is usually the last number of the phrase , for instance, in **They shall have been seen**, seen-is the principal or national verb, the part of the verb that conveys the main notion or idea. In I ran, ran is principal, In I shall run and I have run, run is principal. The terms principal and notional are used changeably.

An auxiliary verb is one that is used with a principal verb in order to specify certain time or manner of action or state; It is thus a helping verb , a verb that helps another to focus its meaning in regard to time and manner. In **He will have been seen**, **will have been** are auxiliary verbs, will making the verb phrase future, have making is perfect , been making it passive. In he will run, will is auxiliary; in I have run - have is auxiliary. The auxiliary verbs are be , can, do,

have, may, must , shall , will, with, their , various ,am, are, is, was, being, been, were from be; could from can, did from do, had from have; might from may; should from shall; would from will. As above indicated some auxiliaries have meanings of their own and may be used as notional verbs.

A regular or weak verb is one that forms its imperfect tense and past participle by the addition of **-"ed"** to the simple form of the verb as walk-walked, laugh - laughed; by adding **-"d"** only if the simple form ends with **-"e"**, a despise-despised, love- loved ,Some authorities prefer to say that in the latter instance mute-e of the simple verb is dropped and **-"ed"** is added. Since the result is the same, either explanation is acceptable. When the - ed occurs after the sounds **"ch, f, k, p, s, sh, x"**, it is pronounced **-"t"**. If this final sound is preceded by a double consonant in the same syllable, one consonant is dropped if the -t spelling is used, and the verb is still regarded as regular. Among the most commonly encountered **-t** spelling today dealt, leapt, slept, swept and wept.

An irregular or strong verb is one that forms its imperfect tense and past participle by means of an international change- change of root vowel, as a rule - and thus without the addition of **-"d "** or **-"ed "** or **-"t"**, as present take, imperfect took, past participle taken; and present stick, imperfect stuck, past participle stuck. All told there are a few more than two hundred irregular verbs in English, the most commonly used of which are here given in the present, imperfect, and the past participle.

An irregular or strong verb is one that forms its imperfect tense and past participle

Table 23

	Present	Imperfect	Past participle
1.	creep	crept	crept
2.	hold	held	Held or holden
3.	keep	kept	kept
4.	mean	meant	meant

5.	play	played	Played(regular)
6.	pay	paid	paid

Some verbs are regarded by most grammarians as being both regular and irregular, those asterisked are placed by some as regular verbs under the -"t" imperfect rule. Some authorities regard all -" t " imperfect as irregular. Some hold that when -t is substituted for as many as three letters at the end of a verb, this constitutes a radical change in the root. But the distinction is too fine. For example:

Regular and irregular verbs

Table 24

Dig	Digged or dug
Gird	Girded or girt
wet	Wetted or wet

Verbs are inflected for voice, mood tense, number, person. They also undergo changes of form, as has been explained above, when they are converted from present to imperfect or to past participle (or both). But the latter is a change of form made in the verb itself, regardless of its relationship to other words. Voice, mood, tense, number, person are inflections that are made because of the relation of a verb to another words an expression. English verbs have no gender. They have no case, but they cause case.

Mood means manner. Applied to the verb, it means the manner in which an action or a state is expressed or is to be regarded. Some grammarians prefer mode to mood, but the majority use the latter because it has connotations of a certain mental state which gives a clue to the use of the particular mood of the verb. By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate. Thus, if a language has special forms to express commands as distinguished from statements, we include the forms that

express command under the term "imperative mood". Thus in English: "Come!" is in the imperative mood¹⁰; while the statement he comes is in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker¹¹.

Tense is that inflection of a verb which denotes action in "relation to time". It may denote time is present, time is complete, time as continuous. Just as there are three general divisions of time - present, past, future-so there are three general classifications of tense -present, past, future. The second is also called imperfect because it does not denote completeness of action of any specific time; that is, imperfect names the tense as to manner, past as to time. In foreign languages this tense is called imperfect as a rule and sometimes preterite. Just as there are may be perfected - again, present, past, future- so there are three general classifications to signify these times of perfection - present perfect, past perfect, future perfect. The past perfect is also called pluperfect, plu being from Latin+ meaning more, that is, more than perfect tense.

Number and person.

The English verb is not highly inflected for number and person. It derives both from its subject - a finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person. With the exception of the very irregular verb to be, the verb undergoes a change for number and person only in the third person singular present and perfect indicative, as respectively He, she, it loves and He, she, it has loved (the latter is really a number and person inflection of the verb have). The -s inflection here is the only one that still survives for number and person. All other forms of the verb are alike in the two numbers and the three persons as I, we, you, they love and I, we, you, they have loved. This is the much simpler than, for instance; The Latin which usually has a different form for each person in both numbers, as Amo - **I love**, Amas- **you love**, Amat - **he loves**, Amamus - **we love**, Amatis- **you love**, Amant- **they love**. The category of person in verbs is represented by the

¹⁰ Sweet H.D. A New English grammar Part I. England: Oxford, 1878.-P.127-129.

¹¹ Gunne G.O. A Grammar of English Language.USA:Cambridge,1972.-P.89-91.

1st, 2nd. 3rd person, and it expresses the relation between the speaker, the person addressed and other persons and (speaker's) things. The category of number expresses the quantity of the subjects¹²

2.2. THE DEFINITION OF VOICE.

The category of voice presents us with its own both of difficulties. In their main character they have something in common with the difficulties of mood: there is no strict one way correspondence between meaning and means of expression. Thus, for instance in the sentence the door opened and in the sentence I opened the door the meaning is obviously different, whereas the form of the verb is the same in both cases. To give another example : in the sentence he shaved the customer and in the sentence he shaved and went out the meaning is different (the second sentence means that he shaved himself), but no difference is to be found in the form of the verb.

At the beginning, it is important to explain what **voice** means. The term voice is a grammatical category of verbs and it can often be found in connection with transitive verbs. With respect to this term, there is another explanation by Huddleston and Pullum, whose exact words are: “...the general term **voice** applies to a system where the contrasting forms differ in the way semantic roles are aligned with syntactic functions, normally with some concomitant marking on the verb.”¹³

The term **voice** in the collocation with the terms **active** and **passive** means something slightly different. The **active voice** is used in active sentence structures. The subject in such structures is typically the agent. The subject **in passive sentence** structures is typically the object of active sentence structures and has a passive role, which means that it does not cause the action, but is typically the “receiver” of it.

Example:

¹² Ilysh B.A. The structure of Modern English-England: New York,1971.-P.78.

¹³ Huddleston R.D and Pullum G.K English Grammar . England: Cambridge , 2002. - P.142.

a) **Peter attacked David.** [active]

b) **David was attacked by Peter.** [passive]

Example [a] is in the active because the subject, **Peter**, is in relation with an active role (the role of the agent). **David** is the one who performed the action.

Example [b] is called “passive” because the subject, **David**, is associated with a passive role (the role of a “patient”), because David was the one on whom the action was performed.

With respect to the English voice, there are two types, as was already mentioned. The passive voice consists of the auxiliary verb “**be**” and the past participle of a lexical verb. The past participle can also be referred to as the “**passive participle**”¹⁴.

The occurrence of the passive will be considered in connection with tense and the type of sentence (question and negative statement).

We are therefore bound to adopt a principle in distinguishing the voices of the English verb: what shall we take as a starting point, meaning, or form, or both, and if both, in what proportion, or in what mutual relation?¹⁵

As to the definition of the category of voice, there are two main views. According to one of them this category expresses the relation between the subject and the action. Only these two are mentioned in the definition. According to the other view, the category of voice expresses the relations between the subject and the object of the action. In this case the object is introduced into the definition of voice.¹⁶ We will not at present try to solve this question with reference to the English language. We will keep both variants of the definition in mind and we will come back to them afterwards.

Before we start on our investigation, however, we ought to define more precisely what is meant by the expression "relation between subject and action". Let us take to simple examples: He invited his friends and He was invited by his

¹⁴ Huddleston and Pullum (2002).

¹⁵ Vinogradov V.V. Grammar of Russian language Moskow : Pavlin, 1967.-P. 125.

¹⁶ Vinogradov V.V Grammar of Russian language Moskow : Ленинград .1967.-P 127.

friends. The relations between the subject(he) and the action (invite) in the two sentences are different since in the sentence He invited his friends he performs the action, and may be said to be the doer not act and is not the doer , whereas in the sentences He was invited by his friends he does not act and is not the doer but the object of the action. There may also be other kinds of relations, which we shall mention in due course.

The obvious opposition within the category of voice is that between active and passive. This has not been disputed by any scholar, however views may differ concerning other voices. This opposition may be illustrated by a number of parallel forms involving different categories of aspect , tense correlation , and mood. We will mention only a few pairs of this kind, since the other possible pairs can be easily supplied:

Active and Passive voice

Table 25

1.	Invites	Is invited
2.	Is inviting	Is being invited
3.	Invited	Was invited,
4.	Has invited	Has been invited
5.	Should invite	Should be invited

From the point of view of form the passive voice is the marked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the pattern " be= second participle", whereas the active voice is unmarked: its characteristic is the absence of that pattern.

It should be noted that some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive with the forms of the **future continues, present perfect continues , past perfect continues, and future perfect continues**. Thus the forms will be inviting, has been inviting, had been inviting, and will have been inviting have nothing to correspond to them in the passive voice.

With this proviso we can state that the active and the passive constitute a complete system of oppositions within the category of voice.

The question now is, whether there are other voices in the English verb, besides active and passive. It is here that we find doubts and much controversy.

At various times, the following three voices have been suggested in addition to the two already mentioned:

1) **the reflexive**, as in,

E.g. He dressed himself.

He hurt himself badly. (verb+ self+ pronoun)

2) **the reciprocal**, as in

E.g. They greeted each other, and .

They kissed each other.(verb+ each other, one another)

3) **the middle voice**, as in

E.g. The door opened. (As distinct from I opened the door).

The water boiled

It is evident that the **problem of voice** is very intimately connected with that **transitive and intransitive verbs**, which has also been variously treated by different scholars. It seems now universally agreed that transitivity is not in itself a voice, so we could not speak of a "**Transitive voice**"; the exact relation between voice and transitivity remains, however, somewhat doubtful. It is far from clear whether transitivity is a grammatical notion or a characteristic of the lexical meaning of the verb.

In view of such constructions as **He was spoken of, He was taken care of, The bed had not been slept in**, etc., We should perhaps say that the vital point is the objective character of the verb, rather than it is transitivity: The formation of a passive voice is possible if the verb denotes an action relating to some object.

Transitive verbs- verbs that take direct objects can usually be used in two ways as active verb or a passive verb, some of the information in the sentence is the same.

The difference is in the way you present the facts and how many facts you give. Understand both forms in order to choose the one that gives the emphasis you want. The passive voice is, therefore, a grammatical device for (a) bringing the object of a transitive verb into prominence by making it the subject of the sentence and (b) getting rid of the necessity of naming the subject of a transitive verb¹⁷

Last not least, we must mention another problem: what part are syntactic considerations to play in analyzing the problem of voice?

Having enumerated briefly the chief difficulties in the analysis of voice in Modern English, we shall now proceed to inquire into each of these problems, trying to find objective criteria as far as this is possible, and pointing out those problems in which any solution is bound to be more or less arbitrary and none can be shown to be the correct one by any irrefutable proofs.

2.3. ADVANTAGE OF THE ACTIVE VOICE.

- 1). An active clause can give more information in fewer words.
- 2). An active verb makes your writing livelier and more vivid.
- 3). In an active clause the subject is in strong position, but in the passive construction you may leave out some information in the active subject or put it in the weak position after by.
- 4). If the indirect object is important information, it is stronger in the active sentence.

English like all languages, provides the means to express essentially the same idea in several distinct ways. In this section, we will discuss two of those ways, traditionally distinguished as the **Active voice** (**The president gave this speech before**) and the **Passive** (**The speech was given by the president before**). There are systematic correspondences and differences between the active and passive forms of a sentence. The passive subject corresponds to the active object, and the active subject corresponds to the phrase governed by in the passive. Where as the active sentence may contain only a single verb, the passive requires

¹⁷ Sweet H.D A new English Grammar—England:Oxford,1878. - P.112-113,138.

an auxiliary form of be followed by the past (or passive) participle form of the main verb (**verb+ en**).

Traditionally, active and passive sentences have been understood as distinct perspectives on an event from the point of view of the agent or doer. Whereas **the passive**, it is presented from the point of view of an entity affected in the event. This distinction is based on the traditional acceptance that subjects represent doers and objects represent affected entities. The difference in perspective has led many commentators and teachers of writing to argue that passive sentences are less vigorous than their active counterparts and because truncation omits reference to the entity who actually performs in all events or is responsible for it, they argue that passives are more vague and irresponsible than actives. For these and other reasons they suggest that passives should be used sparingly if at all. The passive has in fact occasionally been referred to as an error.

My view is that both passive and active allow English users to fail in the form in which an idea is expressed to its specific content. To view passives as errors and to attempt to eliminate them from one's writing as simply to impoverish the resources available to the writer.

2.4.PASSIVE VOICE AND ITS USES.

To introduce the meaning of the use might play an important role. Some pupils may not feel a need to learn the passive because they do not understand the importance of it in the English language. This would be suitable to explain at the first introduction of the English passive voice. The logical object of a sentence may be made its grammatical subject. This is mostly done by a change in the form of predicate effected, in English, by combining a form of the verb "to be" with the past or passive participle. This combination is called the passive voice of the verb¹⁸.

form of "to be" + past participle = passive voice

Many languages have pairs of sentences such as:

¹⁸ H. Poutsma H.M. A Grammar of Late Modern English Part II.- England:Cambridge,1898. -P. 93-100.

E.g. The policemen have caught the thief .

The thief has been caught by the policeman.

Traditionally these are referred to as "active" and "passive" sentences respectively. The simplest and now widely accepted way of dealing with the grammatical relationship between two such sentences is to treat the first, the active sentence, as basic, and the second, the passive as derived from it by a set of formal rules. In the active sentence, the agent (the policeman) is marked as the subject and the patient (the thief) as the object both by word order and the agreement of the subject, while the agent has peripheral status (marked by a preposition), or can be omitted all together. Treating the relationship between the two types of sentence in terms of the derivation of the passive from the active, it may be said that this involves:

a) the "promotion" of the (secondary) Patient- Object in the active sentence to the status of (primary) subject in the derived passive sentence.

b).The "demotion" of the Agent - Subject to the status of a peripheral term (or its deletion)

c). Marking of the verb as passive the terms 'promotion" and "demotion" assume a hierarchy of primary and secondary relations, with all other relations being lower on that hierarchy.

We have mentioned the passive construction a number of times in this caper and although is not usually regarded as a basic sentence pattern from a grammatical point of view it's of such importance that he will discuss it again here. First, I give its functional formula: Passive sentences include some form of the verb be followed by a verb in its participle form. They may include an agentive **(by) phrase**.

The Passive voice serves to show that the person or thing denoted by the subject of the sentence is not the agent (the doer) of the action expressed by the predicative verb but it is the object of this action. The subject of a passive verb does not act but it is acted upon, it undergoes an action.

E.g. The children were fed by the baby-sitter.

The children were fed.

As a general rule, passive sentences have active counter parts although a missing agentive phrase may have to be expressed as an indefinite pronoun .

E.g. The baby -sitter fed the children.

Someone fed the children.

The active subject corresponds to the in the Passive by phrase and the passive subject corresponds to either a direct or an indirect object in the active.

The auxiliary **verb "be"** can always be used to form the passive voice, and informed style, however , **"get"** is often combined with a past participle to make a vivid expression with passive meaning that emphasizes the action involved.

E.g. The criminal got caught.

Be careful so that you won't get hurt.

Sometimes 'get' is used to avoid the ambiguity of **"be"** .The combination of **"get"** and a past participle always expresses the condition of the subject as the result of an action.

E.g. Charles got married.

Charles was married.

The auxiliary "be" can always replace "get" but not the other way around. There are various kinds of passives and similar construction are examined in more detail. The identification of the passive.

E.g. The policeman caught the thief.

The thief was caught by the policeman .

Commonly the subject of the active sentence is omitted in the passive.

E.g. The boy was hit.

Sentences such as there are referred to as "agent less passives". It is important to note that in English it is not impossible simply to omit the subject of the active sentence to produce:

E.g. Caught the thief.

If the agent is not to be mentioned the passive is a typologically valid category it must like all such categories be identified in terms of the meaning or function it shares across languages and in terms of the meaning of function it shares across languages and in terms of its formal marking in individual languages. It can be said that the basic functions of the passive are the promotion of the Patient and demotion or deletion of the Agent, Patient etc, in the passive can be accounted for in terms of variation from their functions in the active sentence. It is the recognition that the Agent is the object in the active sentence and that the active is the subject, and the agent has peripheral status or is absent in the passive sentence, that makes it possible to talk about the promotion of the patient to subject and the demotion or deletion of the agent.¹⁹

As already argued, the passive must have some formal marking and it seems generally true that there is marking on the verb. Haspelmath argues that there are no passive constructions without passive verbal morphology, but provided verbal morphology" is used widely to include critics, this may be no more than a part of the definition of the passive rather than an empirical observation. Traditionally the terms "active", "passive", and "voice" have been used to refer to specific paradigms of classical languages especially Latin and Greek. They have that is to say been used morphologically, and there are many languages in which the passive is marked in the morphological of the verb , to create what Keenan calls "strict morphological passives" . In others, however, it is marked by auxiliary verbs (Keenan's periphrastic passives);

These verbs, Keenan suggests are four kinds

Table 25

1.	Verbs of being or becoming
2.	Verbs of reception
3.	Verbs of motion

¹⁹ Iofic T.L " Современный Английский Язык"—Moscow: Pavlin ,1981.-P 176.

4.	Verbs of expression
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He gives "strict morphological passives" examples

Table 26

1.	Hans was punished by his father
2.	Wyn was warned by Ifor
3.	The fox was killed
4.	Quang is detested (by Bao)

It would not be entirely unreasonable to suggest that the terms "voice", "passive", etc, should be restricted to morphological passives and not used to refer to the "periphrastic passives" of English and other languages. This would, however, be purely a terminological point and would not suggest that only passives (morphological) should be the topic of study.

The suggestion would be that the terms themselves should be restricted to the category expressed in the morphology of the verb, while "modality" is used more widely to include, e.g. the category in English that is expressed by modal verbs. However, this is not a practicable suggestion, both because there is no alternative term available and because the terms are in regular use to refer to the category in English and other languages as well as Latin, Greek, etc...

Formation of the Passive voice.

The active verb is often a simple form, but the Passive is always a compound²⁰.

1. Common Actional Passive Form.

The common literary form is made by combining some form of the copula "be" with the past participle:

²⁰ Gurme G.O A grammar of the English Language. -England: New York,1875. -P.217-220.

The house is painted every year.

2. New passive Actional Forms.

Within the modern period have sprung up several valuable new passive forms:

a) The passive and get

In English, some grammarians ²¹(Huddleston and Pullum, 2002; Parrot, 2000) claim that **"get"** is a colloquial form of **"be"** and, therefore, it can be used as a “substitution” of **"be"**. But, by the use of **"get-passives"** (instead of **"be-passives"**), there are found some differences in the meaning. The following example explains what is to be expressed by the use of the auxiliary **"get"**.

Example:

a) an unexpected, involuntary or possibly unwelcome action

When he picked up the phone, we got cut off.

b) an achievement based on something that has been built up beforehand:

She got elected.

c) an achievement in the face of difficulty:

I finally got admitted to hospital.

The auxiliary **get** in the passive is claimed to be not satisfactory for formal style. Apart from this, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p.144) also describe some other features of the use of the auxiliary **get**:

1) **"Get"-passives** are found only with dynamic verbs

2) **"Get"-passives** are more conducive to an agentive interpretation of the subject.

3) **"Get"-passives** are characteristically used in clauses involving adversity or benefit.”

The first point says that all passives with **get** are dynamic. In some cases, **be** cannot be substituted for **get** and, thus, the passive cannot become dynamic.

Example:

²¹ Woods E.J English Grammar in Modern English. USA: Oxford ,1990.-P.83-85.

It was thought that the problem was solved **Not: It got thought that the problem was solved**

The second statement points out that if the subject of the passive is seen as having at least some responsibility for the action in the situation, “**get**” would be used rather than “**be**”²².

Example: “**Go and get checked out at the medical centre.**”

(The example was borrowed from Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p.1442)

The third mentioned feature of get-passives means that get is typically used in the passives which represent situations that have, rather than neutral, positive or negative effect on the subject-referent.

Example:

a) Kim got sacked.

Kim got promoted.

b) My watch got stolen.

My letter got published.

“...The situations described in [a] are normally thought of as respectively bad and good for Kim, those in [b] as bad and good for me, the owner of the watch and writer of the letter.”

Another reason for using get-passives is in the usage of idiomatic expressions. These are, for example: get shaved, get (un)dressed, get changed; get engaged, get married, get divorced; get started, get lost, etc. (Eastwood, 1994)

Example: **I wanted him to get shaved.**

He never gets changed when he comes home.

Another feature of the use of the verb get is that it often has an influence on whether passives will be adjectival or verbal, or ambiguous.

Example:

The bike was **broken** by her sister. (verbal passive)

My sister is **known** among the people. (adjectival passive)

We have been **married**. (ambiguous)

“Broken” in the first example is a verb, “known” in the second sentence is an adjective (especially because it is a stative verb) and “married” in the third case

²² Longman group UK LTD A Grammar of Contemporary English.- Moscow: Prosveshenie ,1972.-P.73-74.

can be either. The ambiguity is clear: it is dynamic when it is interpreted as describing an event and, therefore, considered verbal. When it is interpreted as describing the state (resulting from some prior event), it is regarded the adjectival passive.

There are some gradable adjectives which, used with **get**, are the clearest types of adjectival passives. These are, for example: **frightened, alarmed, carried away, depressed, distressed, interested, worried**, etc. There is also a claim that “**get**” is used mainly in informal English.

Example:

a) **The window was broken.**

b) **The window got broken....**

“...Example [b] has only the verbal passive meaning: it describes the event of someone or something breaking the window, not the transition into the broken state. Thus “**get**” accepts adjectival passives as complements less readily than “**be**.”

There is a strong drift in England and America to employ “**be**” to denote a state and use effective “**get**” to denote an act.

E.g. “**He is married (state)now, but I can't tell u when he got married (act).**”

b) **become+ passive.**

This form is made by combining some form of become with the past participle:

E.g. “**Beatrice became more and more influenced by Randal's arguments**”

“**Get**” and “**become**” as effectives have in general the same meaning, but in passive constructions they are becoming differentiated. The **get+ passive** denotes a simple act, as illustrated in a, while the **become + passive** represents the occurrence as a final outcome of a development.

c) **come + to + passive , get + to + passive.**

The passive is “made by combining some form of “come” or “get” with the passive infinitive:

E.g. "He came (or got) to be highly respected by everybody in the community".

The get + passive, and more over it becomes impossible in the present perfect tense on account of the ambiguity of the form.

d)passive of experience.

There is another passive, which , though it didn't absolutely arise in present period, first become common in modern times. It is now widely employed in colloquial speech and is found also in the literary language . It represent the subject of the sentence as experiencing something :

e) passive after causatives.

The construction is the same as in "d", but have and get are here stressed:

"I had (or got) a new suit made".

Impersonal and "affected" passives.

In a number of languages there are passives of intransitive verbs²³:

E.g. There is fighting at one time in all places.

There was talking in the next room.

There is whistling by the boys.

These are often referred to as "impersonal" passives. It is almost certain, however, that this type of passive is restricted to what might be called "agentive verbs".

Impersonal passives are also found with, with the verbs that have a second argument that is not marked as object but as an oblique term. Thus in Latin in video-envy is followed by the dilative, not the accusative, but it has a passive.

E.g. Man most envy their equals or inferiors.²⁴

Those who are envied.

The same is true of German:

E.g. His friends helped him.

He was helped by his friends.

²³Дубровен М.И Illustrational Grammar of English language.— Moscow: Pavlin , 1973.- P.89-91.

²⁴Palmer F.R Grammatical rules and relations.—USA: New York,1994.- P. 215-217.

The issue is made more complex by the fact that in some languages, there appear to be impersonal passives of transitive verbs, in which the patient remains in the object position and is not promoted to subject, example from North Russian:

E.g. U mena bylo telenka zarazano.

The calf was slaughtered by me.

There are adversity passive of "his wife died".

In neither case, not even with the transitive, which has an object in the active, is the subject of the passive a grammatical relation that has been promoted. Rather the adversity passive creates an additional argument just as the causative does

Functions of the Passive.

There are several different reasons for the use of the passives in different languages.

a) It promotes a noun subject to subject positions to make it available as a syntactical pivot.

b) Closely associated with this, especially with the use of pivots in coordination, is the promotion of a non-agent for a topicalization.

We may compare:

E.g. The sailor ran into the road, and was hit by a car.

The sailor ran into the road. He was hit by a car.

In the first sentence, there is the grammatical rule that with coordination, only the subject may be deleted. In the second, the use of the passive keeps "the only subject, it may be pronominalized -it would be possible to say²⁵

E.g. The sailor ran into the road.

A car hit him.

c) The passive is often used, with the agent, omitted, where the agent is unknown, non-specific or unimportant, as in:

E.g. He was killed in the war.

²⁵ Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. — Moscow: Pavlin, 1983. -P.146-147.

They were persuaded in the war.

d) In some languages the passive is used because there are restrictions, in terms of animacy, agency, etc., on the type of entity that may function as the subject of an active verb.

Varieties of Passive.

English and other languages may be said to have more than one is a "true" passive, as shown by :

E.g. They were married on Saturday.

They were married for many years.

The second is the stative passive, expressing the meaning "they were in the married state".

Similarly, as noted by Nedjalkov and Jaxontov, there is the difference in the two instances of "was shut", in:

E.g. When I came at 5, the door was shut, but I don't know when it was shut.

P.K. Anderson argues that the passive in English is not a "passive", but an "objective resultative"; quoting Beedham- "the passive sentence portrays both the occurrence of an event and the state that arises from that event". A difficulty with this claim is that there is no apparent difference, in terms of "resulting state" between the active and the passive in English. If X killed Y or Y was killed, Y is equally dead. Anderson argues that the resulting state is merely a logical consequence of the passive participle, but this is to extrapolate from the form to the meaning, which can be "very misleading. It may be true that the form of the passive seems to contain an indication of the notion of state, while the active does not follow that, in this respect.

a) The active and the passive differ in meaning or

b) That the passive in English is different from passives in other languages.

In theory all kinds of aspectual and other types of meaning may be associated formally -semantically with the passive. One set of such passives is

noted by Keenan, where three different affixes an inceptive, a progressive and a past perfective passive;

A list of the main uses of passive morphemes and languages, in which they occur is given by Haspelmath. This include "**passive**", "**reciprocal voice**", "**reflexive**", "**anti causative passive**", "**potential passive**", and "**flientive**".

Types of Passive Construction.

English is the rich in various types of passive construction:

1)The subject of the passive construction may correspond to the direct object of the verb. This type of passive construction may be called the **Direct Passive**:

E.g. At twig light he was carried to the field hospital.

There are a number of verbs in English which can be used in the passive voice, while with their equivalents in Russian the passive construction is impossible. To these verbs belong: to approach, to attend, to answer, to help, to assist, to follow, to influence, to join, to watch, and some others.²⁶

E.g. Lady Bor was assisted to her car just before tea.

It should be noted that the **direct passive** is part of two widely used constructions:

a) It forms the basis of the construction, which may be called the **subjective predicative construction**.

E.g. She is said to be a first- class teacher.

I was not allowed to chat.

b) The construction with a formal it as subject may also contain the Passive of verbs denoting mental and physical perceptions, suggestion, order, request and decision as well as of verbs of saying, such as

**Passive of verbs denoting mental and physical perceptions, suggestion,
order, request and decision as well as of verb**

Table

²⁶ Palmer J.W and Mendelsohn Correct your English.— USA: Oxford 1994.-P.63-64.

To say, to announce, to propose, to report, to rumor, to explain, to think, to know, to believe, to understand, to expect, to feel, to notice, to observe, to suggest, to require, to demand, to request, to recommend, to decide, to agree, to determine, to arrange, and the like.

This passive construction is followed by a clause introduced, as a rule by the conjunction "that".

E.g. It was known that he wouldn't tolerate any criticism.

Although the Direct Passive is the most commonly used passive construction, there are certain restrictions to its application:

a) The restrictions may be due to the nature of the direct object. The passive construction is impossible when the direct object of the verb is expressed by a infinitive.

E.g. We arranged to meet at 5 o'clock; a clause; I saw that he knew about.

it a reflexive pronoun or a noun with a passive pronoun referring to the same person as the subject of the sentence.

E.g. He hurt himself. He cut his finger.

b) Sometimes there is no passive construction because the verb and the direct object are so closely connected that they form a set phrase and cannot be separated,

Passive construction the verb and the direct object are so closely connected that they form a set phrase

Table

28

To take flight, to take alarm, to lose courage, to take courage, to lose heart, to keep one's word, to lose one's patience, and many others.

Certain phrases of this kind, however, admit at a passive construction

To take care of, to take no notice, to pay attention to, to take responsibility for and so on.

E.g. He paused at each table and then, when no notice was taken of him, with a smile he passed on.

c) In addition to intransitive verbs which are not used in the passive, some transitive verbs at least in certain uses don't occur in the Passive either.

E.g. They resembled his father.

The coat does not fit you.

He lacks confidence.

Now in spite of the above restrictions, the use of the Direct Passive is quite extensive in English.

2) There are a number of verbs in English which take no object - a direct and an indirect object. The most frequently used verbs of this kind are: to fall, to give, to offer, to show, to pay, to grant, to leave, to promise, to lend, to send and a few others. These verbs may have two passive constructions:²⁷

a) The direct Passive (which has been described)

E. g. When I came to office a telegram was given to me.

As a rule, the indirect object is used with the preposition "to" after the verb in

b) The indirect object of the verb may also become the subject of the passive construction. This type of Passive construction may be called the Indirect Passive.

E.g. I was told some very interesting news.

He told me that he had been offered a well paid job at a publishing house.

(news, a job), it is called a retained object, since it is retained by the verb.

²⁷.Роговкая Б.И. A course in English Grammar.—Moscow: Pavlin, 1971.—P.76-79.

Although the indirect Passive is a construction peculiar to English, its use is not common. It is freely used only with the verb **"to feel"**. In this case the direct object is mainly expressed by a clause (a) and occasionally by a noun or a pronoun (b)

(a) E.g. I am told that his new house will be finished

(b) E.g. You were not told anything because there is not anything to tell you.

The Indirect Passive is also found with set phrases containing the verb "to give" followed by a noun.

Table 30

<p>To give a chance, to give an opportunity, to give a post, to give orders, to give a task, to give shelter, to give prominence, to give notice, to give news, to give an explanation, to give a party, to give a sentence, to give a choice, to give first aid, (occasionally to grant) to grant leave, to grant an audience and the like.</p>

E.g. He was given a life sentence

I have not been given a chance to explain.

He had been granted leave of absence from his work to make researches of the University library.

But in free combination the verb to give and the other verbs mentioned above are infrequent in the Indirect Passive.

E.g. In the hotel Charles was shown his room.

There are a number of verbs in English which requires a direct and an indirect object in the active construction, but they admit only of one passive

construction namely, the Direct Passive. Among them we find to write, to play, to telegraph, to bring and some others.

E.g. I wrote him a letter.

A letter was written to him.

3. There are great number of verbs in English that require a prepositional object. These verbs may also be used in the Passive - the Subject of the Passive construction corresponds then to the prepositional object. The preposition retains its place after the verb. This construction may be called "the prepositional Passive".

E.g. He was highly thought of in his village.

The prepositional Passive is found in English more often than the Indirect speech passive. Yet the use of the construction is not very extensive either. Its application is restricted in two ways²⁸:

a) In principle it may be formed from any verb which takes a prepositional object actually it is regularly found with a limited number of verbs. The most commonly occurring of them are:

1) Verbs of speaking, such as "to speak about (of, to)", "to talk about (of)", "to comment on", etc.

E.g. You have been a good deal talked about.

2) The verb "to look" in different meanings with various prepositions, such as 'to look at (to, upon, after, for, into)'

E.g. She could feel she was being looked at and it pleased her.

3) Verbs expressing **mockery or blame**, such as to laugh at, to shout at, to mock at, to sheer at, to spit at, to frown at, to whistle at, to swear at.

E.g. She had an uncomfortable feeling that she was being laughed at.

4) Also a **miscellaneous group of verbs** including to approve of, to disapprove of, to account of, to dispose of, to send for, to deal with, to ask for, to call for, to depend on, to think of, to rely on and...

²⁸ Jespersan O.G. Essentials of English Grammar, —USA: New York, 1994.-P.96.

E.g. No one could understand a word he said, and an interpreter was sent for.

5) Occasionally other verbs including **set phrases** such as to take care of, to make a fool of, to get touch with, etc., are found in the Prepositional Passive construction, but their occurrence seems to be infrequent.

E.g. It is all taken care of.

You are being made a fool of, that's all.

b) The Prepositional Passive is not used with verbs which take two objects, direct and prepositional.

Here belong such verbs as to explain (something to somebody), to point out, to announce, to dedicate, to devote, to say, to suggest, to propose, etc., They can have a direct Passive construction.

E.g. The difficulty was then explained to her.

These problems were announced there.

4) There is another passive construction possible in English; The subject of the Passive construction corresponds to an adverbial modifier of place in the active constructions. In this case the preposition also retains its place after the verb.²⁹

E.g. The room looked as if it hadn't been lived in for four years.

The use of Tense Aspect in the Passive Voice.

The use of tense aspect forms in the Passive Voice is not exactly parallel to those of the Active Voice. This can be accounted for by two reasons:

1) The lack of certain tense- aspect forms in the Passive.

2) The lexical character of the verb, namely the differentiation between terminative and durative verbs. The passive voice lacks the future Continuous, the future continuous in the past, and all the Perfect Continuous forms.

The lexical character of the verb affects the meaning of all the Indefinite Passive tenses is parallel to the corresponding Active forms.

²⁹ Delahunty G.P, James Garvey Language Grammar Communication.—USA: Longman, 1994.—P.132.

But with the terminative verbs the grammatical meaning of the Indefinite Passive forms is wider than that of the corresponding Active forms. They may denote either an action or a state from a previously accomplished attraction.

Active and Passive voice

Table

31

Action.	State.
<p>All the time the houses in Oak Crescent were built it wasn't considered that the working classes needed bath.</p> <p>Everything was settled twenty minutes after I arrived there.</p>	<p>The houses were very solidly built.</p> <p>So that's all settled</p>

Passive Voice continuous form

Table

33

CONTINUOUS	AFFIRMATIVE	INTERROPGATIVE	NEGATIVE
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PRESENT	I am being invited. The question is being discussed.	Am I being invited? Is the question being discussed?	I am not being invited. The question is not being discussed.
PAST	I was being invited. The question was being discussed.	Was I being invited ? Was the question being discussed?	I was not being invited. The question was not being discussed.
FUTURE	— —	— —	— —

Passive voice infinitive form

Table 34

INDEFINITE	AFFIRMATIVE	INTERROGATIVE	NEGATIVE
PRESENT	I am invited. The question is discussed.	Am I invited? Is the question discussed?	I am not invited. The question is not discussed.
PAST	I was invited. The question was discussed.	Was I invited? Was the question discussed?	I was not invited. The question was not discussed.

FUTURE	I shall be invited.	Shall I be invited?	I shall not be invited.
	The question will be discussed.	Will the question be discussed?	The question will not be discussed.

Passive Voice Perfect form

Table 35

PERFECT	AFFIRMATIVE	INTERROGATIVE	NEGATIVE
PRESENT	I have been invited. The question has been discussed.	Have I been invited? Has the question been discussed?	I have not been invited. The question has not been discussed.

PAST	I had been invited.	Had I been invited?	I had not been invited.
	The question had been discussed.	Had the question been discussed?	The question had not been discussed.
FUTURE	I shall have been invited.	Shall I have been invited?	I shall have not been invited.
	The question will have been discussed.	Will the question be discussed?	The question will have not been discussed.

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

Table 36

№	TENSES	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
1	PRESENT SIMPLE	They serve dinner at 6:00	Dinner is served at 6:00
2	PRESENT CONTINUOUS	They are serving dinner now	Dinner is being served now
3	PAST SIMPLE	They served dinner	Dinner was served

4	PAST CONTINUOUS	They were serving dinner	Dinner was being served
5	FUTURE SIMPLE	They will serve dinner	Dinner will be served
6	PRESENT PERFECT	They have served dinner	Dinner has been served
7	PAST PERFECT	They had served dinner	Dinner had been served
8	FUTURE PERFECT	They will have served dinner	Dinner have been served
9	PRESENT INFINITIVE	They should serve dinner	Dinner should be served
10	PERFECT INFINITIVE	They should have served dinner	Dinner should have been served
11	-ING FORM	He likes people serving his dinner	He likes his dinner being served
12	PERFECT -ING FORM	Having served dinner	Dinner having been served
13	MODALS+BE+P.P	You must serve dinner	Dinner must be served

The infinitive Passive forms denote an action if there are special indications in the sentence or in a wider context. These indications are as follows:

a) The action expressed by the Passive form is part of a succession of actions.

E. g. The door opened and the doctor was shown in.

b) The passive forms denote a recurrent action. In this case there are indications of frequency the sentence. They may be expressed in various ways, mainly by adverbs of frequency or by the use of nouns as a plural.

E.g. He is invited to all the best dances .

c) The time of the action expressed by the Passive form is indicated in the sentence by adverbial modifiers of time.

E.g. The novel was written during the summer of 1918.

d) The manner in which the action is performed is indicated by means of an adverbial modifier.

E.g. Nothing that's worth doing is done easily.

The front door was slowly closed.

e) If the doer of the action is indicated in the sentence, the passive verb, in most cases, also serves to express an action. Thus in the following sentences the passive form would be understood as expressing a state if the doer of the action were not mentioned.³⁰

E.g. He was disturbed by a series of explosions.

Yet sometimes we find sentences in which the Passive form denotes a state even when the doer is indicated.

E.g. The two houses were connected by a gallery.

If none of the above mentioned indications are found in the sentence or in a wider context, the Indefinite Passive forms generally express (with terminative verbs) a state resulting from a previously accomplished action.

E.g. The big bed was covered with a quilt.

The future Indefinite Passive tends, on the whole, to denote an action (and not a state) even if there are no special indications such as those described above.

E.g. You need not worry. Every precaution will be taken.

The use of the Present and Past Continuous Passive is parallel to the use of the corresponding Active forms.

E.g. You can see that this glass has been used.

They came to Europe where their mother had been educated and stayed three years.

³⁰ Woods E.J. English Grammar in Modern English, —London: Oxford, 1990.—P.74-75.

As has been mentioned before, the Future Perfect is not of frequent occurrence in the Active. In the Passive its use is quite uncommon³¹.

The choice of the Passive Construction.

The Passive is not the reverse of the Active. The two constructions are not parallel in their use and serve different purposes.

As a general rule, the passive construction is used when there is no need to mention the agent of the action because it is either easily understood from the situation or context (a), or because it is self-evident (b), or because it happens to be any number of unidentified people (c)

E.g. (a) Roger was invited to dinner of their house every Sunday (by a people living in the house)

(b) Her two brothers were killed in the war.

(c) In industry coal is now used much less than before.

Occasionally the passive is used when the agent of the action is not known or kept secret for a purpose.

E.g. At night his car was broken into and a few things were stolen from it.

As there is no need to mention to agent of the agent action in passive construction, it sometimes becomes necessary to indicate the doer and then a by-phrase is used for it.

E.g. Other possibilities were talked of by some of my colleagues.

With certain verbs the Passive is impossible without mention of the agent as the sentence would be meaningless without

Table 37

To allow	To govern	To join
To overtake	To control	To cause
To sere	To rule	To bring about
To visit	To influence	To confront

³¹ Kaushanskaya U.L. English grammar.— Moscow : Prosveshenie ,1986.- P.134-135.

To enhance	To comfort	To mark
To set off	To attend	To characterize
To accent	To accompany	To attract

E.g. In the afternoon she was over taken by a desperate fit of sobbing.

He was accompanied by his father who was very nervous.

2.4.THE PROBLEM OF A REFLEXIVE VOICE.

Taking, then first the problem of the reflexive voice, we will formulate it in the following way.

Can the group " **verb+ self+ pronoun** "(i. e myself, himself, ourselves, etc.)be the reflexive voice of a verb, that is , can the self- pronouns ever be auxiliary words serving to derive a voice form of the verb? This is , putting the problem in purely morphological terms. But it also has a syntactical side to it. From the syntactical view point it can be formulated in another way: does a self pronoun coming after a verb always perform the function of a separate part of the sentence (the direct object), or can it (in some cases at least) be within the same part of the sentence as the verb preceding it(in the vast majority of cases this would be the predicate)?

If we approach this question from the point of view of meaning we shall see that different cases may be found here. For instance, in the sentence **-He hurt himself badly**, we might argue that - himself denotes the object of the action and stands in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun:**-he hurt himself badly** would then be parallel to a sentence like - **he hurt me badly**. On the other hand, in a sentence - **He found himself in a dark room things** are different: we could not say that he performed an action, that of finding, and the object of that action was himself. Here, therefore, doubt is at least possible as to whether himself is a separate part of the sentence, namely, a direct object, or whether it is part of the predicate. We might possibly have to class - he hurt

himself and he found himself (in a dark room) under different headings and this would influence our general conclusions on the category of voice. Considerations of this kind cannot, however, bring about a solution that would be binding and could not be countered by a different solution which might also be confirmed by more or less valid reasons. If we are to achieve some objective solution, we have to rely on objective data in this case, as in so many other cases.³²

Objective investigation requires that should find various syntactic contexts or patterns in which the group **"verb +self+ pronoun"** can appear. For instance we ought to look for examples of the pattern **"verb+ self + pronoun +and +noun and pronoun"**.

In such examples can be found, they will argue in favour of the view that the self pronouns standing after a verb are actually treated as standing in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action. If, on the other hand, no such examples could be found, this would go some way towards proving that a self - pronoun is not apprehended as standing in the same relation on the verb as any other noun or pronoun following it, and this would be an argument in favour of acknowledging a reflexive voice in the Modern English verb. Other considerations of a syntactical character might also influence or judgment on this question. The problem has been treated by O. Ovchinnikova, who has collected some examples of the pattern **" verb + self - pronoun = and+ noun or pronoun"**, for instance, **-E.g. I see this man Meek doing everything that is natural to a complete man: carpentering, painting, digging, pulling and hauling, fetching and carrying, helping himself and everybody else... (ShAW)** and also examples of a noun functioning as opposition to the self-pronoun which comes after a verb, e.g. **I am defending myself** -an accused communist. (FOX). These cases, few as they are, show that a self-pronoun which comes following a verb can at least be apprehended as a separate member of the sentence. If it were only part of the predicate it obviously could not have an opposition attached to it. So we may take it as proved that in some cases at least

³² . Роговкая Б.И A course in English Grammar.—Moscow: Pavlin , 1971.-P. 103-104.

the self- pronoun following a verb is not an auxiliary word serving to express a voice category of the verb. But the questions remain, what we are to make of cases such as the following:

E.g. It was done , and Catherine found herself alone in the Gallery before the clicks had ceased to strike (J. Austen)

The self pronoun cannot either be joined by and to a noun (predicate) or have a noun in apposition attached to it. Without going into the details concerning these cases, we can merely say that two ways here open to us³³.

One way is to say that , since in a number of cases the self- pronoun is not an auxiliary word used to form a verbal voice, it is not an auxiliary. Then we should have to treat such cases as he found himself... etc., as phrase logical units and rater their peculiarity to the sphere of lexicology rather than of grammar.

The other way would be to say that in some cases a self- pronoun does become an auxiliary of voice. Then to find oneself would treated as form of the reflexive voice of the verb find would remain in the sphere of grammar and we should recognize a reflexive voice in English. There seems at present no binding argument in favour of or the other solution. We shall have to leave the question open to such a solution can be found.

The treatment of the problem would be incomplete if we did not mention the cases when a verb is used without a self- pronoun to denote an action which the doer performs on himself. Examples in this kind are not numerous. We can mention the verb dress, which may be used to mean "dress oneself", and the verb wash, which may be used to mean "wash oneself". This is seen, for example, in sentence like the following: **At day- break the next morning Hame got up and dressed.** (E. Caldwell). As we see, these pronoun and no verbs denote habitus everyday actions and this appears to be essential for the possibilities of such a usage. It would not, for instance, be possible to use the verb "hurt" in the sense of "accuse oneself", etc. Since in the sentence he dressed quickly there is no self- pronoun and no other special sign to indicate that the doer is performing the action

³³.Обчинникова О.Г Glagol +self- mestoimenie".-Moscow: Pavlin ,1963.-P.49.

on himself, we cannot include such cases under the category of the reflexive voice even if we were to recognize the existence of such a voice, which as we have seen, cannot be adjectively established³⁴.

Cases of this kind will be considered together with the problem of the middle voice.

E.g. Helen lifted herself up and looked towards nurse (Gaskell)

The truth was, Mary was dressing herself (Gaskell)

2.5.THE PROBLEM OF A RECIPROCAL VOICE.

Under this heading we will consider formations like greeted each other, or loved each other, or praised one another. The problem is somewhat similar to that of the reflexive voice, and it is this: Does the group each other (and the group one another) make part of analytical verb form, that is, is it an auxiliary element used for form of reciprocal voice of the verb, the reciprocal voice, or is it always a secondary part of the sentence?

We might seek a solution to the question on the same lines as the reflexive voice, that is, we might try to find out whether the group each other (or one another) is ever found to be coordinated with a noun or pronoun serving as object to the verb. We should see whether such a sentence is ever found as this one: **they kissed each other and the child**, etc. However, such a search would be very hard and not promising at all. Very possibly, we would find a single example of that kind, but this could not be concerned as a proof that each other (or one another) does serve as an auxiliary to form the reciprocal voice of the verb.³⁵

We will not go into this question any deeper and we will limit ourselves to the following conclusion . The solution of the question is to remain to a certain extend arbitrary . But, putting together this question is to remain to a certain extend arbitrary. But, putting together this question and the question and the question of the reflexive voice as discussed above, we may state that the grounds for assuming a

³⁴ Ilyish B The structure of modern English.- Moscow: Prosveshenie , 1971.- P. 122-124.

³⁵ Ганишина М.А. English Grammar. -Москва:Павлин , 1964.-P.87-88.

special **reciprocal voice are weaker than those for assuming a reflexive voice.** Therefore if we reject the reflexive voice, we will certainly reject the reciprocal voice as well. If, on the other hand, we accept the reciprocal voice and the reflexive voice, the question about the reciprocal voice will remain open. As in the case of the reflexive voice, we must also mentioned the instances, which are rather few, when a verb denotes a reciprocal attion without the help of the grouop each other or one another. For instance, in the sentence:

E.g. They kissed and parted.

Kissed is of course the equivalent to "kissed each other. Since there is no external sign of the procity we cannot find here a reciprocal voice even if we should unit its existence in the language. These cases will also best be considered under the heading " middle voice"³⁶

2.6.THE PROBLEM OF A MIDDLE VOICE.

This problem arises chiefly in connection with the possible use of a number of verbs in Modern English Compare, for instance, such pairs of sentences as these:

Middle Voice

Table 38

³⁶ Ilyish B. The structure of Modern English.-Moscow: Prosveshenie , 1971. -P. 124-125.

I opened the door	The door opened
I burnt the paper	The paper burnt
I boiled the water	The water boiled
We resumed the conference	The conference resumed
The rule applies to many cases	The rule applies to many cases

First, let us formulate what is established and does not depend on anybody's point of view or interpretation, and then we will proceed to analyze the questions which admit of different solutions. The facts, then, are these. In the sentences of the first and in those of the second column we have verb forms sounding alike differing from each other in two important points:

1) In the first column, the verb denotes an action which is performed by a doer on an object in such a way that a change is brought about in that object, for instance, the door was closed and then acted in such a way that the door become open ; the paper was intact , but I subjected it to the action of fire, and it was reduced to ashes, etc.

In the second column a process is stated which is going on in the subject itself: the door opened (as if its own will), the paper disappeared in flames, etc. Compare, **E.g. His camp had filled** (Linklater) - **The tea's making.** (L. Mitchell)

This, of course , is a difference in the relation between the subject and the action.

2) In the first column, the verb is followed by a noun (or pronoun) denoting the thing which is subjected to the action denoted by the verb.

In the second column, the verb is not followed by any noun (or pronoun). In the first column the verb **is transitive**, in the second column the verb **is intransitive**. What we have said so far is nothing but an objective description of the state of things found in these sentences, no matter what theory a scholar may prefer.

Now, we must turn our attention to the possible theoretical interpretation of these facts, and here the problem of voice will arise.

One possible interpretation is this. In every line we have in the two columns two different verbs which may be represented in some such way as: open(1)-verb transitive, open(2)-verb intransitive; burn(1)-verb transitive, burn(2)-verb intransitive; etc. If this interpretation were adopted, the whole problem would be shifted into the sphere of lexicology, and from the grammatical viewpoint we should have to state that open(1) here stands in the active voice (correlative with was opened), and open has no voice distinction at all (since from the intransitive verb open(2) no mutually opposed voice forms can be derived).

Another interpretation would run something like this. In both columns we have the same verb open, the same verb burn, etc. and the difference between the two is a difference of voice: in the first column it is the active voice (showing an action performed by the doer on the object), while in the second column it is the middle voice, denoting a process going on within the subject, without affecting any object. The difference between the voices, though not expressed by any morphological signs, would be taken to be a difference in meaning and in syntactical construction, the active voice characterized by connection with a following noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action and the middle voice characterized by the impossibility of connection with such a noun or pronoun. This interpretation would mean the admission of a special voice, the middle voice.

Still another interpretation would be the following.

The verb in both columns is the same, too, since there is no morphological difference between the two columns, and differences of meaning and of syntactical construction are not sufficient reason for establishing a difference of voice. In this view is accepted, we should have to define the category of active voice in such a way that it should include both the first-column and the second-column examples. The choice between these interpretations depends on the principles which a scholar considers to be the most essential and the most likely to yield an adequate picture of language facts. If, for instance, it is considered essential that a

difference in grammatical categories should find its outward expression by some morpheme, etc., the second of the three suggested interpretations will have to be rejected. If, on the other hand, it is considered possible for two morphological categories to be distinguished in meaning and syntactical use without any special morphemes to show the distinction, that second interpretation will be found acceptable. Without prejudice to the first or second interpretation, we will now follow up the third, which seems to present to greatest interest from a theoretical point of view. In doing so, we will assume that we do not accept either a reflexive or a reciprocal or a middle voice, so that only two voices are left, the active and the passive.

If, then, we are to bring under the heading of the active voice such cases as *doer opened*, *the paper burnt*, *the water boiled*, etc., we shall have to give that voice a definition wide enough to include all uses of that kind as well. Let us now consider the opposition between the voices; (in any sense) *opened* / *was opened*; *burnt* (in any sense) / *was burnt* from the point of view of meaning. It should at once be clear that the second member of the opposition (*was opened*,...) has a much more meaning than the first : the meaning of the type *was opened* is that the subject is represented as acted upon, whereas the meaning of the first member (*opened*, etc,...) is much less definite. We could, then, say that *opened* is the unmarked, and *was opened*, the marked member of the opposition. The meaning of the unmarked member is, as has often been the case, hard to define. What seems the essential point in its meaning is, that the subject is represented as connected with the origin of the action, and not merely acted upon from the outside. Some such definition would seem to cover both the type - **he opened the door**, and the type -**the door opened**. Whether the subject produces a change in an object, or whether the action is limited to the sphere of the subject itself - all whether the verb is followed by a noun / pronoun or not), partly on the lexical meaning of the verb and its relation to the lexical meaning of the verb and its relation to the lexical meaning of the noun expressing the subject (compare **the old man opened...** and *the door opened*), partly, probably, on a number of other factors

which are yet to be studied. The question whether it is more advisable to keep the term " **active voice**") or to substitute another term for it would also have to be discussed.

If this view is adopted, all the special cases considered above: **he shaved** (in the reflexive meaning), **they kissed** (in the reciprocal meaning) would fall under the heading of the active voice (if this term is kept) and their peculiarities would have to be referred to the context, the lexical meaning of the verb in question, etc.

The following phenomena would also belong here; **The book sells well**, the figures would not add, the rule does not apply in this case (as different from - we do not apply the rule), and a number of others, which have been variously treated as " absolute use"³⁷, use of the active form in a passive meaning.

As to form, it has been already said above, that the passive is the marked, and the active the unmarked member of the opposition³⁸. Thus, then, the passive is marked both in meaning and the active as unmarked both in meaning and in form.

This solution of the voice problem in Modern English appears to be convincing. However the other interpretations (mentioned above as first and second) ought also to be reasoned out to their logical conclusion.

CHAPTER III.

3.1. TRANSLATION AND TYPES OF TRANSLATION.

Translation theory's main concern is to determine appropriate translation methods for the widest possible range of texts or text-categories. Further, it provides a framework of principles, restricted rules and hints for translating texts and criticizing translations a background for problem-solving

³⁷ Deutchbein M. system der neunenglischen Syntax, on such cases as the work does not pay.

³⁸ Hewings M Advanced Grammar in Use.— USA: Cambridge,2002.-P.76.

The central problem of translating has always been whether to translate literally or freely. The argument has been going on since the first century BC. Up to the beginning of the nineteenth century, many writers favoured some kind of "free" translation: the spirit, not the letter; the sense not the words; the message rather than the form; the matter not the manner. The argument was theoretical: the purpose of the translation, the nature of readership, the type of text, was not discussed. Too often, writer, translator and reader were implicitly identified with each other.³⁹

Main types of translation.

Formal Types of translation : **Oral and Written Translation, Mixed Translation**, Concept, essence, aspects, methods and forms of oral translation. Current machine translation software, its significance, types and examples. The nature of translation and human language. The visibility of audiovisual translation subtitling and dubbing.

1). Translation Definitions **Oral Translation** is a translation performed orally, irrespectively of the form of the text-source, either consecutively or simultaneously. **Written translation** is a translation performed in writing, irrespectively of the form of the text-source, either consecutively or simultaneously.

2). According to the levels of analysis and synthesis According to the unit of translation, it can be: **sound translation; word translation; word-combination, idioms or phraseological units translation; sentence translation; paragraph translation; text translation; intertextual translation**. According to the aim of translation, it can be: **literal translation; summative translation**, when the main ideas are rendered in the translated version.

3). According to the levels of analysis and synthesis According to tasks and objectives of translation, it can be: **literary translation; informative translation;**

³⁹ Newmark P. Approaches to translation.—USA:Cambridge,1998.-P.36-37.

semantic translation. According to number of translators, translation can be: **individual translation; committee translation.**

4). Back Translation(BT)

A back translation helps a translation consultant determine if the original meaning has been preserved in the target language. E.g. Back translation of the Cheyenne proverb would be : Don't race in craziness, try to stop your mounts, try to come in last in terms of craziness! An idiomatic translation of the Cheyenne would be: Don't live foolishly. Slow down. Don't live a rushed life.

5). Committee translation(CT)

Translation done by a group, rather than a single individual. Committee translation has distinct advantages, especially in increased accuracy that comes from the checks and balances process of committee work.

6). Common language translation (CLT)

A common language translation is a version of the source text which is in the plain ordinary language of the average speaker. It follows an idiomatic translation approach. The vocabulary and grammatical constructions are chosen carefully to ensure that they are in common usage by ordinary speakers of the language.

7). Dynamic translation (DT)

If a translation is dynamic we mean that the original meaning is communicated naturally in it, as well as accurately. A dynamic (idiomatic) translation pays careful attention to the natural features of the target language. A dynamic translation attempts to speak in the language of the average fluent speaker of the language.

8). Essentially literal translation(ELT)

The translators promote it as: an “essentially literal” translation that seeks as far as possible to capture the precise wording of the original text and the personal style of each writer. Its emphasis is on “word-for-word” correspondence, **differences of grammar, syntax, and idiom between current literary English and the original languages.** It seeks to be transparent to the original text, letting the reader see as directly as possible the structure and meaning of the original.

9). Formal equivalence translation (FE)

This refers to a translation approach which attempts to retain the language forms of the original as much as possible in the translation, regardless of whether or not they are the most natural way to express the original meaning. Same as Form-equivalent translation.

10). Form-equivalent translation

In this type of translation, the translator chooses one of a limited number of meanings assigned to each word. The translator fills in the words that belong in the sentence but follows the word arrangement and grammar that is characteristic of the original language. Such a translation is often viewed as accurate. However, it can result in awkward, misleading, incomprehensible, or even amusing sentences.

11). Free translation

A free translation is one which preserves the meaning of the original but uses natural forms of the target language, including normal word order and syntax, so that the translation can be naturally understood. Free translation is a kind of idiomatic translation.

12). Front translation

A front translation is designed to assist a native translator. It is prepared by an advisor for a specific translation project for the mother tongue translators under his supervision. The advisor creates a front translation with the goal of making the meaning explicit and as easy as possible for the mother tongue translator, whose ability in English (or another national language, such as Spanish, French, or Indonesian) is limited, to use. The advisor studies a passage of the source text, then writes up an accurate front translation based on this study. The front translation contains all the meaning of the original, including implicit information which may need to be made explicit in the translation.⁴⁰

13). Idiomatic translation

Idiomatic translation is where the meaning of the original is translated into forms which most accurately and naturally preserve the meaning of the original forms. Idiomatic refers to being in the common language of average speakers,

⁴⁰ Азнаурова Е. С Translation theory and Practice.-Тошкент: Укитувчи, 1989.-Р.64.

using the natural phrasings and idioms of the language. The terms idiomatic translation, dynamic translation, and free translation are essentially equivalent, and the non-technical term thought-for-thought translation is as well.

14). Interlinear translation

An interlinear translation presents each line of the source text with a line directly beneath it giving a word by word literal translation in a target language. An interlinear translation is useful for technical study of the forms of the source text.

15). Interpretive translation

A translation which he considers to include “ interpretation quot; of the meaning of the source text, rather than simply the “ translation quot; of that text. The term interpretive translation, for such critics, would essentially be synonymous with their use of the similarly problematical term, paraphrase . One logically legitimate use of this term would be for instances where a translator inserts information which is extraneous to the particular passage being translated. Such information, if relevant to study of the implications of that passage, belongs elsewhere, such as in a commentary, rather than in the translation itself.

16). Loan translation

Loan translation means borrowing the meaning parts of a source word and directly translating them to the target language, instead of using a native term from the target language. The meaning parts of the source word are directly translated to equivalent meaning parts of the target language. Sometimes the borrowing is partial, with part of a term borrowed and part of it native in form. A word which is created through loan translation is also called *claque*.

17). Meaning-based translation (MB)

Meaning based translation properly focuses on the critical need for translation to preserve meaning. Adequate translation cannot always preserve forms of the original, but it must always preserve the meaning of the original.

18). Thought-for-thought translation

In such a translation the meaning of the original text is expressed in equivalent thoughts, that is, meanings. Thought-for-thought translation is typically contrasted with word-for-word translation.

19). Vernacular translation

Translation into the everyday (this is vulgar) language of people, as distinguished from a literary dialect of their language or some other dialect or language of education or social prestige

20). Word-for-word translation.

A form of literal translation which seeks to match the individual words of the original as closely as possible to individual words of the target language. The translator seeks to translate an original word by the same target word as much as possible (this is technically called concordance). In addition, the order of words of the original language will be followed as closely as possible. No English translation, except for some interlinear translations, is a true word-for-word translation, but those who prefer this form of translation typically promote formally literal versions.

3.2. TRANSLATION OF PASSIVE VOICE FROM ENGLISH INTO UZBEK AND RUSSIAN.

During this investigation while translating the Passive Voice from English into Uzbek and Russian we come across with the following grammatical difficulties:

1) Complete correspondence:

By complete syntactic correspondence is understood the conformity in structure and sequence of words in word combinations and sentences .

E.g. New school was built in 1992.

Yangi maktab 1992 yilda qurilgan.

Новая школа была построена в 1992 году.

2) Partial correspondence:

By partial syntactic correspondence in sentences is understood the divergence in the order of words, omissions or partial substitution of parts of sentences.

E.g. It's forbidden to smoke here.

Bu yerda chekish man qilingan.

Курить здесь запрещено.

3) Absence of correspondence:

In the absence of correspondence the constructions have no formal grammatical connection with the main parts of sentence, though there are always a conformity

between them. The degree of attendance of action or conditions in predicative constructions determines the choice of complex compound or simple sentences in translation.

E.g. I saw the door open and doctor was shown in.

Men eshik ochilganini va doktorni xonaga boshlab kirishganini ko'rdim.

Я видел как открылась дверь и сопровождали доктора в комнату.

In the English sentences the predicative construction which function as an object is composed of a noun in the common case and an infinitive. In Uzbek this construction corresponds to the word combination " Eshik ochilganini va doktorni xonaga boshlab kirishganini" which carries out the same function though there is neither structural nor morphological conformity; it is a word combination expressed by a noun and participle. thus, an English predicative construction when translated into Uzbek gets nominalized. In Russian this construction is expressed by a complex sentence with a subordinate object clause.

Besides, while translating them we used the following ways of translation:

1) Grammatical substitution

By substitution we understood the substitution we understood the substitution of one part of speech by another.

E.g. But as a matter of fact all the crying was done by his girl- cousin.

Aslida esa uning amnavachchasi rosa yig'ladi.

А на самом деле плакала его кузина.

"was done"- passive voice is translated by the way substitution (Passive voice - Active voice).

2) Grammatical transposition.

Transposition is understood to be the change of position of linguistic elements in the language.

E.g. The next we heard was that he was married there.

Keyingi eshitganimiz bo'yicha u u yerda uylangan ekan.

Следующее то что мы услышали о нем он женился там.

The passive voice "was married" is translated into Russian by the verb "ся" and into Uzbek by "sifatdosh".

a). by the verb "БЫТЬ+ краткая форма причастия страдательного залога.

In the present the verb is not used. in Uzbek it is translated as a "sifatdosh".

E.g. The house was built in 1932.

Уу 1932 yilda qurilgan.

Дом был построен в 1932 году.

b). By the verb - "ся". In Uzbek by "majhul nisbat".

E.g. Houses are built of stone.

Uylar toshdan qurilyapti.

Дома строятся из камня.

c). By - means of indefinite - personal constructions (неопределенно - личные. This way is translating only if the doer of the action is not mentioned .

E.g. She was told to wait.

Unga kutib turishini aytishdi.

Ей сказали подождать.

In Russian and Uzbek Passive voice is translated as an active voice.

There are a number of transitive verbs in English which correspond to intransitive verbs in Russian: to affect, to answer, to assist, to attend, to follow, to help, to

influence, to join, to watch. These verbs naturally admit of the passive construction while their Russian equivalents cannot be used in the Passive voice. Such sentences are rendered in Russian by indefinite- personal sentences (неопределенно - личные предложения) unless the doer of the action is mentioned. In the latter case either the Active Voice is used which occurs rather seldom, or the Passive Voice (consisting of the verb БЫТЬ + краткая форма причастия страдательного залога).

E.g. He was granted ten day's leave.

Unga 10 kunlik dam olish berishdi.

Ему дали десяти дневный отпуск.

The compound nominal predicate expressed by the verb "to be" and Participle II can be translated only by the verb БЫТЬ + краткая форма ...

In the present " БЫТЬ " is not used.

E.g. The statue is broke.

Статуя разбита.

Haykal buzdirildi

When I came, the papers were signed.

Когда я пришел, документы были подписаны.

Kelganimda hujjatlar imzolangan edi.

It is important to explain what voice means. The term voice is a grammatical category of verbs and it can often be found in connection with transitive verbs. The term voice in the collocation with the terms active and passive means something slightly different. The active voice is used in active sentence structures. The subject in such structures is typically the agent. The subject in passive sentence structures is typically the object of active sentence structures and has a passive role, which means that it does not cause the action, but is typically the "receiver" of it.

Example:

a) **Peter attacked David.**

[active] **Peter Davidga hujum qildi.**

b) David **was attacked** by Peter. [passive] **Davidga hujum** (David tomonidan) **qilindi**

Example (a) is in the active because the subject, **Peter**, is in relation with an active role (the role of the agent). **David** is the one who performed the action.

Example (b) is called “passive” because **the subject, David**, is associated with a passive role (the role of a “patient”), because David was the one on whom the action was performed.

The active and the passive voice and their occurrence

With respect to the English voice, there are two types, as was already mentioned. The passive voice consists of the auxiliary verb “**be**” and the past participle of a lexical verb. The past participle can also be referred to as the “**passive participle**”. The occurrence of the passive will be considered in connection with tense and the type of sentence (question and negative statement).

E.g.- Butter is made from milk

-When **was** the telephone
invented?

Sariyog' sutdan tayyorlanadi.

Telefon qachon kashf qilingan

-Glass **is made** from sand
years ago.

-These houses **were not built** 100

Shisha qumdan tayyorlanadi.
emas.

Bu uylar 100 yil oldin qurilgan

-Ann's bicycle **was stolen** last week.
W.Blake

-That book **was written** by
in

1853.

O'tgan hafta Anning velospedi o'g'rilandi.

U kitob (W.Blake tomonidan)
1853-yilda yozilgan.

A new government has been elected.

That man was arrested.

Yangi hukumat saylandi.

U kishi qamoqqa olindi.

The passive and tense

The passive structure **be + past participle** can combine with particular tenses, and these are: the simple tense, the perfect, the forms of future (will and be going to) and even with the continuous tense.

E.g. 1) Cocaine **has been seized** by the FBI.

[Perfect passive verb phrase]

Kakain (politsiya xodimlari tomonidan)qo'lga olindi.

2)The drugs **will be destroyed**.

[Future of be + passive participle]

Giyohvand moddalar yo'q qilinadi.

3)Bob's boss **are going to be charged** with importing cocaine.

[Future of be + passive participle]

Bobning xo'jayini kakain importida ayblanmoqchi.

With respect to the **passive in a continuous tense**, it is said to be rather rare in English some speakers consider them unacceptable.

E.g. 1)The child **is being watched now.** (Bola nazorat qilinmoqda)

2)The meat **has been being cooked for ages.** (Go'sht ancha vaqtdan buyon pishirib kelinmoqda)

The passive in question and negative statement

The English passive voice also occurs in questions and negative statements. The manner in making these types of sentences with the passive voice is the same as without it, as shown in the following examples.

E.g. The food is not finished. [The passive in negative sentence]

Oziq-ovqat tugamadi.

Was the food finished? [The passive in question]

Oziq-ovqat tugadimi?

An ~~editors~~ chooses the stories. ACTIVE Muharrirlar hikoyalarni tanlashadi.

The **stories** are chosen by an **editor**. PASSIVE Hikoyalar (muharrirlar tomonida) tanlanadi.

Active voice and Passive voice.

1) I do exercises every day

Men har kuni **badantarbiya qilaman.**

Exercises are done (by me) every day.

Badantarbiya har kuni (men tomonidan) **bajariladi.**

2) **Jane cleans** the house on Mondays.

Jane dushanba kunlari **uyini tozalaydi.**

The house is cleaned (by Jane) on Mondays.

Uy (Jane tomonidan) dushanba kunlari **tozalanadi.**

3) **Mark and Paul painted the house** last summer.

Mark va Paul o'tgan yoz **uyini bo'yashdi.**

The house was painted(by Mark and Paul) last summer.

Uy (Mark va Paul tomonidan) o'tgan yoz **bo'yaldi.**

4) **They will fix** the **car** tomorrow.

Ular mashinani ertaga **tuzatishadi.**

The car will be fixed (by them).

Mashina (ular tomonidan) **tuzatiladi.**

5) **He would invite** Ann for the party.

U Anni kechaga **taklif qildi.**

Ann would be invited (by him) for the party.

Ann kechaga (u tomonidan) **taklif qilindi.**

6) **They are organizing** the books at the library.

Ular kutubxonadagi **kitoblarni tartibga solishyapti.**

The books are being organized (by them) at the library.

Kutubxonadagi **kitoblar**(ular tomonidan) **tartibga solinyapti.**

7) **I have read** that **book** recently.

Men yaqinda **kitobni o'qib bo'ldim.**

That book has been read (by me) recently.

Kitob yaqinda (men tomonidan) o'qildi.

Modal verbs in the passive.

We can use the passive with a modal verb (or an expression like have to).

The pattern is **modal verb + be + passive participle**.

E.g. Stamps **can be bought** at any post office.

Markalar har qanday pochta ofislaridan xarid qiliniladi.

Many things that **used to be done** by hand are now done by machine.

Ko'p buyumlar qachonlardir qo'lda qilingan hozir esa mashinada qilinadi.

For an adjective ending in able meaning that something "can be done".

E.g. Stamps are **obtainable** at any post office.

Markalar istagan pochta ofislarini egallagan.

A modal verb can also go with the perfect and the passive together. The pattern is **modal verb + have been + passive participle**.

E.g. I can't find that piece of paper. It **must have been thrown** away.

Men qog'oz bo'lagini topolmayapman. U tashlab yuborilgan bol'sa kerak.

The plane **might have been delayed** by the fog.

Parvoz tuman sababli kechiktirilgan bo'lishi mumkin.

This bill **ought to have been paid** weeks ago.

Bu hisob o'tgan hafta to'lanilishi lozim edi.

CONCLUSION.

This research is characterized by a great interest toward the problem connected with the Passive Voice.

This qualification paper is dedicated to the study of Passive Voice.

The aim is achieved through the solution of the following tasks:

- 1) **to light out the definition of voice.**
- 2) **to work out the Passive voice and its use.**
- 3) **to show types of Passive construction.**
- 4) **to discuss the problems of reflexive, reciprocal and middle voices.**
- 5) **to compare the translation of Passive Voice from English into Uzbek and Russian.**

The structure of the paper includes **introduction, 2 chapters, conclusion and bibliography.**

Introduction gives proof to the choice of theme of the qualification paper, determines the aim and tasks of it, points out the language material and methods of its analysis, the practical value of research.

Chapter I includes 2 paragraphs.

They are: Grammar as a part of linguistics and general classification of parts of speech.

Chapter II deals with the verb, its category- voice, active voice, and the Passive Voice and its usage. The last 3 paragraphs solve the problems of reflexive, reciprocal and middle voices.

The last Chapter III studies the translation of the Passive Voice from English into Uzbek and Russian Languages.

Conclusion deals with the theoretical and practical results of the research.

Bibliography includes the list of used literature.

Thus the carried out analysis of the qualification paper under the theme Passive Voice, let us make the following conclusions:

At the beginning of the paper we have discussed the Grammar as a part of linguistics, which the theme of the paper refers to the Grammar.

Grammar plays a great role in every language. It studies the grammatical structure of the language and we use it in every day communication.

Then we showed that the words of language are divided into grammatically classes. According to their meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions words fall under certain classes called parts of speech. We distinguished notional and structural parts of speech.

We have come to agreement that the verb which the voice is the category of it is the most complex and important parts of speech. It denotes an action. Verbs may be **transitive** and **intransitive** verbs have **finite** forms which can be used as the predicate of a sentence and **non-finite** which cannot be used as a predicate of a sentence.

The basic form of the verb in Modern English are the Infinitive, the Past Indefinite and participle II
to speak- spoke- spoken.

According to the way in which the Past Indefinite and Participle II are formed, verbs are divided into **three groups**:

-regular

-irregular

-mixed

E.g. She knew, what she was thinking.

The old face looked worn and hollow again.

But all this time James was musing.

The verb has the following grammatical categories

Categories of verb

Table 39

Person	Number	Tense	Aspec	Voice	Mood
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One of the main question, the category of voice has been widely discussed in the paper.

Voice is the form of the verb which shows the relation between the subject, the object and the doer of the action. We have compared voices in three languages.

The Uzbek language is the richest in voices. It has five voices: Table 40

Active	Passive	Reflexive	Reciprocal	Causative
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While Russian language has only three voices: Table 41

Active	Passive	Reflexive
---------------	----------------	------------------

And English language has five voices: Table 42

Active	Passive	Reflexive	Reciprocal	Causative
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The active voice shows that the person or thing denoted by the subject is the doer of the action expressed by the predicate.

E.g. He wrote a letter.

The passive voice shows that the person of the thing denoted by the subject is acted upon.

E.g. New school are built in our street.

The big bed was covered with a quilt.

The reflexive voice shows that the action expressed by the predicate passes on to the subject. The reflexive voice exist in Uzbek and Russian.

E.g. U yuvindi - Он умываясь.

Men kiyindim - Я оделась.

The reciprocal voice shows that the action is performed by several persons together.

The reciprocal voice shows that the action is performed by several persons together .

The causative voice shows that the person denoted by the subject induces another person to do something or causes something to change its state. Of the three languages compared only Uzbek possesses these two voices.

E.g. Ular kinoga borishdi.

U meni kuldirdi.

This research widely dealt with the Passive Voice and it's use. The Passive voice is formed by means of the auxiliary verb "to be" in required form and Participle II of the notional verb.

E.g. I was invited.

As a result, the Passive Voice can be used:

a) without the doer of action being mentioned. In this case the doer is either unknown or unimportant.

E.g. In silence the soup was finished

b) with the doer of the action being mentioned. The noun or pronoun denoting the doer of the action is produced by the preposition "by"

E.g. The new teacher was introduced by the director.

We have come to agreement that the uses of tenses in the Active and in the Passive Voice are the same .The Future Continuous, the Perfect Continuous are not found in the Passive Voice. Instead of them Active is possible.

E.g. When you come to the laboratory, we shall already be making the experiment

Когда вы придете в лабораторию, опыт уже будет производится.

Labaratoriyaga kelganingizda,tajribalarni allaqachon o'tqazayotgan bo'ladi.

Lastly we have looked through the ways of translating of Passive Voice from English into Uzbek and Russian language.

As a result, the Passive Voice is translated as:

1. Passive voice

E.g. This house was built by my father.

Bu uy otam tomonidan qurilgan.

ЭТОТ ДОМ ВЫЛ.

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