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QUALIFICATION PAPER

On

THE PROBLEM OF PRONOUNS IN MODERN ENGLISH

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INTRODUCTION

This qualification paper is devoted to the study of personal pronouns which is one of the most interesting problems in linguistics.

The reason of my choosing this theme is that I have come across such problem at my school practice period that to explain the types of pronouns and their functions in the sentence to pupils was rather difficult for me. Personal pronouns are usually used in Nominative case in Modern English, but when we translated them into Uzbek it may state other cases, for example:

I have a book -Menda kitob bor,

Or- Mening kitobim bor.

Pronouns are specific words with regard to both meaning and form. They point out things and qualities of things without naming or describing them (as nouns and adjectives do).

Pronouns have every general relative meaning. Thus, the indication of a person by means of a personal pronoun varies depending on the speaker p .g. one and the same person may be denoted by I, you or he ;when a person speaks of himself, he calls himself I; addressing him, we call him you, speaking about him, we refer to him as he.

The actuality of this problem is that pronouns have their own specific peculiarities and to differentiate them is one of up to date problem in grammar.

The main purpose of the work is to state pronouns as National parts of speech and to define. The meaning form and functions of personal pronouns in Modern English.

To come out of the purpose, the work puts different **tasks** before itself.

- To study the position of as Notional Part of speech.
- To character is the classification of pronouns.
- To point out the main peculiarities of personal pronouns in the English language.

The hypothesis of the work is that the study of morphology in comparison with English and Uzbek languages provides full coverage of language in linguistic sphere.

There different **methods** have been used in the qualification paper as analytical, comparative methods.

The theoretical and practical value of the work is that achieved results can be used in delivering lectures and practical lessons on English.

The qualification paper is constructed as; **Introduction, Chapter 1, Chapter 2, Conclusion and Bibliography.**

Introduction states the subject matter, the reason of chosen theme; actuality, aim, tasks, theoretical and practical importance of the work.

Chapter 1 consists of two paragraphs which study 1&Semantic classification of pronouns, 2&Personal pronouns and their main peculiarities.

In Chapter 2 also divided into two paragraphs and we have discussed:

- 1) The way of translational of personal pronouns from English into Russian.
- 2) The difficulties of Personal pronouns in the translational from English into Russian.

Also in this chapter we have stopped at the difficulties Translation personal pronouns where we came across with interesting situation as the omission of expressed by the verb affix which denote the person and member.

E.g. Bordim , it means in English I went ,bordik-we went.

But simply “went“-does not define any person and number in English.

Conclusion is about the theoretical results of the work.

Bibliography is the list of used literature in carrying out the work.

CHAPTER I

Pronouns as Notional Parts of Speech

Pronouns are specific word with regard to both meaning and form .They point out things and qualities of things without naming or describing them (as nouns and adjectives do).

Pronouns have very general, relative meaning. Thus, the indication of a person by means the speaker, e. g .one the same person may be denoted by I, you or he; when a person speaks of himself, he calls himself I; addressing him, we call him you; speaking about him, we refer to him as he. In the same way possessive pronoun indicate relative possession depending on the actual speaker, and one and the same things possessed by a certain person may be referred by as my book, your book or his book.

The indication of a thing by mean of the demonstrative pronouns this and that is determined by the whole situation- any object which is near the speaker is referred to as this, any object witch is far from his is referred to as that.

Compare with the indication of things and qualities by means of nouns or adjectives. The indication of an object by means of the noun table does not depend on the actual speaker or situation- this object will always be called table, by any speaker and in any situation. The same with the indication of qualities by mean of adjectives: a square table, a large room, a clever boy¹.

2. The syntactical functions of pronouns are similar to those of noun and adjectives, accordingly pronouns are classed as noun- pronouns and adjective- pronouns.

A. Noun- pronouns:

I am reading. (Subject), Charles can do this. (Object), it is he (predicative)

B. Adjective- Pronoun:

My book is here (attributing), Give me a some sugar (attribute)

Some pronouns are used only as noun- pronouns (Personal pronouns),

¹ Blockh M.Y. "A course in theoretical English grammar for students" Moscow 1983

the interrogative who, the reciprocal each other, one another etc; other pronouns used only as adjective pronouns (possessive pronouns in the conjoint form, the indefinite pronoun every). But the majority of pronouns have both noun and adjective.

3. In common with nouns, noun- pronouns have number and case forms.

Case. The case system of pronouns differs from that of nouns. Some pronouns have the nominative and objective case (personal pronouns, the interrogative who). Some pronouns have the common and possessive case (somebody, each other, etc). But most pronouns no case form what so ever.

The case system of personal pronouns (and the interrogative who) which comprises the nominative and the objective is at present in a state of a transition. There is a strong tendency to use the nominative case .When the pronoun precedes the verb even if its function is that of an object.

“Who is Margaret talking to?” said Mrs. Munt... (Foister).who can be mean by that. (Sheridan)

When the pronouns follow the verb, there is pronounced tendency in colloquial speech to use the objective case, even if the function of the pronoun is that of a predicate; “Who’s there?”- “It’s me”, she said (Greene). In careless speech it is him (her, us) is also frequent.

Number. Pronouns also express number; singular and plural. But with a few exceptions (one- ones, other- others, yourself-yourselves) pronouns do not indicate the plural by general plural inflexion of the noun- (e) s [-s-].

The demonstrative pronouns that and this have quite peculiar plural forms; these and those. There are pronouns which are only singular in meaning (each, every, somebody, something, much, little); other are only plural (many, few, both, several); Main pronouns have one form for the singular and plural meaning (all, any, some, who, which).In personal pronouns number is expressed by different words; singular; I, plural; we, singular: she, he, it, plural; they.

Use of article .Most pronouns are used without any article, though some pronouns are associated with it (the other, a little, a few);

The others waited for the rest of the story. (Nous- a few white clouds floated a mid the blue... (Gissing) “If you do not mind, I’d like to have a little of your time” (Sara yon).

Place of Adjectives. Used as attributes. Pronouns are rarely associated with adjectives used as attributes. If they are qualified by an adjective, the latter is placed after the pronouns;

...Christine noticed that something unusual had upset him (Cronin) “what a dull creature he is. Never has anything interesting to say” (Maurer) “There was nothing strange in your dream”. (Marryat).

It has been shown above that words fall into classes known as parts of speech in accordance with their lexica grammatical meanings morphological categories typical stem- building elements, combinability and functions.

The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words is that they are not united by any of the above mentioned features. True, they have certain grammatical peculiarities but what unites them is the way they denote reality.

Pronouns are words saving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances etc, not by naming or describing them, but indicating them.

As words of the vocabulary pronouns have extremely general meanings.¹

But in speech pronouns indicate particular objects in qualities when a speaker says I; he refers to himself, i.e. to a particular person at definite age. Height color of hair etc. when another speaker says I, he also refers to himself, but this time it is another person with other features. Thus the meaning of general as it is remains the same, but the objects referred to are different.

The meaning of the pronoun such is “of the same kind” but one speaker may use such to indicate a definite color another speaker may use it with

¹Cambell A. “Old English grammar” 1959 , Claredon Press ,Oxford

reference of some series a third one to indicate a particular temperature etc.

On the other hand one hand the same person may be referred to as I, you, or he depending upon who speaks, this and that may indicate the same object, depending on the relative position of the speaker and the object.

Thus pronoun can be defined as words whose meaning are very general and stable but whose references in speech are particular, variable and relative with regard to the speaker and the situation of speech. We insist on the stability of meaning and the variability and relativity of reference, because many authors speak of the relative meaning pronouns. But when we ask "What is this?" referring now to the blackboard now to a piece of chalk we use word this with the same meaning the object point at "or" the object "demonstrate" and not with the meaning of "blackboard", "piece of chalk" etc. these are only the object of reference and not the meaning of the word this Etymologically the word "the pronoun means" a word used instead of a noun this meaning reflects to some extent, the role of pronouns in language. Owing to the exceptional variability of reference and pronoun may replace hundreds of noun with comparatively stable or limited references this explains the fact that pronouns are used very frequently and from a considerable part of any text though are class of words they are not numerous.

But the roles of pronouns are much greater than it can be inferred from the meaning of word pronoun. It is not always that a pronoun are substituted for a noun for instance, what noun does the pronoun it replace in it rain? But what is the more important pronouns can be substituted not only for nouns, but for other part of speech as well Traditionally pronouns are divided into "noun pronouns" and "adjective pronouns" in reality pronouns also be used instead of numerals (C. F. twenty books- several books, many books) and adverb (here, there, now, then) using the prefix pronoun its meaning "instead of". We may therefore, classify pronouns with regard to the parts of speech in pronouns, pro-adjectives, pro-numerals and pro-adverbs).

Thus, pronouns are a collection of words correlated with different part of speech, which accounts for their not being united by any morphological categories or syntactical functions.

Sometimes a pronoun is correlated with one part of speech only but every often this is not so in a part of speech, as we known, variants of the some lexeme may belong to different subclasses.

The peculiarity of pronouns is that variants of the same lexeme may be correlated with different part of speech. This in the sentence is this the bike? Is a pronoun, while in the sentence He gave me this bike? It's a pro-adjective, here in the lives. Here is a pro-adverb but in front here to Moscow it is a pronoun.

As pointed out by A. I. Smirnitsky ¹. The boundaries of pronouns and those part of speech with witch they are correlated are rather fluid the word this in this bike may be regarded both as an adjective pronoun and is a pronominal adverb as an adverbial pronoun.

The relative references of the word today, yesterday, tomorrow are somewhat as in to those of pronouns, yet they are not relative enough because the words denote definite units of time, days. Cf. now or that it is no wonder, therefore, that there exist many words which are regarded as pronouns by some authors and as nouns or adjectives by other.

¹ B. Ilyish "The Structure of Modern English", Moscow, 1965 p 159.

1.1. Semantic Classification of Pronouns.

Since pronouns form a class chiefly on the basis of their semantically peculiarities, it is but natural that the subdivision of pronouns into groups should be carried out on the same basis, though some grammatical peculiarities of each group are taken into consideration ¹.

1. The personal pronouns are used only as noun pronouns:

Case	1 st Person		2 nd Person		3 rd Person	
	Sing	Plural	Sing	Plural	Sing	Plural
Nominative	I	We	Thou	You	he, she, it	they
Objective	me	us	thee	you	him, her, it	them

2. As is seen from the table above the personal pronouns have two cases; nominative and objective (the other corresponds to the old dative and accusative). The old genitive case of the personal pronouns is now a possessive pronoun.

There is no uniform inflexion for the objective case of personal pronouns: I- me, we- us, she- her present suppletive systems: in thou- thee there is a vowel interchange and the inflexion-m: it-it, you-you have homonymous forms both cases.

When a personal pronoun is used as the subject or predicate of a sentence, it is in the nominative case:

“I’m ready to do it tomorrow...”

“You speak excellent French..”

“He was not very tall..”

“Who is that?” – “It is I”

But as has already been stated, in colloquial speech the use of the objective case of the 1st person singular me as a predicate is more common than the nominative case

¹ Ganshina ‘English Grammar’, Moscow, 1953 p 77

I: ...He said: “Yes , It’s me”.

The same, when the pronoun is used as the 2nd subject in such combinations as: You and me can mark and make holes and plant the roots.

As for the other persons, the used of the objective case in these instances is still considered as careles speech.

“...It’s quite certain that it was her...”

“Well, well! So this is him, at last.”

When a personal pronoun has the function of an object (direct, indirect or prepositional) It is in the objective case;

He...led her about the ground, showed her everything...She was waiting for me. He led them into the further gallery...

2. The pronouns of the third person singular discriminate gender; masculine (he), feminine (she), neierter (it); but in the third person plural the form they serves for all three genders.
3. In old English thou was used in addressing a single person. Now it is used only in poetry and high prose:

Tell me thou, star, whose wings of light,
Speed thee in thy fiery flight,
In what cavern of the night
Will thy pinions close now?

(Shelley).

4. In ordinary prose, you is used only for the second person, whether singular or plural. Yet you always takes a plural verb form:

“Hallo, father! Her you are! ”

“You are my comfort” said Tomes suddenly.

5. Ye was once the form of the nominative and you of the objective .Now you is both nominative and adjective and ye is used only in poetry:

I fear ye not, I know ye (Byron)

“A rise, ye prisoners of starvation!

A rise, ye wretched of the earth!”

(The international).

1). The possessive pronouns are exactly parallel to the personal pronouns and distinguish number, gender and person in the same way as the personal pronouns do: I- my; thee- they; You- your; he- his; she- her; it- its; we-our; they-their.

2) The possessive pronouns are the old genitive case of the personal pronouns (old English, I remind his = I remember him or it). In Middle English the genitive of personal pronouns began to use only as a possessive pronouns.

3) The possessive pronouns the special form when used as adjective pronouns (conjoint form-просоединяемая форма) and as noun- pronouns (absolute form- абсолютная форма)

C o n j o i n t F o r m

	1 st person	2 nd person	3 rd person
Singular	my	they	his, her, its
Plural	our	your	their

A b s o l u t e F o r m

	1 st person	2 nd person	3 rd person
Singular	mine	thine	his, hers, its
Plural	yours	yours	theirs

The conjoint forms are used when a noun follows the pronoun: the absolute form can't be followed by a noun and are usually predicatives;

Its and his may be used in either way.

Use of the conjoint form

Use of the absolute form

My brother has arrived

The fault is mine

His hair is black

The book is not his

Our work is done

These seats are ours

I have taken your book

This pencil is yours

Their turn has come

That book is theirs

The absolute form (mine, yours, etc) may also have other functions (subject, attribute, and object);

Yours is a long life to look back upon. Jon looked at his watch. “By Jove” he said, “mine’s stopped too’. Ours is but a short and strange arguaintance.

“...Fleur’s a cousin of our, Jon”

I like math that great of yours.

Note. The forms mine and thine were used in old English both in conjoint and the absolute function. In Middle English the inflexion began to disappear before a consonant but was retained before a vowel:

To slay mine enemies and my friends.

The inflexion was also retained when the pronoun was used absolute. Later, on the forms my and thy began to be used in conjoint form before consonant and vowels as well and the use of mine and thine was restricted only to the absolute function. We still find survivals of the old conjoint use of mine and thine occasionally in nineteenth century poets;

Like mine own life. Mine car thine heart thine eyes.

4) In a number of cases the possessive pronoun is used before nouns denoting parts of the body, clothing etc. Where in corresponding Russian constructions there is no possessive pronoun: “I thank you with all my heart”, he took off his hat. Sara had turned her head to speak to her boy. The small creature and her smaller brother shook their heads. She held out her hand... The man opposite my head taken off his spectacles. He came in with his hair all ruffled and his face hot, and his hands in his trousers pockets, in the way he had repeatedly been told not to.

But: wind blew him in the face. He palled the boy on the shoulder.

Notice that in corresponding expressions in Russian there is generally no possessive pronoun.

5) When there are two objects in the sentence, the possessive pronoun must precede each, if there is danger of misunderstanding:

I will send for our secretary and our librarian (two persons). I will send for our secretary and librarian (one person). I have brought his cream and his cheese (two persons). I have brought her cream and cheese (a mixture).

1. The reflexive pronouns are parallel to the personal pronouns; they distinguish person, number and gender in the same way as the personal pronouns do. They are used only as.

Indefinite	1 st person	2 nd person	3 rd person
	Myself	yourself	himself, herself, itself
Oneself	ourselves	yourselves	themselves

To the class of reflexive oneself which has no parallel pronoun in the personal.

“But you might remember that one respects oneself more after words if one pores one’s own way”

2. Reflexive pronouns may be used in the function of a direct object to some transitive verbs importing to them reflexive meaning (compare with Russian where reflexive verbs have the suffix -ся, -сь; *мыться* бриться.) in this function reflexive pronouns are unstressed; I was in several minds how to dress myself on the important day... The young couple settled themselves into the little room... He warmed himself over the remnants of the fire.

3. Reflexive pronouns may also be used as an object (direct or prepositional) without imparting reflexive meaning to the verb;

She saw herself in the mirror (direct object).

She’s too young to look after himself (prepositional object). He thinks too much of himself.

When adverbial relations of place are indicated, personal pronouns are used: The boy...stared before him with big brown eyes “Now don’t stare about you all afternoon” (Cried Judy...)

4. A reflexive pronoun may also be used as an attribute: he looked at the photograph of himself and some fellow soldiers. Notice the use of the reflexive

pronoun in the function of a predicative; I'm by myself (alone) "I'm not quite myself" returned the trooper; I have been a little put out, Mrs. Bagnet. Also in the function of an adverbial modifier.

He gets thoughtful, sitting by himself so much.

She was asked to wondering about the fields by herself. The horses, handsome and brown, went on by themselves.

Emphatic pronouns coincide inform with reflexive pronouns. They are used in opposition to noun or personal pronouns serving to emphasize tem (cp. with the Russian; сам, сама, само, сами).

Emphatic pronouns are placed either after the word which they emphasize or at the end of the sentence;

Tolyo himself lit a cigarette.

At our feet lie the terrible precipices...of Snowdon itself. I have thought of it myself.

Sometimes an emphatic pronoun is used independently. There is no noun (or pronoun) in the sentence with which it might be correlated¹.

Wickham was not at all more distressed than himself who suffer by his all ill whims? Himself, always. "My friend and myself would be so much obliged if you would tell us how you caught that trout up here."

1. The group- pronouns each other and one another are called reciprocal pronouns; They help each other means A helps B, B helps A Each other generally implies only two; one another, more than two, but this distinction is not always strictly observed;

Reciprocal pronouns are used as noun- pronouns. They distinguish case; common, each other, one another; possessive; each other's, one another's. The two stood giving at each other for a minute in silence...Still they worked on taking turns and whispering cheerfully to one another. Once in a while they would tell a story- but they knew each others stories too well.

¹ Otto Esperson "Philosophy of grammar" Warsaw 1968.

They looked into each other's eyes, laughing. "They resemble each other in some measure" said Mrs. Pryon... They held each other in highest esteem, or as they would probably have put it, swore by one another.

1. The demonstrative pronouns this (pl-these), that (pl-those) may be used either as adjective pronouns or as noun- pronouns. Both these pronouns can be used for persons and things.

This (these) and that (those) change their form for number only not when they are used as noun- pronouns, but also as adjective- pronouns;

Noun Pronouns :

"That is the only problem". "This is curious" said he. "These are bathrooms", he said: "You needn't worry about that: That was what meant".

Adjective Pronouns

That night he slept like a top- This conversation that had taken place in the little room... Florence stole into those rooms at twilight.

2. This (these) is used for what is classes by in space or time; that (those) for what is father of.

By the end of that time he read another speech by the same state man ... "I like wilder and more primitive country, the dawn and those great round empty exmoor hills." "What do think of this?" said someone pointed to the Gauguin.

"That is Sirius, a gigantic sun, many millions of miles distance from us". The old man cast a glance this way and that before he answered...

3. A demonstrative pronouns may be used with reference to a previously mentioned noun:

Compare these maps with those on the blackboard, that (those) referring to a preceding noun (or nouns) is often followed by a participle, an adjective, an of-phase or another prepositional phrase, or an attribute clause;

Her sleep must have been like that of a baby. The tempest contains the noblest meditative passages in all the plays; that which embodies Shakespeare's

final view of life... She's at another gate now- That leading into Fir-tree Groove.

4. that is also used to refer to a whole preceding statement:

I have a several cold; That was my reason for not coming.

As for going down there with no weapons in their hands, that was asking too much.

5. This (that) is used to point out a person or things expressed in the sentence by a predicative noun: This is a pen. That is a pencil. Compare with the Russian это (то) in similar function.

“So is my prospective sister- in- law” That was the text of the letter.

6. Same and such are also demonstrative pronouns. Such means of this (that) kind: From the day she left I was not longer the same: I never saw such a beautiful color on my mother's face before. Such was the the individual on whom Mr. Pickwick gared throughtis spectacles... They had engaged rooms at the same hotel where once they had been familiar guest.

1. The Interrogative pronouns are: who, whose, what, which. They are used informing special questions: “What is the matter?” “He inquired”. Whose child are you? He said. Who were their.

2. The pronoun who is used only as a noun pronoun and refers to persons. It has two case form: nominative- who, adjective- whom. The corresponding interrogative possessive pronoun is whose:

Who is this man? “Whom do you want me to talk to now?” “Whose writing is that?”

The objective whom in spoken English is often replaced by who:

“Who am I talking to you?”

“Who is that letter from, dear?”

3. What is used both as a noun-pronoun and as an adjective-pronoun? It has no case forms; it usually refers to things but may also be applied to persons. When applied to persons, it inquires about occupation, character, etc:

“What do you mean by that?”

“What excuse shall I make?”

“What does not she want?”

“What was he?” – “A painter”. But than someone cried “who are you?”- “Jon Ford”. Upon seeing a stranger enter she asked him who and what he was?.

4. Which is used both as a noun- pronoun and as an objective- adjective? It has no case forms. It may refer to persons and things as well. Which as a noun- pronoun for a person is often followed by an of- phrase (which of you) which implies choice among a certain number of persons or things:

“I see several difficulties; said Grandy, Which one do you mean?”. Do you like the Chrysante mums?” he asked... “Which sort do you like best?. “Whom are you talking about?” Which of tem, I mean? “Which is Toe?” with the blue eyes and red face? “

5. Distinguish between: who is he? (what is his name?) what is he (what is his profession)? Which is he? (Point him out in the group).

6. The compound interrogatives with ever are used for the state of emphasis; they often express indignation surprise, etc:

Whoever would have thought it? Whatever are you going? Whichever can it be?

Compare with the Russian кто бы(ни), что бы(ни) in; кто бы мог это подумат?

7. If a interrogative pronoun is used with a preposition the letter is often placed to the and of the sentence;

“What did you want to see me about”?

“What train are you going home by?”

“What was she thinking of?”

“What were you opening the window for?”

1. Pronouns may serve to connect subordinate clause with the principal clause. Connective pronouns are semi-auxiliary words; they have an auxiliary function

in so far as they connect clauses, but at the sometime they have an independent function (that of subject, object, etc) in the clauses they introduce.

...Mrs. Gummidge was the widow of his partner in a boat, who had died very poor.

Connective pronouns are divided into relative and conjunctive pronouns.

2. Relative pronouns introduce subordinate attribute clauses;

I was to leave Gates head that day by a coach which passed the lodge gates at six a.m.

The noun or pronoun to which the relative pronoun refers is called its antecedent. Sometimes the whole of the principal clauses is the antecedent of the relative pronoun: in this case only the pronouns may be used:

At first I did not recognize the person who called me. I said nothing, which I thought a suitable reply...

A) who, whose, which and that are used as relative pronouns. Who (whom) is used in reference to human beings and occasionally to the higher animals (usually when the animal is referred to as he or she);

One Adams, who was the head- boy, then stepped out of his place and welcomed me... Haman Emily was an orphan nephew and niece, whom my host had at different times adopted in their childhood... He... whistled down to the dog, Balthazar. Who lay for ever under the clock tower? The old dog looked up and wagged his tail.

B) Which is used in reference to things and animals (when the animals is referred to as it);

All things shone softly in the sun, which was wonderfully warm and enlivening. I believed, from the solitary and thoughtful way in which my mot her murmured her song, that she was alone...the little brown birds which stirred occasionally in the hedge, looked like single russet leaves that had forgotten to drop.

c) Whose may be used with reference to animated object?

History Endows of no other epoch, no other people. Whose younger generation has been such a mighty creative force as our Soviet generation, the eolith of the hand of Soviets, beside him was a little bespectacled journalist whose pen was flying frenziedly across the white sheets before him. I have a dog, whose name is Toby. In the case of inanimate things of which and whose are both common;

Little birds were just twittering in the blossom Blanche orchard trees whose boughs dropped like white garlands. His fore head was covered by the visor of his fur cap, the Flaps of which went over his ears. A little before dark I passed a farm house, at the open door of which the farmer was sitting, eating his supper of bread and cheese...

D) that is the oldest of the relative pronouns, it may refer both to persons and things. That is generally restrictive: The book that is on the table is new, but the other is not. There force that is the relative pronouns prefers red after superlative and words of superlative force; the leaves of the trees that grew in the wood were very dark and thick. "You are the best friend that his got".

"We have now exhausted all that his room can teach us". "I'm just the same Elaine that you have always known".

e) If relative pronouns are associated with a preposition, the letter may be put at the end of sentence:

There's the saucepan that the gruel was in. I...was the singer, not the child whom I had often played with, but a tall, grown girl...

Note- That never has a preposition placed before it: the preposition is put at the end of clause;

"...You're got to look after the things that you care for yourself".

3. The interrogative pronouns what. Whom and which are also used as conjunctive pronouns, Conjunctive pronouns introduce subordinate subject, predicative and object clause:

Whatever I can do for you will be nothing but paying a debt... "That's

¹ Kaushanskaya V.L "A grammar of the English language" Leningrad, 1973

what I don't understand". "Do you know what he is professor of?" asked Martin.

If a conjunctive pronoun is preceded by a preposition, the letter may be put at the end of the sentence.

Well, what I was trying to get at was what had become of them. "Do you know which of the towers he is in?"

1. The indefinite pronouns are: All, each, either, neither, both; some, any, every, no (and their compounds with – body- one and- thing); none, much, many, little, few, other (another), one;

"Ob!" she said it was all, but it was much. "They tell me there was no one here"...There were a few trees on the summit. He laughed again, and the other boys joined. There were two cowsheds, one none either side of the barn. Another silence fell.

Everybody had something to say. Elizabeth and George talked and found each other delightful. Most indefinite pronouns may be used both as noun- and as adjective- pronouns. But none and the compound pronouns somebody, everybody, etc...are always noun pronouns, and every is always adjective pronouns.

2. The following noun- pronouns have inflected forms: other (another), one, somebody, anybody, nobody (and the corresponding compounds with one) have two case- form; the common(uninflected), and the possessive -s [iz]; other's(another's), one's, somebody's, etc; other and one have plural forms in – s [z]; others, ones:

"Let us get down to the facts" – "I think that you will find all the others" When one loves one's. Art no service seems too hard. They looked into each other's eyes as they shook hands.

3. Both

Both indicate that two object (person or things) are regarded in conjunction. It is used either as a noun- pronoun or as an adjective- pronoun; both were again silent. Both girls liked to be upstairs... Both may be used in opposition to personal pronouns: "I saw them both" "They both turned and looked towards the door."

When the verb- predicate is in an analytical form or when the predicate comprises a modal verb or the verb to be, both are placed after the finite form of the verb;

They can both play tennis well. They have both made helpful suggestions.
“You are both young- you too”.

But in question: ‘Can you both play tennis?’

4. All

All may refer to person and things expressing unity, collectiveness. All may comprise all the objects in a given situation or it may have generalizing force.

...All the ladies present expressed the same opinion. All that glisters are not gold. All may be used both as an adjective- pronoun and as a noun- pronoun.

As a noun- pronoun all may be singular or plural. In the plural all usually refers to people, in the singular at things and abstract notional;

All sent love to all. All was lost. All was down in the house.

All (singular) is sometimes preceded by a possessive pronoun;

We have very little to venture: but it as our all. Thou art my all.

All (plural) may be used in oppositional personal pronouns;

We all agreed to start at 7. They all went home. When the verb- predicate is in an analytical form or when the predicate comprises a modal verb or the verb to be, all is placed after the finite forms of the verb.

They have all gone. You may all go now. They were all glad to see us.

But in question: Have they all gone? As the pronoun all may be either singular or plural, to make the meaning clear in some cases: everybody, all of us, etc... or everything are used respectively: All will be ready by that time (1), everybody (2), everything (3). All as an adjective- pronoun refer both to persons and things.

...All the furniture is shaken and dusted...

All the ladies present expressed the same opinion .All as an adjective- pronoun as rarely used before singular class nouns (countable), the whole being more usual in this connection;

The whole house wants painting. He read the whole book through from beginning to end.

The whole is also often used with abstract nouns and names of materials (uncountable);

“Travelling all the time?”- “The whole time?” The whole difficulty was to prove anything.

Note – all is an adverb in such part set phrases as all round, all over, all about, all the better.

You’d be all the better for it. All about my garden today the birds are loud. She looked all round it in silence for a moment...

5. Each and every.

If all refers to the members of a group collectively, every and each refer to the members taken one by one. But every is mostly used with the members of a group have some thing in common. Each is used when attention is drawn to some point of difference between the members of group;

Each is used both as a noun- pronoun and as an adjective- pronoun; Give these boys lymph of sugar each. The bridge had a tower at each and every bough was swinging in the wind, every spring bird calling...home going crowds crammed every tram and bus. The compound pronouns (noun-pronouns) everybody, everyone are used with reference to persons, every- thing is used with reference to things;

The Prig knows everybody has a story about everyone. “I’ll see that everything is ready” Notice the following expression for place and time; every twenty years (каждые 20 лет); every other day (через день); every ten minutes (через каждые 10 минут); every ten miles (каждые 10 миль)¹

6. Either and Neither.

Either has two meaning:

a) one or other (but not both)

¹ Kaushanskaya V.L “A grammar of the English language ” Leningrad ,1973

Bring me a pen or a pencil; either will do. You can take either book; I don't mind which.

b) Both: Beside us there was along, ready pool-swelling into small lakes on either side. I haven't seen either of them.

The negative form either is neither:

Neither of my friends was there.

Neither spoke again till they were close to the station...

The pronouns every, each, either and neither are singular and therefore require a verb in the singular.

7. Other and another.

Other is used both an adjective and as a noun- pronoun is uninflected as an adjective- pronoun but takes the noun inflexions when used as a noun: possessive case; other's, others'; plural; others;

They found the others there...He turned toward the other room...all the other ladies expressed the same opinion.

Another means:

a) A different one:

Give me another book (not this one).

Give me another cup this one is too small.

b) An additional one:

'Another cup of tea?' he suggested "there is still plenty here" There was another silence.

Notice the following expressions: the other day, the other night (quite recently):
We had a long talk the other day.

8. Some and any.

Some and any are used as both as adjective and as noun- pronouns;

They spent some time there...

Tell the housekeeper to give you some tea.

The ship remained some months at the Brazils.

Compounds with body, - one -; somebody, anybody, someone, anyone – are used when speaking of persons; compounds with – thing – refer to things;

They are used only as noun – pronouns;

The pronouns somebody, anybody, someone, anyone distinguish case; common (anybody, etc) possessive (anybody's, etc);

She was expecting someone.

Rip was ready to attend to anybody's business but his own.

Anybody been here this afternoon? -“June”

Some and its compound are used:

a) In affirmative sentences;

“But have some tea. I’ve just made it...”

“A woman was arranging some flowers in the hall .Somebody knocked at the door...”

b) In negative sentences where some is affirmative in meaning.

He never writes without making some mistakes.

She never writes on the blackboard without omitting some letter.

But: she never omits any letter when she writes.

c) In interrogative sentences if the question does not refer to some;

Why are there so many mistakes in some of your exercises?

But: Have your written any exercises?

d) In interrogative sentences when offering something or when some refers to a definite portion of the thing spoken of;

“Would you like some coffee?” Mrs. Pickweek

Some wine sir?

“Don’t you want to eat something?”

But: Have you any money? (Money at all)

Any and its compounds are used:

A) In negative sentences:

¹ Longman A.W. “Longman English Grammar ” Practise 1990 New York

He didn't ask me any questions (=he asked me no questions)

I don't know anything about that

Promise you won't tell anyone.

He didn't wish to have any conversation with her

B) In interrogative sentence and indirect questions:

“Is there any gentleman of the name of Tubman here?”

“Do you wish to see anybody?”

“Is there anything you want...?”

C) In affirmative sentences usually with the meaning no matter who or which.

You may take any book you like.

Rip was ready to attend to anybody's business but his own.

I can explain anything to anybody: and I love doing it.

D) In conditional clauses introduced by the conjunction if or when the conjunction is omitted;

If you have any letter, post them now. Had I any spare money. I should buy this book. Should anyone call on me, tell them to wait for me.

Note-Any before a comparative is used as an adverb meaning “at all” some before a numeral is also used as an adverb and has the meaning of “about”.

...is will never be of much used to you any more

...According to their map they had still some seven miles to go.

9. No and none.

No and none are the negative forms of any. The form no is the conjoint form used before a none is the absolute form used when there is no accompanying noun; none is more categorical.

“And had you got no friends?” “Irene” made no reply. He had no more to tell her...None of us dared to speak.

The negative forms of anybody, anyone, and anything are nobody, none, and nothing; does nobody here know Rip van Winkle?

...none knew his name, but really I know nothing of the details.

In colloquial speech the negative form any-not any is more common than the form no; I have no tickets for tonight=I haven't got any tickets for tonight. There are no books on the top shelf= There aren't any books on the top shelf.

10. The pronouns everybody (-one), anybody (-one), somebody (-one), each, other, either and neither do not discriminate gender and therefore difficulties arise when they have to be commended with the personal pronouns he or she and the corresponding possessive pronouns his or her. He (his) is used in such cases;

If anybody calls tell him to wait for me. Everybody must hand in his composition today.

Often, however, he is felt as one sided and we use he or she (his or her); Everybody is to do as he or she likes. Every pupil must hand in his or her composition today.

In colloquial speech the plural they (their) is often used although the pronouns ether, neither, everybody, etc are singular in meaning.

If anybody calls tell them to wait for me. Everybody was in their best looks.

11. Much, many, few, a little are used both as adjective and as noun- pronouns;

The river up to sunning winds in an out through many islands... He had anticipated much pleasure in this afternoon's reading... I had thought little or nothing about my home.

Used as adjective- pronouns they form degrees of comparison.

Many, much and little have irregular forms of comparison;

Many

More- most

Much

Little – less – least

The pronoun few have regular forms: few – fewer – fewest.

After many days on the schooner and after beholding more land and than he had ever dreamed of, he was landed on New Georgia ...

When a noun is preceded by most, no article is used:

a) When the noun is taken in a general sense:

Most sand is yellow. Most leaves are green. Most mistakes are made through carelessness.

b) When the statement is made out a considerable majority: in such a case most is followed by an of phrase.

Most of the parachutists landed safely. The men have been hard at most of the day. Most of the sand is quite wet.

But when the highest degree of some quantity is expressed, most must be preceded by the definite article:

In summer we have the most thunderstorms. The subject requires the most knowledge. The last two days I had the most time.

Much and little are used with names of materials and nouns denoting abstract notions (uncountables) and are singular:

There was little tea left in the canister...it gives me much pleasure to see you well again. She pared more milk into the cup.

Many and few are used with class- nouns (countable) and are plurals; Have you many books? There were many fishing boat along the quay and nets were spread on racks. Few leaves were left upon the trees...

In spoken English we don't find many and much in affirmative sentences without some adverbs such as very, too, so, or rather instead of many in affirmative sentences we use different expression, such as a lot of... lots of...plenty of a great(good) deal of...

Except for a great (good) deal of, they can be used both with class- noun (countable) and with names of materials and abstract nouns (uncountable): a great (good) deal of can be used only with name of materials and abstract nouns (uncountable).

There were lots of interesting books in the bookcase. There was a lot of snow last winter. A great many workers took part in demonstration. There is plenty of such work.

In spoken English much and many used interrogative and negative sentences;
 Have you much work today?
 Has she many English books?
 You haven't much work today.
 She hasn't many English books.

Compare. Have you much work today? – Yes, I have a lot of work today. No, I haven't much work today.

When few and little are used without the article, they have a negative meaning. When they are used with the indefinite article, they have a positions meaning (немного, несколько).

There are few books on history in this library. A few books were on the table. Give me a little bread, she eats little bread. I have little time, I must hurry.

Much and little may also use as pronominal adverbs;
 I read much less than I used to;
 I think much more.

12. One

One is used both as a noun- pronoun and as an adjective- pronoun;
 Used as a noun- pronoun it distinguishes case and number; common case – one, possessive case – one's; plural – ones;

There one could wander unseen. One must do one's duty.
One used as a noun – pronoun refers to persons in a very general way.

Indirect speech one gives the exact words of the speaker, indirect speech one reports in one's own words what somebody has said.

I left for many days like one in a dream.

One may anticipate large results if one never stops working.

Note: - The little one, the young one, means the child: “By the way. I heard you putting the little one's to bed last night”.

Also the young of animals;

The little ones [the ducklings] now toddled along after their mother...

One as an adjective- pronoun is used with the meaning of certain;
One autumn morning I was with my mother in Front Garden...

One is used to replace a noun which has just been mentioned to avoid its repetition. One referring to a preceding noun may stand for both persons and things; Laura was a very different woman from the one who an instant before had spoken so gravely.

Note- in some cases both the indefinite one and the demonstrative that may be used.

Open another drawer, the one (or that) on the left. The prop- word one. One is used as a prop- word after an adjective to avoid the repetition of preceding noun. This use of one is of later development. In modern English the adjective does not indicate number and the addition of one (ones) shows whether we mean singular or plural:

“The problem is certainly a very interesting one”.

Poor little rabbit I'd was such a little one?

The fire- place was an old one. Restriction in the use of the prop- 100 rd one:

A) As the prop- word one originated from the numeral one, it can replace the names of such things as can be counted. There for it can not substitute names of materials and abstract nouns (uncountable).

“Please do drink your tea – it is getting cold.” Shall I get your some fresh? He had known good luck and bad.

B) After adjectives in the comparative and the superlative degree the use of one fluctuates.¹

Instances with one:

The elder ones resumed their happy talk. Instances without one;

Your younger sisters must be very young? – Yes, my youngest is not sixteen. Presently more boys and bigger came in.

Note – one may be used after the first, the next, the last... we had a blazing sunny

¹ Cambell A. “Old English grammar ‘ 1959 Claredon Press , Oxford

day – almost the first one without a cloud for three weeks...

C) One is generally not used when one adjective is contrasted with another; two sorts of pencils- good and bad... I gathered up the apples with which the grass round the three tree-roots were thickly strewn; then I employed myself dividing the ripe from the unripe.

D) One is not used when adjectives followed in enumeration: I have three pencils – a red, a blue and a green.

E) One is not used after a possessive pronoun followed by own: it is not your book, it is my own. His departure only prepared the way for own.

13. The indefinite pronouns: both, all each, either, some, any, someone, anyone, no, none, none, nothing, neither, much, many, few, little, one maybe connected by means of the preposition of with a personal pronoun or a noun: all of us, some etc.

1.2 Personal Pronouns and their main Peculiarities.

These combinations are used syntactically as one member of the sentence (subject or object).

Pronouns may be divided into:

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Personal | 7. Reciprocal |
| 2. Possessive | 8. Indefinite |
| 3. Reflexive | 9. Negative |
| 4. Demonstrative | 10. Generalizing |
| 5. Interrogative | 11. Quantitative |
| 6. Connective | 12. Contrasting |

It must be born in mind, however, that a pronoun may belong to more than one group at the same time¹. The pronoun whose may be treated as interrogative (or connective) and possessive. The pronoun one, one's, oneself may be grouped together as indefinite personal or they may be classified personal or they may be classified separately: one as personal, one's as possessive, oneself as reflexive etc.

The personal pronouns are the nucleus of the class. They are: I (me), thou (thee), he (him), she (her), it (its), we (us), you (you), they (them).

The personal pronouns serve to indicate all persons and thing from the point of view of the speaker who indicates himself or a group of persons including him by means of the personal pronoun – I, we. He indicates his interlocutor or interlocutor by means of the pronouns of the second person- thou (archaic) and you. All other persons or things are indicated by him with the help of the pronouns of the third person he – she (for person). It (for things) they (for both). Though all the personal pronouns are said to be noun pronouns or pronouns. It is only the pronouns of the third person that can be used anaphorically instead of a noun mentioned previously.

¹ Block course in theoretical grammar “Moscow, Высшая школа”, 1983. p 183

E. g. The Clark thing was terse ... he was dead. The personal pronouns of The first and the second person do not in fact replace any names in the sentence I am sure of it the pronouns I is not substitutive for any noun because no noun can be used with the verb am, no noun can denote the first person.

In modern English the personal pronouns have the category of case represented in two member- opposites of nouns. The general meaning of “case” manifests itself in the particular meanings of the “nominative” and “objective” cases.

Singular	Plural
1) I - me	we - us
2) thou – thee	you – you
He - him	they - them
3) she - her	
It - it	

Case of as we know, is a morphological category with syntactical significance. The opposition of the nominative and the objective case is realized syntactically in the opposition of the subject and the object of the sentence. e. g. she asked her.

With nouns it is different because a noun in the common case fulfils the functions of both the subject and the object. The pronouns you and it having only one form for both cases seem to resemble nouns in this respect. But by analogy with the majority of the personal pronouns you and it may be interpreted as having two homonymous forms each.

The pronoun of the second person singular (thou, thee) was formerly used in address as a form of endearment and familiarity and so same to imply contempt and has been ousted by you. Thou are no longer used in every day speech, but still ling as in poetry and elevated prose.

Hail to thee (a skylark) blithe spirit.

Bird thou never wert (Shelley).

You were formerly the objective case. The nominative being ye. Yes is now used only in appeals and exclamation found in poetry and elevated prose.

Nor ye proud, impute to them the fault. Some facts point to serious changes in the correlation between (Grays) the nominative and objective cases taking place in modern English. The objective case pronouns seem to encroach on their case opposition. We observe a peculiar trend which is steadily going ground to use the objective case instead of the nominative when it is separated from the predicate verbal's in me and my wife could have fed her anyhow. It is me (instead of it is I) has established itself as a literary norm it is him, her, etc are still avoided by careful speakers I didn't leave little Sheila. It was her, who left me.

The nominative case is regularly preserved when an unstressed personal pronoun is with a verb as the subject of sentence to show the person and the number of the agent the action of the verb is assonated with.

In B. a. Ilysh's 'opinion, the unstressed personal pronouns in cases like the teacher read, they worked are well advanced on the way towards becoming a kind of verbal prefixes of person and number. B. A. Ilysh is inclined to think that modern English gradually develops a system of the personal pronouns similar to that of modern French in which the unstressed conjoint personal pronouns (pronouns conjoint) se, lu, il, ils directly precede the verb and the stressed absolute personal pronouns (pronouns absolutes) moi, toi, lui, eux, are used in all other cases, including the predicative function (c'est moi it's, me) and cases like Moi et mon pere, nouns aimons... me and my father, we...

However that may be at the present Stage the unstressed personal pronouns can hardly be regarded either as being or as tending to become verbal morphemes similar to the – (e) s morpheme of the third person singular.

1. They may be used not only as subjects. That was he, it is she. John's faller than I.
2. They can be coordinated with the help of conjunctions, which is not typical

¹Ilysh "The structure of modern English" Москва, 1965, Ленинград, p-75

of morphemes. Neither he nor I am likely to be present of the meeting

3. They can be coordinated with nouns. Me and I both ran inside.

4. They have some freedom of distribution I forget. Do I ever forget? I don't easily forget, etc.

Neither can they be treated as word morphemes participating in the formation of analytical words. This is proved by the obsense of a personal pronoun when a verb has a noun subject. This we have Tom came, but not Tom be came, which would be natural, if he came were an analytical word. Thus it seems in keeping with language, facts to treat the unstressed personal pronouns in the nominative case, as independent words. It should be observed that strictly speaking, the personal pronouns have no category of number, I and we or he and they can not be treated as number appositive in as much as they differ from each other not only grammatically, but lexically as well. We are not [f] but rather I and you, I and she, I and they, etc. they is not always he + he, it may be as well mean he + she. You is said to indicate both the singular and the plural. So it ought to be similar to cases like sheep, deer. But it is not 2 – sheep = 1 – sheep + 1 sheep, in other words, sheep pl = sheep sg. + Sheep with you: it is different. You pl. does not always indicate you sng. + you sng. It may indicate you sng. + he, you sng. Since I and we differ lexically, they don't form an oppose me and their number meanings are not grammatical. But I, he, she, it form a group of words whose combinability resembles that of "singular" nouns cf. I, he, she, it John, the student...was (not were)... the pronouns we, you, they on the contrary have the combinability of "plural" nouns, we may than regard the pronouns of the first group "us singular a, tantrum", in other words. The personal pronouns possess oblique or lexicogrammatical meanings of number. Similarly we may speak of the lexicogrammatical meaning of person. The words I, me, we, us (as well as pronouns) (of other groups my, mine, ours, myself, ourselves) are united by their reference to the first person the speaker. Of these only I have grammatical combinability with am. Only the singulars (I, me, my, mine, myself) refer to the

first person alone. The “plurals” include be sickles the first person, reference to the second (I and you) or the third (I and he, she or they) or both.

The words you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves are united by their reference to the second person, the hearer. But all of them (except yourself) may include reference to the third person as well (you and he, she or they) so in fact they are united negatively by not including reference to the first person.

Pronoun is the second person plural you corresponds in Russian language pronouns 2nd person plural (Вы) to conversion with many persons and to one person (civil form), and pronoun 2nd person singular (ты). You translated into Russian language Вы or ты it depends on the context.

“Can you tell me where Miss Trotwood lives?”- не можете ли вы сказать мне, где живет мисс Тротвуд?

“what do you want with her, boy?” - что тебе от нее надо, мальчик?

Personal pronoun in 3rd person singular to differ in case.

Masculine (mujskoy)- he, (on); feminine (jenskiy)- it, (ono).

So in English language noun to designate all animate things, idea and some human things (animals and children) to concern to middle case, all of these to be engaged in pronoun it. Thus pronoun it corresponding in Russian language он, оно, она depends from case to be engaged them noun.

“If we compress gas it become hotter- (yesli mi sjimayem gaz, on stanovitsa goryachim)

A force may act through, or it may act from a distance- (sila mojet deystvovat cherez soprikosnoveniye ili ona mojet deystvovat na rastoyaniye)

A body has a motion of translation- (Telo imeyet pryamolineynuyu dvijeniye, kogda ono dvijetsa v odnom I tom je napravleniye).

Personal pronoun the 3rd person plural they – (oni) to replace by a noun to designate how animate and contaminate things.

Before the eighteenth century people knew hardly anything about gases, they (= people) couldn't ever make up their minds whether they (= gases) were matter at

all.Objective case personal pronoun corresponding accusative and dative cases in Russian language.

They (the unemployed) were picking up bits of orange peel, apple skin and eating them – oni (bezrobotniye) podberali korki apelsinov, kojuru yablok I yeli ix.

He hold me that he had eaten nothing that day. On skozal mne, chto on esho nichevo ne yel segodna.

Pronoun is in objective case with preposition corresponding in Russian language pronoun in oblique cases without preposition and with preposition.

It was impossible for them to get away- им невозможно было уехать.

They rejoiced at their success and I rejoiced with them. – они радовались своим успехам и я радовался вместе с ними.

The use of possessive pronoun.

Possessive pronoun expressed by belonging to and answered the question whose? Чей?

The first form possessive pronoun fulfill in sentence function attribute words (usually with noun). The second form possessive pronoun use independently. Tie without following noun and to project in sentence the function of object.

That's her own business, not yours – это ее дело, не ваше.

Here is your hat, but where is mine? – вот ваша шляпа, а где моя?

In English language there is no special possessive pronoun corresponding Russian pronoun -свой. Russian pronoun свой translated into English language corresponding possessive pronoun depends from person number and case noun the function of subject and help to mean person.

I brought my dictionary – я привез свой словарь.

The student (she) brought her dictionary – студентка (она) принесла свой словарь.

CHAPTER II

The Problem of Parts of Speech and its types

The Latin classification of the parts of speech which included eight word – classes, differed from the system adopted by Modern grammars in that the Substantives and adjectives were grouped together as two kinds of nouns, while the participle was presented as a separate parts of speech ,In the curliest English grammars, where this system was reproduced, the parts of speech, just as in W. Lily’s grammar (W. Bullokar) or words with number and words without number (Ben Jonson) or words with number and case (Butler.)

The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participle, the second-indeclinable, adverbs, preposition, conjunctions and interjections. Ben Jonson increased the number of parts of speech in his classification, introducing the article as the ninth part of speech Later, at the beginning of the 18th century, another scheme of classification appeared in j. Brightland is grammar.

This author reduced the number of parts of speech to four, rejecting the traditional terminology as well, the four parts of speech were names(i.e. nouns) qualities (i.e. adjectives),affirmation(i.e. verb)and particle, which included the four so –called indeclinable part of speech. In this scheme the adjective was classed as a separate part of speech, owing to the influence of the philosophical or universal (logical)grammars of the age, which in their attempts to discover the universal laws of the structure of language pointed out the different between the syntactic function of the two varieties of ‘nouns’. Bright land’s system does not appear to have been very extensively adopted, though it was accepted by a few grammarians of the period; e.g. by D. Faro in this grammar. But since that time the adjective came to be vie wed as a distinct part of speech in English.

The materials presented to the student demonstrate the attempts of the authors of classical scientific grammars. Sweet Jespersen, to introduce some innovations or to improve the conventional classification of the parts of speech.

But Sweet's inconsistencies in applying the three principles of the classification of the parts of speech formulated in these works make at the same time his approach similar to that of Trager and Smith's¹ Outline "...We see now that the only satisfactory definition of a parts of speech must be formal one ;show, for instance, is a noun not because it stands for a thing, but because it can stand as the object of a preposition, because I can form its plural by adding ,because it has a definite prefix, etc²(the article) see also below in keeping with the distributional criteria of the descriptivist's, is the statement that each parts of speech has special form words associated with it.

The selections also demonstrate the article attitude to words the traditional definitions and classifications adopted by Jespersen and Fries*(as well as Robert's Criticism and the new structural definition).

An entirely new approach and method of establishing word – classes in English, according to the methods employed in structural linguistics, may be observed in the selection from "The structure of English" by Fries, in the works of the successors attempts have been made to formulate new definition of the parts of speech/ For Fries refrained from giving definitions of his owns, Francis's definition of the noun the adjective and the adverb are based upon distributional criteria most probably borrowed from Harris's definitions of morpheme classes in the article. From Morpheme to Litterance. They are curiously like some distributional definitions of nouns and adjectives in the Carlicst grammar of English.

A new approach under the influence of Trager and Smith's Outline, may be seen in the extracts from Sled's grammar. The second set of "part of speech "(designated by the terms in-al)nominals, adjectivals verbal's are distinguished by position.

¹ Ch. c. Fill more, The case for case, p 2, 3, 21-25.

² See on the book Л. Л.Июфик,Л.П.Гахолян,А.Г.Поспелова Хрестомания по теоритической грамматике английского языка Ленинград, "Просвещения "1981 г. P 53 – 70

They may be expressed by a single word-group and clause and roughly correspond to the phrases and clauses of traditional grammar to Hari's morpheme sequences to the constituent classes in loc analysis as well as the NP3 transformational grammar. They belong more properly in the domain of syntax, but Sled's text is cited here because the author treats them under the heading of the part of speech classifications.

English grammarian scientist H. Sweet writes the following in this "A new English grammar"¹. As regards their function in the sentence, words fall under certain classes called parts of speech. All the members of each of these classes having certain formal characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of the other classes.

Place of Adjective used as Attributes. Pronouns are rarely associated with adjectives used each of these classes has a name of its own-noun adjective, verb, etc.

Thus, if we compare nouns, such as snow, tree, man, with adjectives, such as big, white, green and verbs, such as melt, grow, speak, we shall find that all nouns, whose meaning admits of if again agree in having plural inflections, but have degrees of comparison (big, bigger, biggest) – which nouns and verbs have not; that verbs have inflections of their own distinct from those of the other (part of speech I grow, he grown, grown) that each part of speech has special form words associated with it (a tree, the tree; to grow, is growing, has grown); And that each part of speech has a more or less definite position in the sentences with regard to other part of speech (white snow, the snow melts. the green tree, the tree is green.)

If we examine the functions of these three classes, we see at once that all verbs are predicative words – that they state something about a subject – word, which is generally a noun (The snow smells): that adjectives are often used as assumptive words (white snow) and so on. If we examine the meaning of the words belonging to the different parts of speech we shall find that such nouns

¹H.Sweet, a New English Grammar, Part 1 p 50 - 52

are as tree, snow, man, is all substance

–words while the adjectives and verbs given above are all attribute words ,the adjectives expressing permanent attributes , the verbs changing attributes or phenomena. We can easily see that there is a natural connection between the functional and meaning of these parts of these parts of speech.

But this connection, though natural is not necessary to state, well as sometimes imply, permanent attributes (the tree is green) and it's sometimes convenient as well as substances.

Thus instead of using of word white as a meaning implying something about snow or any other substances are may wish to ,state or imply something about the attribute itself , as when we say whiteness is an attribute of snow ,or talk of the dawn ling whiteness of the snow. It is easy to see that there is not difference of meaning between whiteness is a attribute of snow and snow is white: the difference between white and the noun whiteness is purely formal and functional– grammatical, not logical .The parts of speech in inflectional languages are divided into two main groups, declinable, that is capable of inflection, and indeclinable, that is incapable of inflection.

The declinable part of speech fall under the tree man division, nouns adjectives, verbs which there have been already described. Pronouns are a special and class of nouns and adjectives, and are accordingly distinguished as noun – pronoun ,such as I , they and adjective-pronouns ,such as my and that in my book , that man.

Numerals are another special class of noun and adjectives; three in three of us is a noun – numeral, in three man an adjective –numeral, verbal's are class of words intermediate between verbs on the one hand and noun and adjectives on the other: they don't express predication, but keep all the other meaning and grammatical functions of the verbs from which they are formed .Noun verbal's from which they are formed. Noun verbal' comprise infinitives such

as go in I will go, I wish to go and gerunds, such as going in I think of going. Adjective –Verbal’s comprise various participles, such as melting and melted in melting snow, the snow is melted.

Indeclinable words or particles comprise adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjection. The main function of adverb, such as quickly and very is to serve as adjunct –words to verbs and to other particles ,as in the snow melted quickly, very quickly, Prepositions, such as of are point to nouns to make them into adjunct-words, as in man of honor where of honor is equivalent to the adjective honorable.

Conjunctions, such as if, are used mainly to show the connection between sentences, as in if you do so, you will repent it. Interjections, such as ah /alas/, are sentence – word expressing various emotions.

For consentence we include nouns in the limited since of the word – pronouns, noun numerals and gerund under the common designation noun-word. So also we include adjectives, adjective-pronouns. Adjective -numeral and participle under the common designation adjective-word.

The term “word” is sometimes used to include the verbal’s, sometimes to exclude them, when necessary, the predicative forms of the verbs as opposed to the verbal’s are included under the term finite verb; thus in I think of going, think is a finite verb as opposed to the verbal (gerund) going, although both are included under the term” verb in its under since.

The following is, then, our classification of the part of speech in English:

noun + words: noun,noun + pronoun,noun-numeral,infinitive,gerund
 declinable adjective+words:adjective,adjective-pronoun,adjective-
 numeral, participles

Verb: finite verb, verbal’s (infinitive, gerund, participle)

Indeclinable (particles) adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we

¹ Curme G.D “ A grammar of English language” Boston New York 1986

distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence of absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding to some extent, to the distinction, between head word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the them being only form words, while the noun words, adjective-words and verbs generally stand to the particles in the relation of head-words.

2.1. The way of translation of personal pronouns from English into Russian

One of the major sources of problems with pronouns is forgetting that a pronoun must usually refer specifically to another word or group of words in the same sentence or a previous sentence. For instance, what does "it" refer to in the following sentence.

Ex: Because some teachers are just in it for the big salaries, it doesn't give much encouragement to students who need a lot of it.

The first "it" refers to the business of teaching, but that is only implied in this sentence. Only the word "teachers" appears, and the first "it" cannot refer to "teachers" because the word is in the wrong form. That is, you cannot say "just in 'teachers' for the big salaries."

The second "it" refers to the entire concept expressed in the first half of the sentence, but that is too vague. Thus this second "it" is grammatically disconnected from the sentence.

The third "it" clearly refers to "encouragement," and that would be okay, except that "it" has already appeared twice in different contexts in this sentence. If you use the same pronoun repeatedly but to refer to different things, the reader gets confused. Sometimes, the way to fix these problems is simply to put back in the specific words the pronouns are supposed to refer to.

Because some teachers just work for the big salaries, students who need a lot encouragement don't get it.

It is important to remember that in most cases, a pronoun must refer to the same form of a word that is actually in the sentence.

Ex My father is an engineer, but I'm not really interested in it. (Incorrect)

Interested in what? You cannot say "interested in engineer," and the word "engineering" does not appear in the sentence. You could write "engineering," or you could write

Ex ... but I'm not really interested in becoming one.

The word "one" does refer specifically to the word "engineer." If you keep this concept in mind--that pronouns must usually refer to something specific--you will avoid many pronoun problems.

Gender

A problem with pronouns that has recently been introduced into the language (as if there weren't enough already) involves gender. We used to write:

A doctor cannot be expected to remember each of his patients by name.

The sentence refers to doctors in general, but some readers may interpret your use of the pronoun "he" to suggest that you think of doctors as male. To correct this, some writers choose to use both the masculine and feminine pronouns:

A doctor cannot be expected to remember his or her patients by name.

but this can get awkward, especially if you use it frequently. Another way to deal with this problem is to avoid it altogether by rewriting the sentence in a way that doesn't require a pronoun at all.

A doctor cannot be expected to remember every patient by name.

But perhaps the easiest solution is to make all general nouns plural.

Doctors cannot be expected to remember their patients by name.

Whatever you do, avoid using the "slashed" terms of he/she, him/her, etc.

A doctor cannot be expected to remember his/her patients by name. (Awful)

When in doubt, remember that the clarity of your sentence should determine the words you choose -- and that it is still acceptable to use masculine pronouns as "gender-neutral". In context, the words "he", "him" and "his" can refer to an unnamed male or female. If using the plural will make your sentence awkward or unclear -- and if you believe your reader won't misinterpret the context -- feel free to use the generic masculine pronoun.

Consistency

¹ www.google.uz

Another major problem with pronouns results from lack of consistency in agreement, number and person. Here's a sentence where the pronoun and the antecedent (the noun it stands for) don't match:

Sometimes a student gets so far behind that they simply can't catch up.
(Incorrect)

"Student" is singular; "they" is plural. You could change "they" to "he or she," but, as mentioned above, that can get awkward. It is usually better to make the noun plural--"students"--and keep the pronoun "they."

The following sentence is inconsistent since it starts with "we" to refer to students and then shifts to "you" and "your." Avoid shifts between "I," "you," "we," "they" and "one."

We get so tired of listening to him drone on about this stuff that you want to fall out of your chair. (Incorrect)

No one should have to take this kind of punishment, nor should we have to do this much work. (Incorrect)

I often enjoy skipping class on Monday morning, but then later you start feeling guilty. (Incorrect)

A related problem involves collective nouns, such as team, committee, family, class, etc. These nouns are usually, but not always, treated as singular. Do not use them both ways in the same sentence.

The team has not won a game yet, but they will have one last chance this week. (Incorrect)

The word "has" indicates that "team" is singular, but the pronoun "they" is plural. The easy way to fix this is to write "but it will have"

Finally, the following words are singular and take singular pronouns: person, each, neither, either, someone, anyone, no one, one and everybody.

Neither of them are willing to take the blame. (Incorrect)

There are too many students for the teacher to give each one the attention they deserve. (Incorrect)

Pronoun Case

Using pronouns in compound constructions often results in confusion between objective and subjective case pronouns.

- His older brother and him liked to ride the porpoises. (Incorrect)
- He and his older brother liked to ride the porpoises. (Correct)
- She is trying to get you and I in trouble. (Incorrect)
- She is trying to get you and me in trouble. (Correct)
- The cops were rude to my brother and I. (Incorrect)
- The cops were rude to my brother and me. (Correct)

In situations such as above, an easy test is to take out the extra noun and see how it sounds. No one would say "The cops were rude to I." If you apply the same test to the following sentences, you will easily recognize the errors.

- Us girls like to hang out at the roller skating rink. (Incorrect) (Us like to hang out)
- The culprits, Harvey and me, were caught at midnight. (Incorrect) (Me were caught)
- He tried to ignore you and I. (Incorrect) (He tried to ignore I.)

Sometimes the choice is not so obvious.

- The coach will have to decide between you and I. (Incorrect)

Taking out "you" doesn't work as a test case in the above example because the word "between" makes no sense with only one object. However, you can substitute the plural:

- The coach will have to decide between us. (Correct)

No one would say "between we." Thus we know the correct pronoun must be in the objective case.

- The coach will have to decide between you and me. (Correct)

In fact, since "between" is a preposition, an object must always follow it. "Between you and I" or "between you and she" is never correct.

Pronoun and verb problems

Use possessive pronouns before gerunds (verbs ending in "ing").

- Him getting the best grade reflected his hard work. (Incorrect)
- His getting the best grade reflected his hard work. (Correct)

Use subjective pronouns with implied verbs.

- My brother is taller than me. (Incorrect)
- My brother is taller than I. (Correct. Implies "taller than I am.")

Who or whom?

To determine when to use "who" or "whom," keep in mind that "who" is a subject, like "he" or "they." "Whom" is an object, like "him" or "them." Test a sentence by making a substitution. If the sentence is a question, answer the question and make the substitution.

- Who/whom is on the phone? He is on the phone. = Who is on the phone? (Correct)
- To who/whom should I give this check? You should give this check to him. = To whom should I give this check? (Correct)
- Who/whom did the Senate confirm for the post? The Senate confirmed him for the post. = Whom did the Senate confirm for the post? (Correct)

Who/which/that

Whenever possible, refer to people as "who" -- not "which" or "that."

- Here is the student that missed all her quizzes. (Awkward)
- Here is the student who missed all her quizzes. (Better).

Strategies for avoiding gender-specific pronouns

Regardless of what you may have been taught in grammar school, the use of masculine third-person pronouns (he/ him/ his/ himself) as generic pronouns is no longer acceptable to many people in business communication. Whatever your own intentions may be, some readers will regard this usage as insulting, insensitive, or at the very least, distracting.

By "generic pronouns" I mean the pronouns we use when the gender of the person referred to is unknown or undefined, a common occurrence in technical writing. The problem is that most people exclusively visualize a male "agent" when they encounter the masculine pronouns in print, even when they are clearly meant to be taken generically. In technical writing, you usually want your readers to visualize themselves as the agent.

Since the purpose of business and technical communication is to convey information with clarity and precision, anything that distracts the reader's attention away from your topic must be looked upon as a problem to be solved. In this article I survey some of the strategies for avoiding "the pronoun problem" that have been suggested over the past few years. The focus here is on the practical; none of these strategies depart from English grammar as it is commonly used today. You can avoid the pronoun problem without being "a linguistic pioneer."

Consider this passage from a machine shop "policies and procedures" manual:

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping his machine calibrated. If he detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, he must notify his supervisor immediately. The supervisor will inspect the WSM, and inform the operator whether he can continue using the machine. "

Ouch! Among its problems, this paragraph contains many examples of gender-specific pronouns. Let's see what can be done with it.

Use compound pronouns

Lately, some writers have been using compound pronouns like "he or she" or "s/he."

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping his or her machine calibrated. If the operator detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, he or she must notify the supervisor immediately. The supervisor will inspect the WSM, and inform the operator whether he or she can continue using the machine."

""The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping his/her machine calibrated. If the operator detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, s/he must notify the supervisor immediately. The supervisor will inspect the WSM, and inform the operator whether s/he can continue using the machine."

While this certainly solves the problem for the writer, many readers will find this kind of writing confusing and awkward. Try reading these paragraphs aloud to see why. How do you pronounce "s/he?" The occasional compound pronoun may get you out of a rhetorical bind, but if we are concerned with clear communication, we have not yet found a complete solution to our problem.¹

Alternate masculine and feminine pronouns

A related strategy is to alternate using masculine and feminine generic pronouns in succeeding paragraphs, sections, or chapters. For example, always use he/him/his in odd numbered chapters, and always use she/her/hers in even numbered chapters. This strategy does promote balance and has sometimes been used to good effect in textbooks, but it doesn't solve the real problem of distracting the reader. Half the time you are asking your male readers to identify with a female agent, and the other half, asking female readers to identify with a male agent.

Even worse, the amount of background "housekeeping" required to ensure that you've applied this strategy consistently is a lot of work, and invites

¹ Gneus H. "The old English language "1991 Cambridge University Press Cambridge

errors when you are doing high volume writing on tight schedules. For this reason alone, I don't recommend using it in the context of technical and business writing.

Use the dreaded passive voice

Some writers evade the problem by using the passive voice. Despite the name, few topics arouse more passion among writers than passive voice. The bane of scientific writing, passive voice can be acceptable in technical and business writing when used sparingly, but attempting to eliminate all gender-specific pronouns by using the passive voice can result in some rather tortured prose:

"Widget stamping machine (WSM) calibration is the responsibility of the operator. If a calibration change of greater than .05% is detected, the supervisor must be notified. After the machine is inspected, the operator will be informed whether it can continue to be used."

I don't know about you, but reading this paragraph makes me tired. I want to ask the writer, "are you talking to me?"

Be specific

One strategy that doesn't always occur to writers is to mention specific people by name. Suppose the supervisor is Dr. X, will always be Dr. X, and you know it and your audience knows it. Why not say so?

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping his machine calibrated. If he detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, he must notify Dr. X immediately. Dr. X will inspect the WSM, and inform the operator whether he can continue using the machine."

This strategy may not work in a manual with a long "shelf life," but in day-to-day communications it is clearer to write "Dr. Petersen," "Ms. Kochanski," or "Mr. Chen," than "the supervising engineer."

Eliminate pronouns

Recasting the sentence to avoid using pronouns altogether sometimes helps, depending on how many times they occur. But you can't simply "cut and paste:"

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping the operator's machine calibrated. If the operator detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, the operator must notify the operator's supervisor immediately. The supervisor will inspect the WSM, and inform the operator whether the operator can continue using the machine."

Hmm. Kind of repetitive. What if just we eliminate the possessives, thus:

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping the machine calibrated. If the operator detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, he must notify the supervisor immediately. The supervisor will inspect the WSM, and inform the operator whether he can continue using the machine."

Now we're getting somewhere! And we can probably assume that once Dr. X determines whether the machine is useable, she'll inform the operator. How about this:

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping the machine calibrated. If the operator detects a calibration change of greater than .05%, he must notify the supervisor immediately. The supervisor will inspect the WSM, and determine whether he can continue using the machine."

Now let's combine some of the strategies we've looked at so far:

"The widget stamping machine (WSM) operator is responsible for keeping the machine calibrated. If its calibration changes by more than .05%, the operator must notify the supervisor immediately. He or she will inspect the WSM, and determine whether it can continue to be used."

Not bad. Direct, concise, with just one wholly appropriate compound, and a bit of passive voice in the last sentence. Notice how much less distracting the compound pronoun "he or she" appears when it is applied to someone other than the main agent, the WSM operator. Try reading this one aloud – it works.

Use second person pronouns

The strategies outlined above make sense if you are writing something like XYZ Company Policies and Workrules Handbook. But when you are writing for

an audience that is expected to do something, why not write as if you were standing at their side, talking to them? Using the second person pronouns (you, your, yours, yourself) works well in instructional or procedural materials. If our sample paragraph was meant to appear in the Widget Stamping Machine User's Guide, I'd recommend recasting like this:

"As the widget stamping machine (WSM) operator, you are responsible for keeping your machine calibrated. If you detect a calibration change of greater than .05%, notify your supervisor immediately. He or she will inspect the machine, and determine whether you can continue to use it."

This paragraph also passes the "read aloud test." Any WSM operator will know what to do, and again, the single compound "he or she" is not so awkward as to be a distraction.

Use third person pronouns

The main reason generic "he" persists, despite its distracting semantic properties, is that it is so easy to apply. Sometimes you simply must use pronouns if your meaning is to be understood clearly. When the gender of the agent is unknown or undefined, I recommend using the third-person plural pronouns (they/ them/ their/ themselves) as generic singular pronouns. This usage is regaining favor in recent years, and offers a single strategy that eliminates the need to coin new forms (s/he) or passivize active sentences.

Translation is an activity comprising the interpretation of the meaning of a text in one language –the source- and in the other language-the target. Translation must take into account a number of constraints, including **context**, the rules of **grammar** of the two languages, their writing **conventions**, and their **idioms**. In translation, both the source language and the target one are important. Sometimes in translation, the translator will face some problems related to the equivalences of source and target languages. Finding a good equivalence is an important job which

¹ Blokh M.Y "a course in theoretical English grammar for students" Moscow 1983

the translator should care about it. One problem which will arise in translation is the translating of the third-person pronoun from Persian –as a source text- into English –as a target text. In this case the translator will face many difficulties.

A text has some features which make the texture of a text. According to Lotfipour-Saedi (1991), the texture of a text can be characterized by textual features of 1) thematization strategies, 2) schematic structure, 3) paralanguage and 4) cohesion. Cohesive relations may be grammatical or lexical (see Haliday, 1989:49). They are classified as 1) reference, 2) substitution, 3) ellipses, 4) conjunction and 5) lexical cohesion. The first four are grammatical and the last one lexical. Lexical cohesion is a relation that exists between or among specific elements of different sentences in a text and is achieved through the vocabulary. In this research the researcher tries to highlight the problems of the translator's hesitation of translating the third-person pronoun, which the gender is not obvious, from Persian to English.

It will focus on translations where the sex of the referent is unknown or, perhaps, not relevant. It is the property of a word according to which people assign male or female generality. It may be worth pointing out that social gender assignment is not bound to any specific occupational title as such, but is dependent on pragmatic and societal considerations. One of these considerations is frequently based upon status. Thus, the status explains why most English speakers today will associate the occupational title secretary with a female, whereas the denomination Foreign Secretary or Secretary of State, more often not will evoke an image of a male. In this research the researcher discusses about the problems of translating the third –person pronoun from Persian into English and from English into Persian. In translating from the source text into the target text, the translators usually will face some problems, which some are related to the cultural differences, some other to the language differences. Furthermore, the source and the target texts have some grammatical differences as well as vocabulary differences. So in these cases, there will be a big gap between the source and the target, and we, as translators should

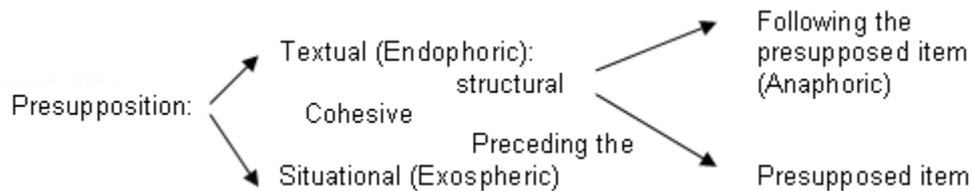
try to fill up the gaps. One of these differences relates to the translation of the personal pronoun.

There are certain elements in every language which make reference to something else within the text or context of situation for their interpretation. These elements, in English are: personals, demonstratives, and comparatives according to Halliday and Hassan. A list of personal pronoun is provided here:

Personal Reference: I, you, he, she, we, you, they. In Persian, there is a tendency to omit the subject pronouns or to use their presupposed noun, because the verb carries an enclitic subject

Pronoun; the list of these enclitic subject pronouns attached to the verb is as follows: ام ، ای ، د ، ایم ، اید ، اند

Reference is a different form of presupposition; that is, they may relate to something else, a presupposed item, within the text (endophoric), or in the context of situation (exospheric). The presupposed item usually precedes them (anaphoric relation), and only in case of reference, it occasionally follows them (anaphoric relation). These relation may be summarized as follow:



A pro-form is a type of function word or expression that stands in for another (expresses the same content as) a word, phrase, clause, or sentence whose meaning is recoverable from the context. They are used to avoid repetitive expressions and in quantification. Pro-forms are divided into several categories according to which part of speech they substitute: A pronoun substitutes a noun or a noun phrase with or without a determiner: it, this. A pro-adjective substitute an adjective or a phrase functioning as an adjective: like that. A pro-adverb substitute an adverb or a phrase functioning as an adverb: how or this way. A pro-verb substitutes a verb or a verb phrase: do. A pro-sentence substitutes an entire

sentence or sub sentence: Yes or (some have argued) that is true. In linguistics and grammar, a pronoun is a pro-form that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase with or without a determiner, such as you and they in English. The replaced phrase is the antecedent of the pronoun. A pronoun used for the item questioned in a question is called an interrogative pronoun, such as who.

Personal pronouns: denotatively defined as a pronoun designating the person speaking (I, we, me, and us), the person spoken to (you), or the person or thing spoken about (he, she, it, they, him, her, and them). (American heritage dictionary of the English language).

Inclusion is one of the problems which will be arising here in which the area of the source word is much wider than that of the target word and sometimes it is the reverse. In this case the source language word is more general and the target language word is more specific or sometimes the target word is more general and the source is more specific. When translating from Persian into English, the more general word like "او" should be chosen as "he" or "she" (Mollahassani, 2001) .In translating the third person pronoun from English into Persian or from Persian into English, this case inclusion will cause problem for the translator.

It is generally accepted that languages can be classified according to whether they show grammatical gender or not .The determining criterion of gender is agreement, and saying that a specific language has, for example, two genders implies that there are two classes of nouns, which can be distinguished syntactically, according to the agreements they take. Thus, the definition of agreement itself becomes important but, in the vast literature on gender, there seems to be no unanimous acceptance of what agreement means (cf. Corbett 1991: ch. 5) and a bone of contention is often whether or not agreement includes the control of anaphoric pronouns by their antecedent, e.g. the husband ... he. According to Corbett, languages in which pronouns present the only evidence for gender are to be included in grammatical gender languages but, as this approach is not generally accepted, he prefers to label them 'pronominal gender systems (1991:

5). In Daphne du Maurier's gothic-like novel *Rebecca*, the protagonists, Maxim and his wife, have invited some relatives to their once-deserted manor in the English countryside. After dinner, Maxim's brother-in-law expresses his admiration for the meal by saying:

Same cook I suppose, Maxim?

There is no later reference in the book to the cook and the sex of this chef de cuisine is never revealed. How does a translator, whose task it is to translate the sentence into a language that shows grammatical gender, cope with this problem? How does he/she know whether the cook is male or female?

When a language that shows grammatical gender marks gender syntactically in a way unavailable to a pronominal gender language, difficulties may arise for the translator as to how to supply the information about the sex of the person in question.

Grammatical gender may cause translator some difficulties when they translate from the source language in which gender is differently grammaticalized compared with the target language. These difficulties may be particularly intensified when grammatical gender coincides with the sex of the referent. Nissen (2002; 27), for example, presents an example in which source language shows grammatical gender syntactically in a way unavailable to the target language, so that, difficulties arise from the translator as to how to convey the information about the sex of the person in question.¹

When grammatical gender is a category with syntactic consequences throughout the grammars, English is said to show 'Semantic gender' i.e. the nouns English speakers refer to 'she' or 'he', assumed to possess a biologically feminine semantic property in the real world. The surprising incongruity reflected by the translations above could lead to the assumption that the assignment of social gender depends on the target language as such, perhaps because of its internal

¹ O. Jepsen "Essentials of English grammar" page 69

structure. However, the next fragment and its translations demonstrate that the target language as such is not crucial, but, rather, the cultural and, hence, ideological assumptions in which the language is 'embedded'.

In languages that are said to have a pronominal gender system, gender is marked solely a personal pronoun (Carbett, 1991; 12). English has a pronominal gender system based on semantic criteria that is reflected only in personal possessive and reflective third-person pronouns. The use of 'she', 'he' and 'it' determined by simple principles, male humans are masculine (he), female human are feminine (she).

Translating the pronouns through languages that encodes gender differently in their pronoun systems has been always problematic, whereas some languages like Persian, do not encode gender distinction in their pronoun system at all.

According to Livia(2003), when translating from a language in which there are many linguistic gender markers into a language which has fewer, either gender information is lost, or it is overstated, where in the original it is more subtly presupposed.

2. 2. The difficulties of personal pronouns in the translation from English into Russian

One of the difficulties in learning English is the pronouns. The main problem in learning pronouns is the use of the pronouns itself. It is important to use pronouns carefully in order to attain clarification and exactness of meaning in writing or in speech. Pronouns are categorized as a subclass of nouns, the use of pronouns are more difficult. Pronouns as a trouble marker properly receive a major attention because they change their form called as case as they perform various functions. Case is a general property of language. Furthermore it seems to be associated with syntactic phenomenon. These changes have caused the same difficulties in applying the correct pronouns in a correct sentence. We know that the form of a pronoun is determined by case in the sentence. This condition will be different if English nouns since English noun only have two changes of form the “in” to indicate possession or number. For Pronouns there are 3 cases, which will change their forms. The table for personal pronouns, they are

Subjective	I	You	HE	She	it	We	They
Objective	Me	You	Him	her	It	Us	Them
Possessive	Your	Your	His	Her	Its	our	Their \

From this explanation we know that the form of pronouns is determined by its case. It is possible to make the learners confused is using them. They will find difficulty in using pronouns, because pronouns has their own grammatical categories which possible make the learner confused in using correct pronouns in the sentence.

Language changes

It is not true that pronouns never change; they just change very slowly. The second person pronouns you/ your/ yours once were used only in the plural, with

/thee/ thy/ thine being reserved for the singular. Except in a small number of instances (you-all, youse) the same pronouns are now used for both singular and plural in English.

All this is to say that the objections to generic "they" seem no stronger than the objections to generic "he." The question is whether you will annoy those who are sticklers for "traditional" grammar, or offend those who think that the engineer/ technician /machinist /physician /nurse /patient you are writing about might as easily be a woman as a man. In the long run, generic "they" will probably become accepted by the majority of English speakers, without causing a major upheaval in the English language.

Take the time to avoid gender-specific language in your business and technical writing. Given the consequences of being misunderstood, it is well worth the extra effort. The strategies outlined here are simple, commonplace, and time-tested. Remember, anything that distracts the reader, detracts from your message.

Holy spirit - and translations using the pronouns "he" and "him"

Questions - You believe that the Holy Spirit is not the third person of a Holy Trinity. Why then do Bibles use the personal pronoun 'He' and 'Him' when referring to the Holy Spirit?

Answer - This is a good question. Yes, some (but not all) translations use personal pronouns when referring to the spirit. But these that do are all translations. The question to really ask is are these pronouns also found in the language of the Greek or the Hebrew manuscripts? In order to answer this question we must get into the language of the manuscripts. If the holy spirit is not a 'third person' of a Trinity addressed as a 'He' or a 'Him' then the Christian concept of a three-in-one God is also an error and the Christian Trinity concept must be discarded.

Following are two translations of the same Scripture passage which take completely opposite positions in their translation of several verses addressing the holy spirit. Such extreme an opposite in translation is a strong indication that one or the other is in error. In these examples we are using the King James Version

(KJV) which uses the personal pronoun 'he,' and the Concordant Literal Version (CLV) which uses the neutral pronoun 'it.' We will quote the applicable part of the sentence of them both, then we will check to see what the Greek actually says.

John 14:16 is a good starting place of such a passage referring to the holy spirit

KJV "... that he may abide with you forever..."

CLV "...that it, indeed may be with you for the eon..."

Greek "...that [it] may remain with you into the age." (it is added for proper English)

Note: the pronoun 'he' is absent from the Greek in the majority of the manuscripts. In a few manuscripts where a pronoun does exist, the pronoun is relative, meaning 'which'. In those few cases, the Greek would read as follows:

Greek alternate "...that which may remain with you into the age."

Conclusion, the passage in the Greek does not contain the pronoun 'he.' The CLV the more accurate translation here, using the neutral 'it' added for proper English. KJV "... because it seeth him not, neither knoweth him: but ye know him; for he dwelleth with you, and shall be in you." CLV "... for it is not beholding it, neither is knowing it. Yet you know it, for it is remaining with you and will be in you." Greek "... because it does not see it, nor know it, but you know it, for beside you [it] abides, and in you shall be. Note: This is a very good example of deceptive translation in the KJV. In the above passage, the word translated "him" from the Greek, in the KJV is the Greek pronoun "auto." This pronoun is not a first person masculine pronoun "him." This pronoun in the Greek is 3rd person neuter and must be translated 'it.' Conclusion, this is absolute proof of deceptive translation in the KJV, and very easy to verify from the Greek with a basic knowledge of the Greek. The KJV is in error, but the CLV is correct and corresponds completely with the language of the Greek manuscripts. If we took the time to analyze all the other passages dealing with the spirit the same or similar defective translation of

¹1997 Scott Herron Portions adapted from The Handbook of Non-Sexist Writing, by Casey Miller and Kate Swift

Scripture will be found. In the above passages, as in most of the other passages referring to holy spirit, the pronoun is absent, or if present, it is a relative pronoun like who, which, that, and the neutral, where the word 'it' is required. There are many other cases in the KJV and other deceptive translations, where the definite article 'the' has been inserted in the English translation where the passage is referring to holy spirit, when the article 'the' does not appear in the Greek text. Inserting the article 'the' in the text when it does not exist in the Greek, can change the entire meaning of the passage; for example, KJV "... And the angel answered and said unto her, The Holy Spirit shall come upon thee," CLV "... And, answering, the messenger said to her, "Holy spirit shall be coming on you,..." Greek "...And answering, the messenger said to her, "holy spirit shall be coming upon you,..." In the above KJV example, the definite article is absent from the Greek text, and added by the translators, also added was the capitalization (indicating a specific person, specific place, or specific thing). The CLV is correct and corresponds with the Greek text, by not adding anything in translation. The incorrect use of the 'definite article' preceding 'holy' by the KJV is an attempt to make 'holy spirit' a definite person, when 'holy spirit' is actually indefinite and not 'specific' in the Greek.

There are also some examples where the definite article 'the' is used in the Greek when referring to holy spirit, as in 'the holy spirit,' indicating a specific spirit, or Holy spirit. But, without exception, when 'the' is used it is always 'in the neutral' inferring that 'the' spirit is properly considered 'it,' (without specific gender). In some cases, the article 'the' in the Greek is not distinguished, and can be either masc. or neut. In the majority of passages, holy spirit is an 'it,' and does not have masculine gender, nor can gender be properly applied. Gender is added by translators to give personality to the power and influence of holy spirit, but this cannot be supported by the manuscripts and must be discarded as error, or deception.

Finally, The word 'Holy' in our English Bibles translates 'set-apart' in the Greek. The word 'spirit' in our English translations, is from the Latin 'wind, breath' and translates the Greek 'pne-u'-ma' which literally means 'blow effect, wind, breath, to breath.' It is the Greek word from which we get the English word 'pneumatic(s)' having to do with air. By Scriptural implication like air, 'pne-u'-ma' or spirit, is the invisible intangible power of action, intelligence, and life. When used with, and/or referring to Yahweh (God) who IS spirit (John 4:24) it is His celestial power and influence as manifested in His invisible, intangible operations. When referring to the terrestrial, the word spirit must be considered in strict context of its use. The word can be used in many diverse applications in Scripture, as spirit of truth, spirit of error, deceptive spirit, gentle spirit etc.,

When referring to 'holy spirit' as proceeding from or of the Father, 'it' is His (Yahweh's) celestial Almighty Supreme Power Authority and influence over His Creation, as manifested in His continual invisible, and intangible operations, and His complete control. A correct Scriptural understanding of holy spirit will confirm that there is only 'one' Set-Apart Spirit, and that Spirit is the Almighty Yahweh. There is no such entity in the Scriptures as a separate Holy Spirit person apart from the Father Yahweh, or such an entity as 'the Holy Spirit, the third person of a Trinity.' The Scripture is very clear, the Father Himself is the Only Holy Spirit!

This is just an example, without going through each and every case, but the same will apply in many if not most of the other uses of spirit and in reference to holy spirit in the Scriptures.

It is not our intent, or the intent of the Web-site to evangelize, and we are not an evangelistic Assembly. We do not believe in evangelism, but we do and will present the truth according to Scripture. We are a teaching Ministry. Those who truly seek will find regardless of what we do. For those who do ask us we are ready to provide an answer, for the hope that is within us 1 Peter 3:15.

Pronoun and verb problems

Use possessive pronouns before gerunds (verbs ending in "ing").

- Him getting the best grade reflected his hard work. (Incorrect)
- His getting the best grade reflected his hard work. (Correct)

Use subjective pronouns with implied verbs.

- My brother is taller than me. (Incorrect)
- My brother is taller than I. (Correct. Implies "taller than I am.")

Who or whom?

To determine when to use "who" or "whom," keep in mind that "who" is a subject, like "he" or "they." "Whom" is an object, like "him" or "them." Test a sentence by making a substitution. If the sentence is a question, answer the question and make the substitution.

- Who/whom is on the phone? He is on the phone. = Who is on the phone? (Correct)
- To who/whom should I give this check? You should give this check to him. = To whom should I give this check? (Correct)
- Who/whom did the Senate confirm for the post? The Senate confirmed him for the post. = Whom did the Senate confirm for the post? (Correct)

Who/which/that

Whenever possible, refer to people as "who" -- not "which" or "that."

- Here is the student that missed all her quizzes. (Awkward)
- Here is the student who missed all her quizzes. (Better)

Some of the most common mistakes people make when writing or speaking have to do with pronouns. A pronoun, of course, is a word that takes the place of a noun. If we didn't use pronouns, a sentence might look like this: As Mr. Perkins entered the conference room, Mr. Perkins thought to Mr. Perkins, "These meetings

are such a waste of Mr. Perkins' time." It is almost exhausting to read even a short sentence worded this way! But substitute some of the nouns with pronouns and it looks like this: As Mr. Perkins entered the conference room, he thought to himself, "These meetings are such a waste of my time." The second sentence is much easier to read and comprehend, right? Here is a brief refresher course on the different types of pronouns, how they are often used incorrectly, and how they should be used.

Types of Pronouns

Personal pronouns substitute for people or things: you, I, me, him, her, he, she, it, us, them, we, they.

Example: I went to San Diego last weekend.

Possessive pronouns indicate ownership or possession: yours, mine, ours, hers, his, theirs.

Example: "The blue notebook is mine, yours is the green one," Susan said to Tom.

Demonstrative pronouns point out a specific person or thing: this, that, these, those.

Example: These shoes are much more comfortable than my old ones.

Relative pronouns show a relationship between one part of a sentence and another: who, whom, that, which, whose. Use who, whom or whose to refer to people, and which or that to refer to animals or things.

Example: The woman in the green dress, whom I've known for years, is in charge of the campaign.

Example: The living room, which has floor to ceiling windows, gets the most sunlight.

Reflexive pronouns are used to emphasize a noun: yourself, myself, herself, himself, itself, yourselves, themselves, ourselves. In the following example, the pronoun himself emphasizes the noun George.

Example: George asked himself, "What would I do in the same situation?"

A Few Common Mistakes

Some of the most common pronoun mistakes made in conversation have to do with using two personal pronouns together. Incorrect: Her and her friend went roller skating.

Try breaking this sentence down into two sentences that separate the actions of the two people:

Her went roller skating.

Her friend went roller skating.

You would not say "her went roller skating," you would say "she went roller skating." When you break it down in this way, you can see, and hear, the correct way of saying this sentence.

Correct: She and her friend went roller skating.

What about this example?

Incorrect: For Annie and I, planning the trip to Japan was almost as exciting as the trip itself.

To determine whether to use I or me in a sentence like this, take out Annie and, leaving this: For I, planning the trip to Japan was almost as exciting as the trip itself. You would not say for I, you would say for me, and that is how you say it when you add the words Annie and back in:

Correct: For Annie and me, planning the trip to Japan was almost as exciting as the trip itself. Readers become confused when a pronoun could refer to more than one noun, as in the following: "Cleaning products can be harmful to young children. Make sure you keep them in a locked cabinet."

Should we lock the children in a cabinet, or the cleaning products? Common sense tells us that it is the cleaning products that should be locked up, but always be aware that your writing can be misunderstood when a reader is forced to guess what the pronoun refers to.

Incorrect: When Tim set the bottle on the glass-topped table, it broke.
What broke, the bottle or the table?

Correct: The bottle broke when Tim set it on the glass-topped table.

One mistake that people often make is to use a reflexive pronoun in the place of a simple personal pronoun.

Incorrect: Please let Joan or myself know when you leave the office.

Correct: Please let Joan or me know when you leave the office.

Again, taking out the words Joan or allows us to hear the correct way to speak or write this sentence.

The pronouns it and they are often used incorrectly, both in speech and in writing. Always use it or they to refer to a specific noun, and not to convey a general idea.

Incorrect: It says in the article that there are 90 calories in one small banana.

Correct: The article states that there are 90 calories in one small banana.

Incorrect: In California, they have strict auto emissions regulations.

Correct: California has strict auto emissions regulations.

This is just a small sampling of the available information on pronouns and how to use them. A good grammar guide, such as Diane Hacker's *Rules For Writers*, can be purchased at any bookstore, and is an invaluable resource for students, writers, or anyone interested in writing or speaking well.

CONCLUSION

The summaries all the said above we can say that pronouns are included to the list of notional parts of speech as they have their own function in speech.

There are 12 types of pronouns and we have paid more attention to personal pronouns among them.

1. The Personal pronouns are the nucleus of the class. They are: I (me), thou (thee), he (him), she (her), it, you, we (us), they (them).

The personal pronouns serve to point of view of the speaker who indicates himself or a group of persons including him by means of the personal pronouns of the first person – I, we. He indicated his pronouns of the second – thou (archaic) and you. All other persons or things are indicated by him with the help of the pronouns of the third person – he, she (for persons), it (for things), and they (for both). Though all the personal pronouns are said to be noun pronouns or pronouns, it is only the pronouns of the third person that can be used anaphorically, instead of a noun mentioned previously.

E.g. the dark thing was terse...he was dead.

The personal pronoun of the first and the second person don't in fact replace any names in the sentence I am sure of it the pronoun I is not substantive for any noun because no noun can be used with the verb am, no noun can denote the first person.

In modern English the personal pronouns have the category of case represented in two member opposites of nouns. The general meaning of "case" manifest itself in the particular meaning of the "nominative" and "objective" cases.

Singular	Plural
1) I - me	we - us
2) thou – thee	you – you
He - him	they - them
3) she - her	
It - it	

Case, as we know, is a morphological category with syntactical significance. The opposition of the nominative and the objective case is realized syntactically in the opposition of the subject and the object of the sentence.

E.g. she asked her.

With noun it is different because a noun in the common case fulfils the functions of both the subject and the object. The pronouns you and it having only one form for both cases seem to resemble nouns in this respect. But by analogy with the majority of the personal pronouns you and it may be interpreted as having two homonymous forms each.

The pronoun of the second person singular (thou, thee) was formerly used in address as a form of endearment and familiarity and so came to imply contempt and has been ousted by you. Thou are no longer used in every day speech, but still linguist in poetry and elevated prose.

Hail to thee (a sky lark) blithe spirit.

Bird thou never wert

(Shelley)

You were formerly the objective case. The nominative being ye. Yes is now used only in appeals and exclamations found in poetry and elevated prose.

Nor ye proud, impute to them the fault.

(Gray)

Some facts point to serious changes in the correlation between the nominative and objective case taking place in modern English. The objective case pronouns seem to encroach on their case opposites we observe a peculiar trend which is steadily gaining ground to use the objective case instead of the nominative when the pronouns are used predicatively or when it is separated from the predicate verb as in *me* and *my* wife could have fed her anyhow. It is *me* (instead of it is I) has established itself as a literary norm it is him, her, etc are still avoided by careful speakers. I didn't leave little Sheila. It was her who left me.

The nominative case is regularly preserved when an unstressed personal pronoun is with a verb as the subject of the agent the action of the verb is associated with.

In B. A. Ilysh's opinion, the unstressed personal pronouns in cases like he, they, worked are usually advanced on the way towards becoming a kind of verbal prefixes of person and number. B. A. Ilysh is inclined to think that modern English gradually develops a system of the personal pronouns. Similar to that of modern French in which the unstressed conjoin personal pronouns (pronouns conjoint) *je, tu, il, ils*. Directly precede the verb and the stressed absolute personal pronouns (pronouns absolutes) *moi, toi, lui, eux*. Are used in all other cases. Including the predicative function (*c'est moi* – it's, me) and cases like *Moi et mon pere, nous aimons...*

Me and my father, we...

However that may be at the present stage the unstressed personal pronouns can hardly be regarded either as being or as tending to become verbal morpheme similar to the – (e) s morpheme of the third person singular.

1. They may be used not only as subjects. That was he, it, is she. John is taller than I.
 2. They can be coordinated with the help of conjunctions, which is not typical of morphemes. Neither he nor I am likely to be present at the meeting.
 3. They can be coordinated with nouns. Ma and I both ran inside.
 4. They have some freedom of distribution I forget. Do you ever forget? I don't easily forget.
1. The actuality of this problem is that pronouns have their own specific peculiarities and to differentiate them is one of up to date problems in grammar.

2. The main purpose of the work is to state pronouns a Notional Parts of speech and too definite the meaning, form and function of personal pronouns in modern English.
3. The following tasks have been solved in the paper:
 - To study the position of pronouns as notional parts of speech.
 - To characterize the classification of pronouns.
 - To point out the main peculiarities of personal pronouns in English language.
4. There different methods have been used in the qualification paper as; analytical, comparative methods.
5. The theoretical and practical value of the work is that achieved results can be used in delivering lectures and particle lessons on English.

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