



## **The Places of the Parts of Speech in Modern English**

*Allakhverdiyeva Farida Muhammadali*<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Azerbaijan University of Languages, Baku, Azerbaijan.*

---

### **ABSTRACT**

The meaning, form and functions of words that make up the vocabulary of a language based on the grouping of semantic, morphological and syntactic characteristics of words, by which different groups are organized and they are considered to be as parts of speech. In Modern Linguistics, parts of speech are classified differently: basic (autosemantic) parts of speech: noun, adjective, number, pronoun, verb, adverb; auxiliary (synsemantic) parts of speech: the particle, conjunction, preposition; exclamatory, imitative and vocative words.

Keywords: the approaching of parts of speech, auxiliary (synsemantic) parts of speech, imitative and vocative words, classification parts of speech, parts of speech, classification of verbs.

---

### **Introduction**

The history of teaching parts of speech is very old. According to Plato, according to ancient Greek scholars, who distinguished nouns from verbs in the 5th century BC, the sentence was formed by the connection of these nouns with verbs.

In Alexandrian grammars, the number of parts of speech was increased to eight (noun, verb, adjective, article, pronoun, adverb, union, union). In Alexandrian grammars, parts of speech have been interpreted morphologically, not syntactically. In ancient linguistics, the classification of parts of speech was actually subject to logic: parts of speech were equal to members of a sentence that were considered equal to members of a sentence, hence logical categories. In any case, they differed in their grammatical forms and meanings [1].

Until the mid-19th century, parts of speech in linguistics were interpreted as logical grammatical categories. In the 19th century, linguistics in general and morphology in particular developed. During this period many and different languages are studied, and the question arises: on the basis of what criteria should be classified parts of speech, are there differences between parts of speech in different languages, and if so, who are they? At that time, the main criterion of parts of speech was the morphological principle. An approach to the problem of parts of speech from this formal morphological point of view was made by F.Ch. This is typical of Fries's research. He regarded parts of speech as «formal groups of words» and the main criterion was whether they had a spoken form or not. In that regard, he grouped the words as follows: words that meet, words that are classified, words that do not meet and are not classified. [2]

---

### **Aim:**

In this period, in addition to the morphological criterion, the distinguishing of parts of speech took into account the logical-syntactic criterion. Syntactically, words with the same sentence member were considered the same part of speech. For example, all defined words were taken as adjectives. The formal morphological criterion is not a satisfactory criterion for determining parts of speech. Because when approaching parts of speech solely on the basis of morphological form, a number of words lacking such a form (adverb, adverb, the particle) remain outside the scope of the study [3].

Morphological features of parts of speech may partly help distinguish these parts of speech from each other, but they are not considered a common criterion for their identification. These morphological (speech) traits may be more or less applicable to the division of parts of speech only in morphologically developed languages (Indo-European, Semitic, Turkic).

In Turkic languages, including Azerbaijani, the category of adverbs is usually studied and learned on the basis of a syntactic function, semantics or semantic morphological features of a word in a sentence. The syntax principle arose from the mechanical application and translation of the grammatical laws of European languages into Turkish. According to this grammatical principle, all adjectives in front of a verb are also adverbs, regardless of their place in a sentence. So, the syntax principle actually eliminates the grammatical boundary between adverb and adverb (morphology and syntax) [4].

Research methodology. According to the semantic principle applied in the study of adverbs, adverbs are all simple words expressing quality, feature, time, place of action or action regardless of the place of treatment in a sentence: for example, early, now, forward, together, up and so on. d. Supporters

of this principle consider nouns all root words that they refer to adverb. Therefore the semantic principle does not allow to reveal the true nature of adverbs in our language [5].

Recently, there has been a tendency to study adverbs in Turkish according to semantic morphological principle. This principle emphasizes not the place of a word in a sentence, but its vocabulary and its processing. This new principle gives more opportunity to identify adverbs among other independent parts of speech.

The system of parts of speech is historical. This system of human consciousness. It arose and developed in connection with the development of human thinking. It's about forming and expressing ideas is an important language tool. Features and qualities of different subjects as human thinking develops. There was also a need to speak out. New and new as thinking becomes clearer Words and means of expression had to be used. Understanding the objective world adverbs appeared at a higher stage of the creation process. For example, in the epic «Kitabi-Dada Gorgud» very few adverbs [6].

One aspect that proves that adverbs came later is consists of different parts of speech. So there are other parts of speech from them adverbs were formed. For example, from nouns (Səhər açıldı-Səhər gələrsən, Axşam düşdü-Axşam gələrik), adjectives (Yaxşı tələbə-Yaxşı oxuyur), numbers (Birdən iki çoxdur-Birdən dedi), verbs (Qaçaraq getdi-Qaçaraq getdi). Adverbs have the same grammatical meaning as adjectives has a static sign. But the adverb sign is direct, indirect indicates the sign sign (çox gözəl, tez-tez danışmaq, daha qırmızı və s). By their origin adverbs come from adjectives (yaxşı, gözəl, zərif) and nouns words formed from words - nouns and pronouns. Adverbs on one side action, that is, the verb sign (tez-tez gedir, bərk qaçır), on the other side began to express the sign, that is, the adjective (çox yaxşı, ən uca).

Formation and development of adverbs as an independent part of speech in another speech is closely related to the development of details. This is the grammatical category of the language.

regularly new words, phrases and idioms in the process of learning it is enriched and developed by expressions; words belonging to other parts of speech, phrases, expressions, even morphological features first lexicogrammatical it weakens, partially or completely losing its meaning but another speech. Words separated from their parts and converted into adverbs are unstable and in exchange that it is formed as a root word that does not decay into constituent parts acts as a word denoting the notion of an object defining a member of a sentence or performs the function of attachment, and in some cases even from the discharge of adverbs goes and is part of the third part of the speech [7].

In modern linguistics, words have form, meaning, connection and basic structure. Linguists divide them into different groups English B. S. Khaimovich and B. I. Rogovskaya [8] engaged in the grammar of this language correct the form, function, meaning, link and basis of existing words they are divided into fourteen groups according to [9,10,11]: 1. Noun name; 2. Adjective; 3. Pronoun; 4. Number; 5. Verb; 6. Adverb; 7. Situational words; 8. Modal words; 9. Prepositions; 10. Emphasizers; 11. Preposition; 12. Exclamations; 13. Articles; 14. Answer words (yes, no) [9, 15]. Another linguist, B. Ilyish, spoke his words in English and classifies functions by form, value, and divides them into twelve groups: 1. Noun; 2. Adjective; 3. Pronoun; 4. Number; 5. Verb; 6. Adverb; 7. Declarative words;

8. Modal words; 9. Prepositions; 10. Fasteners; 11. Habits; 12. Exclamations.[14]. We believe that the most appropriate classification is Professor Sweet H.A was given has lexical meaning, morphological sign and syntactic words. According to its function it is divided into the following parts of speech: 1. Noun name; 2. Adjective; 3. Pronoun; 4. Number; 5. Verb; 6. Adverb; 7. Situational words; 8. Modal words; 9. Exclamation; 10. Article; 11. Preposition; 12. Connector; 13. Article.

Thus, parts of speech can be divided into three groups: 1) the main parts of speech; 2) Parts of freedom of speech; 3) Auxiliary parts of speech.

The first group includes nouns, adjectives, numbers, pronouns, verbs, adverbs and words denoting the state; exclamatory and modal words for the second group; the third group includes articles, prepositions, unions and includes the order.

Functions, meanings of parts of speech in modern English, they differ from each other in the means of expression in a sentence. Main parts of speech has an independent communicative function, answers a certain question of the offerexpresses certain members and becomes an independent member of the proposal. In addition, the main thing parts of speech have certain grammatical categories.

Among the main parts of speech, which differ in their features, adverbs are one of the outstanding and extensive parts of speech. The problem of adverbs is one of the most controversial problems in linguistics. So from the ages since then the concept of adverbs has made all linguists think, and to what group of speech refers adverb? Whether it belongs to parts, how many species it belongs to, and so on. Disputes between linguists led to disagreements and arguments. Poutsma H.A included adverbs in a group of words he didn't know and called him a «particle». Curme G.O also sometimes includes an adverb in a group with pronouns, using it as a preposition, are considered the same as unions and exclamations in terms of meaning, form and function. And, like H. Sweet, he called adverbs like «particles». But to accept this idea would be a big mistake. As we know, adverbs are all basic parts of speech. Has a communicative function, answers a certain question, is part of the sentence which expresses complexity, becomes an independent member of the sentence and represents a certain grammar has a category.

The Russian language, which later took into account all these grammatical features of adverbs

linguists: A.I.Smirtinsky, B.A.Ilyish, V.Y.Plotkin, L.S.Barkhudarov [10] they include the adverb in the group of the main parts of speech. Adverbs to the group of the main parts of speech this classification has since been supported by other linguists and approved.

The English language is characterized by a historical approach to the study of language grammar allows you to monitor transitions and events. An example of this as a dual infinitive having characteristics of both a noun and a verb character can be shown. Such crossings and border cases are many.

attracted the attention of linguists. There are a lot of words that refer to complex in this case they have a certain set of grammatical characters. This group on the periphery other degrees and words - they are only grammatical separate some characters, but also other grammatical additions may also belong to them. Analysis of such boundary events, namely after, before, because the syncretism review is the subject of this study.

It would be appropriate to start with a distinction. Syncretismus - (Greek word syncretismus means union) - linguistics in the context of different grammatical categories and forms in the same form means identification. The unit which gave rise directly to syncretism certain shifts between form and content (diversification) event.

Syncretism is inherent in all levels of language and speech. Content plan

syncretism is usually supported by a syncretism of the expression plan, because in language is the appropriate wording for the available synthesizing property. Some scholars attribute the concept of syncretism only to the paradigmatic of language and they attribute it to irreversible systematic changes in the language development process. Their to the syntagmatics of language and the living processes of the use of linguistic units related pollution differs from diffusion [14]. From this definition it can be concluded that syncretism in linguistic research often referred to as grammatical memoirs or literally grammatical. They explain it by the multifunctionality of the form. As you know, modern question of grammatical homonyms in linguistics is sufficiently studied. There were no grammatical homonyms - these are the words themselves. They say that unions differ grammatically, keeping this form matter. Thus, ambiguity in lexicology and at the same time distinguish homonymy, in grammar ambiguity and homonymy essentially are synonymous [13].

Among word-forming affixes in English morphology homonymies, intra-class homonyms of nouns, verb forms, groups of words (classes) - adverbs and other parts of speech, unions, exclamations and degree of homonymization between adverbs in linguists research illuminated.

Homonymy at all levels above the phonological level of the language.

Grammatical homonymization in modern English when manifesting characteristic, perhaps similar to problems caused by lexical homonyms insufficiently studied due to certain theoretical difficulties. Both types of homonymy have similar features: Overlap at the material (sound) level of units having different values. For all (almost all semantic components in grammatical homonyms can also intersect); Both types of homonymy are divergence and convergence processes. They are formed by influence (divergence - as a diachronic process increases diversity in the language system, units. Educate independent invariant entity units with options

conversion or creation of new versions of existing units occurs as a result; convergence - a series as a historical process language system as a result of the elimination of variant and invariant differences represents a decrease in diversity). Homonyms coexist with multivalued units exist [4].

If we consider the problem of grammatical homonymy, then they confront each other. An approach may be identified by: Atomic-semantic approach (B.K. Ilyish). Functional-semantic parts of speech independent (basic) and service (functional) words according to their characteristics. They are separated. Form-system approach (L. Bloomfield, A.I. Smirtinsky, L.S. Barkhudarov). Speech parts that change and do not change according to formal (morphological) features and they are divided into groups.

Ilyish believes that the form remains common and for all occasions different being able to form an invariant meaning expressed in context. This

when this is not possible, grammatical homonyms of explicitly overlapping forms should be accepted. From all this, Mauler concludes that according to Ilyish's approach, homonyms and polysemia are not ontological concepts. It is a conditional product of the research position, that is, these concepts rejected his «objectivity»[4].

The second concept is that recognition of homonymy is something which depends on the formal characteristics of the words included in the microsystem. Barber Ch. notes that same speech on the diversity of forms of homonymy in the group of words included in the if there are differences, only in this case speak of the existence of these forms may be justified. The principle of analysis of forms taking into account systematic connections allows that the identification of words marked with homonym is very specific be made.

These two approaches to grammatical homonymy differ not only from each other, they also lead to diametrically opposite results. This is a striking example can be seen in a number of remarkable syncretisms. Study the treatment of selected syncretisms «after», «before», «since». The second principle is more convenient because each of these three words is invariant.

They are words, but they can be both the main part of speech (adverb) and

also service (apron and folder). Materiality of words as a criterion of homonymy. it is accepted that it belongs to different parts of speech, while retaining its identity. That is, if the word belongs to a class of two or more invariant nouns, then it can be concluded that grammatical homonyms appeared under the cover of sound happens. The class refers to those words that have no sign of homonymy. They have created an environment (background) for separating homonymic units.

Speaking of grammatical homonymy, homonymy this degree and It is important to remember the concept. In fact, these are relationship homonyms is the quantitative indicator of branching [12]. Thus, the degree of homonymy in the absence of homonymic relations is zero. Providing information about equality about conclusion of homonyms in the word class means that the degree is equal to one, entering two classes - second degree and so on. Syncretism before and after that, the second homonymy are tokens with a degree (adverb-apron-union). With several examples let's demonstrate this:

Emeralds may have been sold before the revolution (before - preposition).

You remember what picture was before (before - adverb).

It was a few seconds before the horror of my situation began to surface (before - conjunction).

He is a strange man, and after the scandals became even more strange (since- preposition).

This house was built for the Bastide. Since then it had Bastides.

(because - adverb)

I haven't seen you in a long time (since - conjunction).

Conversely, the token after has a third degree of homonymy, that is, he can speak in the language as adverb, adjective, union and preposition:

How strong were all her feelings after that (after the proposition)!

I think I know what he wants (after - adverb)

After she gave up and drove the car home, Michael realized that she picked up (after - conjunction).

You will regret this years from now (after - adjective).

As we see from examples, with its place in the supply and its syntax function

they are different. Thus, the adverb with or before does not depend on the respective preposition. They are different in value, therefore are considered members of the proposal and they are under stress. The preposition always connects with the dependent part of the sentence: from the adverb then the relative noun (or its equivalent) is never put:

- ✓ We have never met since (since – adverb)
- ✓ We have never met since that day (since - preposition)
- ✓ He had told me about that picture before (before – adverb)
- ✓ I will not see him before next week (before - preposition)

Prepositions and conjunctions are also very similar as proposals, both proposals they served as a combination of members or suggestions.

Proximity is the mixing and mutual influence of these two classes of words,

which in turn led to problems of differentiation. English is known to have an analytical type of grammatical organization. It is characterized by the absence of formative affixes, which, in turn, with blurring the exact boundaries between lexicogrammatical word classes specified, including fastenings and aprons. In the grammatical literature there is a big difference between these two parts of speech in confusion. An example is the monograph of Kaushanskaya [10]:

But know that from the moment of the original omission true freedom is lost. The author considers that in this sentence as being a union.

Ten years have passed since we started the business:

In the sentence he means aprons. However, it is generally accepted that first

In the first sentence, it's a pretext for us, and in the second sentence, it's a union. The most common point of view in linguistics is that formulated by Peterson .

Anglicists may disagree with Peterson's proposal because according to him, he is not always done in English. So, for example: In English, the corresponding sentence can be entered and using an preposition:

That depends entirely on how many skeletons you have sideboard.

A derivative union that combines nonverbal sentences in English.

Suggestions can be found:

It was like Kennedy said. Stephanie was there with Gurney.

Sam's new job was routine; he was back in the park and after Mr Baggins.

In a simple sentence, subordinate unions were very close to preposition:

The same day, at noon, an elderly gentleman left the hired wagon.

The coach at the post office and, naming his name, asked for a letter

He turned to himself and ordered him to stay until he was demanded.

He starts curfew and goes to the first rooster.

In our view, all these mistakes and words are traditional for parts of speech certain contradictions in the classification as well as the functions, relationships and the obvious differences in intonation prove that we have different functions not a word (for example, after), we meet homonyms:

Three months after all my troubles

I never saw him after (after - adverb)

I never saw him after he got off the train (after... conjunction)

View grammatical categories introduce the concept of «Deixis», to which we will often refer during Naturally every statement in a language sounds in a certain place and at a certain time: it is defined is related to the space-time situation. Specific person (speaker). Sounds and is usually addressed to another specific person (listener). Let's count that in typical cases the speaker and the listener are different (of course, it is possible several participants in the process) and again in typical cases both parties they are in the same space-time situation. On the contrary, in atypical cases let the speaker talk «himself» or on the phone. Then let's consider it typical the utterance is related to a certain object or person (which comes from the speaker or differ from the listener and, on the contrary, coincide with one of them). Have you finished? - Have you finished? Has he finished? Is he already there complete?"

Subject or person connected with discourse, we will call «subject of discourse». So the utterance itself has a number of lexical units relating to objects and persons are «subjects of discourse».

Deixis (denoted by the Greek word for grammatical theory scientific concept simply means «indication») the place of pronunciation and entered to describe the «directive» property of the language associated with time

Done. So-called «personal pronouns» (I «I», You «you, you», He «he», etc.) the value of the units is defined by reference to the «deictive coordinates».

they form only one class of language elements. Cut the Deixis component

This is another example of the formation of elements with adverbs of place and time «here», there «there» (near the speaker, «far from it»), now

«now», «then» («during speech», «at other times than speech»).

These are just the most. The obvious examples were that the grammatical structure of a language is a typical space-time of speech. May reflect the situation.

The typical situation of speech is egocentric: the speaker's role in speech consists of one in the transition to another shifts the «center» of the operating system. («I» for self-reference of each speaker, «You», «You». is used to instruct the listener). The speaker seems to say this every time is at the center of the situation. It should also be noted that participants in a speech situation are only in the role of the speaker and listener (i.e. say the role) they do not perform. Also, they have a certain linguistic point.

from their point of view, they may have appropriate status relationships with each other (parents-children, master-servant, teacher-student). Status relations to interactions with the roles of participants in the situation (speaker and listener). They obey, and in some languages even surpass them.

Related to this are «notation pronouns» (for example, it's boo, it's oh, these

they, these are verbs) and «situational» adverbs of the place (for example, here «here», «there») can be remembered. It is clear that these forms are faces they contain an element even clearer that they are of the nature of «certainty», not of «uncertainty» (The «indeterminate article», «some, some» or «another, another», somewhere») [16] and distinguish them from each other in the category of «proximity». Perhaps the most obscure moment is «proximity». Actual designation of category, usually using category «person».

Related to manufacturing. (In particular, both personality and proximity are typical. It is determined by the relationship to the elements of the situation). As in this and here "here" should be understood so that against the one who speaks with them Let the sign of «closeness» be attributed. It should be noted that English the distinction of «second» and «third» person in the category of «proximity» in the language when it is neutralized, there are languages where the situation is different. Both In both Latin and Turkish there is a system of three-pronouns «indicative pronouns», which Latin hic, iste, ille and Turkish bu, şü, o. The first correspond to English this and this is the «index pronoun of the first person» (denoting proximity to the speaker). Others simply translate into English like that and denote the indicative pronouns of the second and third person respectively. Want and while the shu indicates proximity to the listener, ille va o, yes from the speaker, both means to step away from the listener.

## References

1. Barber Ch. Linguistic Change in Present-Day English, L., 1964.
2. Curme G.O. A Grammar of the English Language. L. - N.Y., 1931.
3. Cyril M. A Grammar of Modern English for Foreign Students, Longman, L., 1971.
4. Fries Ch. The Structure of English. 1965.

5. Ganshina M.A., Vasilevskaya N.M. English Grammar, Ninth Edition Revised, M., 1964.
6. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English, M., L., 1965.
7. Jespersen O. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles, L., 1949.
8. Jespersen O. Essentials of English Grammar. L., 1933.
9. Khaimovich B.S., Rogovskaya B.I. A Course in English Grammar, M., 1967.
10. Kaushanskaya and others. A Grammar of the English Language. L., 1959.
11. Kruisinga E. A Handbook of Present-Day English, Part II, vols. 1, 2, 3. Groningen, 1931.
12. Nesfield J.C. English Grammar Past and Present, L., 1931.
13. Imamguluyev R. The rise of gpt-3: implications for natural language processing and beyond. Int J Res Pub Rev. (2023) 2582:7421. doi: 10.55248/gengpi.2023.4.33987
14. Poutsma H. A Grammar of Late Modern English, Part II, G. 1926.
15. Sweet H. A New English Grammar. Logical and Historical, Part I, Oxford, At the Clarendon Press, 1900.
16. Whitehall H. Structural Essentials of English, N.Y., 1956.