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**LEXICO-SEMANTICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADJECTIVE IN
ENGLISH**

GRADUATION WORK

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INTRODUCTION

Actuality of the theme. The adjective is a word expressing a quality of a substance. The adjective is a 'describing' word. The main [syntactic](#) role of adjective is to [qualify](#) a [noun](#) or [noun phrase](#), giving more information about the object signified. In the concept of quality of a substance we include not only colour of objects (e.g. red, green, yellow), size (e.g. big, huge, small), age (e.g. old, young), opinions of people (e.g. nice, beautiful, tough), but also describing actions (e.g. fast, slow, friendly) etc. In speech these types of adjectives are treated in different ways, so one, who does not know ways of treatment, can make mistakes in his speech. Standing on such ground, we considered the theme of the work actual enough to make investigation.

Aims and object of investigation. Main aims of the graduation paper are the following items:

- to give general notion to the adjective;
- to characterize classification of adjectives according to its structure;
- to analyze lexical meaning of the adjective;
- to analyze morphological category of adjectives – the category of the degrees of comparison;
- at last to investigate its syntactical characteristics.

The main object of this graduation paper is to analyze adjective lexico-semantic characteristics.

The methods and sources of the investigation. The graduation paper was investigated, first of all, with the help of practical-theoretical researches of grammar. In this respect, many manuals, dictionaries, dissertation papers, scientific and theoretical articles about adjectives were used. As it was mentioned this graduation paper was written with the help of different theoretical and modern sources of grammar.

The structure of the investigation. This graduation paper consists of introduction, two chapters, conclusion, summary in the Azerbaijan language, and the list of used literature. According to the requirements of the graduation work the written material meets all the norms.

Some main and at the same time interesting inferences were achieved while working at this graduation paper. The size of graduation work has been done according to the duty standing before the research works of bachelor's degree and consists of 39 pages in computer paper.

CHAPTER I

GENERAL NOTION OF THE ADJECTIVE

Definition: The adjective is a word expressing a quality of a substance by limiting its meaning. An adjective is a 'describing' word; the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, giving more information about the object signified, such as:

beautiful girls	long ways
<i>strong</i> boys	<i>large</i> yards
<i>tall</i> trees	<i>green</i> apples
an interesting poem	<i>yellow</i> flowers
<i>a romantic</i> story	windy weather , etc. [8,30].

Adjectives describe nouns by answering one of these questions: What kind of is it? How many are there? Which one is it? An adjective can be a single word, a phrase, or a clause. For example:

a) What kind of is it?

Dan decided that the fuzzy green bread would make an unappetizing sandwich. (What kind of bread? -Fuzzy and green; What kind of sandwich? - Unappetizing);

b) How many are there?

A number of enthusiastic students, fifteen freshmen and ten sophomores organized Novruz holiday celebrations in the assembly hall of the university. (How many students? -fifteen freshmen and ten sophomores);

c) Which one is it?

The most unhealthy item from the cafeteria is the steak sub, which will slime your hands with grease. (Which item from the cafeteria? –unhealthy; Certainly not the one that will lower your cholesterol);

To describe a noun fully, we might need to use two or more adjectives. Sometimes a series of adjectives requires commas, but sometimes it doesn't. What makes the difference? How to punctuate a series of adjectives? If the adjectives are coordinate, we must use commas between them. If, on the other hand, the adjectives are non-

coordinate, no commas are necessary. How do we tell the difference? *Coordinate* adjectives can pass one of two tests. When we reorder the series or when you insert and between them, they still make sense. For example: The tall, creamy, and delicious milkshake melted on the counter while the inattentive waiter was talking with the pretty cashier. *Non-coordinate* adjectives do not make sense when you reorder the series or when you insert and between them. E.g.: Jeanne's two fat Siamese cats hog the electric blanket on cold winter evenings. If we switch the order of the adjectives, the sentence becomes gibberish: Fat Siamese two Jeanne's cats hog the electric blanket on cold winter evenings [19].

Adjectives exist in most languages. The most widely recognized adjectives in English are words such as big, old, and tired that actually describe people, places, or things. These words can themselves be modified with adverbs, as in the phrase very big. The articles a, an, and the and possessive nouns, such as Mary's, are classified as adjectives by some grammarians; however, such classification may be specific to one particular language. Adjectives are one of the traditional English parts of speech, though linguists today distinguish adjectives [21].

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns, which they modify, if not accompanied by adjuncts, usually in pre-position, and occasionally in postposition; by a combinability with link-verbs, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs. Adjectives are the third major class of words in English, after nouns and verbs. Adjectives are words expressing properties of objects (e.g. large, blue, simple, clever, economic, progressive, productive, etc) and, hence, qualifying nouns. Adjectives in English do not change for number or case. The only grammatical category they have is the degrees of comparison. They are also characterized by functions in the sentence [22].

1.1. Classification of adjectives according to its structure.

According to their morphological structure adjectives may be divided into the following groups:

- 1) simple adjectives
- 2) derivative adjectives

3) compound adjectives

Simple adjectives are adjectives which have neither prefixes nor suffixes. They are indecomposable, such as: Good, red, black, short, long, cool, high, warm, fresh, difficult, soft etc. [8, 31].

We cannot always tell whether a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation, since its form doesn't indicate its morphological status.

Derivative adjectives are adjectives which are recognizable morphologically, because they have derivative elements (a) suffixes or (b) prefixes or (c) both of them, such as:

- (a) **beautiful, useful, selfish, hopeless, childless, foggy, comfortable;**
- (b) **unkind, unimportant, unhappy, incorrect, impossible, amoral;**
- (c) **illogical, insensible, unforgettable, prehistoric, dismemberment, etc.**

There are special different **prefixes and suffixes** in Modern English that derivate adjectives. *These suffixes and prefixes can be productive and unproductive.* There exist some **adjective-forming suffixes** in contemporary English. They can be divided into *two subgroups*:

1) *Productive adjective – forming suffixes, such as:*

- al:* musical, verbal, political, cultural, traditional, national, notional, etc.
- ful:* careful, beautiful, forgetful, useful, peaceful, doubtful, etc.
- less:* homeless, jobless, hopeless, harmless, useless, friendless etc.
- like:* manlike, womanlike, childlike, homelike, snakelike, catlike etc.
- ish:* boyish, reddish, childish, selfish, longish, whitish, shortish, etc.

-ed(-d): beaded, educated, lion-hearted, shame-faced, blue-eyed, cultured barbed, talented, etc.

2) *Unproductive adjective-forming suffixes, such as:*

- able:* fashionable, comfortable, hospitable, eatable, reliable, agreeable, etc.
- ible:* responsible, reversible, impressible, possible, accessible, etc.
- ant:* significant, important, pleasant, dominant, inhabitant, etc.
- ent:* antecedent, dependent, different, deterrent, consequent, etc.
- en:* golden, wooden, silken, waxen, woollen, etc.

- ly: friendly, fatherly, motherly, lovely, etc.
- y: sunny, windy, sleepy, foggy, funny, etc.
- ous: glorious, poisonous, dangerous, famous, courageous, etc.
- some: fearsome, handsome, troublesome, tiresome, etc. [5,50].

In contemporary English there exist some **adjective-forming prefixes**, too. They are following :

1) *Productive adjective – forming prefixes are:*

- un-* : unhappy, unable, undone, unknown, etc.
- pre-* : prewar, prehistoric, etc.

2) *Unproductive adjective – forming prefixes* is *in-*. It changes before *l* as *il-* , before *r* as *ir-*, and before *m, p* as *im-*. It is written as *in-* with all other consonants (*c, t, g, s*, etc.) For example:

- in-* : incorrect, insincere, incomplete, inconnected, etc.
- il-* : illegal, illiterate, illogical, etc.
- ir-* : irregular, irresponsible, etc.
- im-* : impossible, immoral, immeasurable, etc. [17].

Compound adjectives are adjectives built up from two or more stems. In Modern English compound adjectives can be made from different combinations of parts of speech. They may be of various patterns. The main types of compound adjectives are as follows:

- noun stem+ adjective stem, such as:
lifelong, snow-white, grass-green, etc.
- noun stem+ participle-stem, such as:
smoke-dried, life-giving, etc.
- noun-stem +noun-stem+ suffix –ed, such as:
lynx-eyed, lion-hearted, etc
- noun stem + a verbal, such as:
man-made, high-born, heart-breaking, etc.
- adjective stem+ adjective stem, such as:

deaf-mute, dead-beat, dead-tired, etc.

- adjective stem+ noun stem + the suffix -ed, such as:

blue-eyed, long-legged, cold-hearted, bareheaded, etc.

- adverb stem+ noun stem + the suffix -ed, such as:

over-peopled, down-hearted, etc.

- numeral-stem +noun-stem + suffix -ed, such as:

four -wheeled, two-storeyed, two-faced, etc. [9, 48].

1.2. The use of Adjective with nouns and adverbs.

Adjective and noun. Some items can be both adjectives and nouns. For example, the word *criminal* is an adjective in that it can be used both attributively (a criminal attack) and predicatively (The attack seemed criminal to us).

But the word *criminal* also has all the characteristics of a noun. For example: in having number contrast and the capacity to be subject of a clause, as in “The criminals pleaded guilty to all charges.” The word *criminal* is therefore both an adjective and a noun, and the relationship between the adjective *criminal* and the noun *criminal* is that of conversion. Examples of other converted nouns:

He is investigating the *ancients'* conception of the universe.

The king greeted his *nobles* [6, 130].

Nouns commonly function the as premodifiers of other nouns :

The city council	a love poem
a stone wall	August weather

In this function, the attributive nouns resemble adjectives. However, the basically nominal character of these premodifiers is shown by their correspondence to prepositional phrases with the noun as complement:

the council of the city	a poem about love
A wall (made) of stone	weather (usual) in August

Such a correspondence is not available for attributive adjectives:

the urban council	a long poem
a thick wall	hot weather

Though we can sometimes use a postmodifying prepositional phrase with a related

noun as complement, e.g. : a long poem – a poem of considerable length [6, 131].

As we know, a noun is a person, place or thing, and an adjective is a word that describes a noun:

Adjective	Noun
clever	teachers
small	offices
black	horses

Sometimes we use a noun to describe another noun. In that case, the first noun "acts as" an adjective: E.g. :

Noun as adjective	Noun
history	teachers
ticket	offices
race	horses

The "noun as adjective" always comes first. If we remember this, it will help us to understand what is being talked about. E.g. :

- A race horse is a horse that runs in races.
- A horse race is a race for horses.
- A boat race is a race for boats.
- A love story is a story about love.
- A war story is a story about war.
- A tennis ball is a ball for playing tennis.
- Tennis shoes are shoes for playing tennis.
- A computer exhibition is an exhibition of computers.
- A bicycle shop is a shop that sells bicycles. etc. [20].

The "noun as adjective" is singular. Just like a real adjective, the "noun as adjective" is invariable. It is usually in the singular form. For example:

boat race – *boat* races (not boats race, boats races)

shoe-lace - *shoe*-laces (not shoes-lace, shoes-laces)

cigarette packet – *cigarette* packets (not cigarettes packet, cigarettes packets)

toothbrush – *toothbrushes* (not teethbrush, teethbrushes) [20].

A few nouns look plural but we usually treat them as singular (for example news, billiards, and athletics). When we use these nouns "as adjectives" they are unchanged:

- a news reporter, three news reporters
- one billiards table, four billiards tables
- an athletics trainer, fifty athletics trainers

There is an exception:

When we use certain nouns "as adjectives" (clothes, sports, customs, accounts, arms), we use them in the plural form:

- clothes shop, clothes shops
- sports club, sports clubs
- customs duty, customs duties
- accounts department, accounts departments
- arms production [20].

How do we write the "noun as adjective"? We write the "noun as adjective" and the real noun in several different ways:

- two separate words (such as: car door)
- two hyphenated words (such as: book-case)
- one word (such as: bathroom)

There are no easy rules for this. We even write some combinations in two or all three different ways: (head master, head-master, headmaster)

How do we say the "noun as adjective"? For pronunciation, we usually stress the first word:

- **boat**-race ['bəʊtreɪs]
- **bathroom** ['bɑ:θru:m]
- **shoe** shop ['ʃu:ʃɒp]

Can we have more than one "noun as adjective"? Yes. Just like adjectives, we often use more than one "noun as adjective" together. Here are some examples:

car production costs: we are talking about the costs of producing cars.

Noun as adjective	Noun as adjective	Noun
		costs
	production	costs
car	production	costs

England football team coach: we are talking about the coach who trains the team that plays football for England.

Noun as adjective	Noun as adjective	Noun as adjective	noun
			coach
		team	coach
	football	team	coach
England	football	team	coach

In England football team coach we see a "hidden" "noun as adjective". Look at the word "football" (foot-ball). These two nouns (foot+ball) have developed into a single noun (football). This is one way that words evolve. Many word combinations that use a "noun as adjective" are regarded as nouns in their own right, with their own dictionary definition. But not all dictionaries agree with each other. For example, some dictionaries list "tennis ball" as a noun and other dictionaries do not [20].

Newspapers often use many nouns together in headlines to save space. For example: bird health research centre murder mystery - to understand headlines like these, try reading them backwards. The above headline is about a *mystery* concerning a *murder* in a *centre* for *research* into the *health* of *bird*.

We can note that we can still use a real *adjective* to qualify a "noun as adjective" structure:

- *empty* coffee jar
- *honest* car salesman
- *delicious* dog food
- *rising* car production costs
- *famous* England football team coach [20].

Adjective and adverb. Adverbs are regularly, though not invariably, derived from adjectives by suffixation. In addition, a correspondence often exists between constructions containing adjectives and those containing the corresponding adverbs. The simplest illustration is with adverbs equivalent to prepositional phrases

containing a noun phrase with the corresponding adjective:

He liked Mary *considerably*.

He liked Mary to a *considerable* extent.

He spoke to John *sharply*.

He spoke to John in a *sharp manner*.

Politically, it is a bad decision.

From the political point of view, it is a bad decision [1, 157].

Sometimes, either the adjective or the adverb forms may appear, with little or no semantic difference. But normally, the adjective and its corresponding adverb appear in different environments: Her *incredible* beauty: her beauty is *incredible* – she is *incredibly* beautiful [6,129].

There are *many cases* where a construction with the adverb form seems basic to an understanding of the corresponding construction with the adjective form:

1) There are regular correspondences between sentences with an adverb and noun phrases with an adjective:

He loved her *deeply* – his *deep* love for her;

He writes legibly – his legible writing;

2) The adjective-noun sequence may imply a process or a time relationship, with a corresponding noun phrase containing an adverb. For example, in the second of following two interpretations of a *beautiful dancer*, the adjective refers to the process part of the agentive noun:

(a) A dancer who is beautiful;

(b) A person who dances beautifully;

3) Most intensifying adjectives can be seen as related to adverbs:

a real idiot – he is really an idiot.

4) Many limiter adjectives can be seen as related to adverbs:

the main reason – it was mainly the reason [6,129].

Certain words beginning with *a-* have a predominantly predicative use. With respect to their ability to be used predicatively with both *be* and another intensive verb such as *seem*, we can contrast an a-adjective such as *asleep* with an a-adverb

such as abroad:

The patient was asleep / abroad.

The patient seemed asleep / abroad.

Certain items that function as adjectives are also used to define in some way the process denoted by the verb; this is a typical use of adverbs, e.g.: loud and clear in “*He spoke loud and clear.*” If in its adverbial use the item is not restricted to a position after the verb or (if present) the object, it undoubtedly belongs to both the adjective and adjective classes. For example, long and still, which commonly function as adjectives, are adverbs in pre-verb position in the following sentences:

Such animals have *long* had to defend themselves

They *still* can't make up minds whether to go or not.

Furthermore, the item clearly represents two different words if a semantic difference in the two uses, as with *long* and *still* [6, 130].

In other cases, some words of the same lexical item are used as both adjective and adverbs. They are: *near, late, fast, soon, hard, long, low, far, high, much, little, straightly, early, daily, weekly, still, close, slow* etc. E.g: to drive *fast* (adverb); *fast* food (adjective); *Early* to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy, wealthy and wise. (посл. кто рано ложится и рано встаёт, здоровье, богатство и ум наживёт) (adverb); It is *early* days yet; at an *early* date (в ближайшем будущем) (adjective);

But there are such adverbs and adjectives in the same form that they receive the adverb forming suffix *-ly* and changes their meaning:

close(adj. adv.) bağlı, yaxın ~ **closely** (adv) diqqətlə;

late (adj. adv.) gec (zaman) ~ **lately** (adv) son günlərdə, bu yaxınlarda;

high(adj. adv.) hündür ~ **highly** (adv) – yüksək (məcazi məs.yüksək fikir);

hard (adj. adv.) çətin, ağır ~ **hardly** (adv) çətinliklə;

near (adj. adv.) yaxın ~ **nearly** (adv) təxminən, demək olar ki;

E.g.: He is my **close** friend.(adj) Don't do **close** to the cage.(adv) Watch **closely** the child (adv); She returned in the **late** autumn. (adj) I went to bed **late** yesterday. I haven't seen him **lately**(adv); The house is **high**. (adj) The plain flew high. (adv)

Azerbaijan has a **highly** developed industry. (adv);

The principal syntactic difference between the use of the adjective and adverb forms is restricted into a position: after the verb or (if present) the object: He drove the car slow into the garage. He was slow in arriving [25].

1.3. Substantivization of the Adjective.

As is known adjectives under certain circumstances can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns. *B. Khaimovich* states that “when adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances but substances possessing these attributes.” *B. Khaimovich* speaks of two types of substantivization *full* and *partial* [4,75]. By full substantivization he means when an adjective gets all the morphological features of nouns, like: native, a native, the native, natives. But all the partial substantivization he means when adjectives get only some of the morphological features of nouns, as far instance, the adjective “rich” having substantivized can be used only with the definite article: the rich. *B. Ilyish* is almost of the same opinion: we shall confine ourselves to the statement that these words are partly substantivized and occupy an intermediate position. More detailed consideration of the problem shows that the rich and others are not partial substantivization. All the substantivized adjectives can be explained within the terms of nouns [1,130].

In “A practical grammar of contemporary English” *Oruc Ibrahimoghlu Turksever (Musayev)* also investigate the substantivization of the adjective. Some adjectives in contemporary English can be converted into nouns, i.e. can be used as nouns in speech. This phenomenon is called substantivization of the adjective [8, 38].

These adjectives may fall into two groups:

- 1) Wholly substantivized adjectives.
- 2) Partially substantivized adjectives.

In case when adjectives acquire all the characteristics of the noun, namely, *the plural ending -s*, *the genitive case ending 's*, can be associated with articles and other determinatives, they are called **wholly substantivized adjectives**, such as:

a native – qohum, the natives- qohumlar ;

my native's invitation - qohumun dävəti ;

As it is seen from the above given example the adjective native is associated with the article of indefiniteness and definiteness (a), has taken the plural ending (-s) and is used in the genitive case with a determiner (my). And it means that the adjective native is wholly substantivized [9, 60].

Some wholly substantivized adjectives have acquired only one morphological characteristic of the noun. They are used in the plural, such as: greens, sweets, valuables, ancients, eatables, goods, finals (final examinations), etc. [8, 38].

In some cases adjectives acquire only some of the characteristics of the noun; they are used with *the article of definiteness*. Such adjectives are called **partially substantivized adjectives** [9, 61].

Partially substantivized adjectives are used to denote :

1) *A whole class*, such as:

the old- qocalar, the dumb –lallar ; the deaf- karlar, the blind – korlar ;
the rich – varlılar; the poor- kasıblar; the unemployed- işsizlər; etc.

2) *Abstract notions*, such as:

the good -xeyir; the evil - şər; the singular – tək; the plural –cəm;
the future - gələcək; the present – indi; the past – keçmiş; etc.

3) *Nationality*, such as:

the English - ingilislər, the French - fransızlar;
the Chinese çinlilər , the Spanish- ispanlar, etc.

We must carry in mind that in case when substantivized adjectives denote nationality they are translated into Azerbaijani in the plural. E.g. :

The Chinese are one of the old nations – Çinlilər qədim xalqlardan biridir.

We may note that some adjectives denoting nationality are substantivized in two ways, wholly substantivized ,such as: A German- alman, Germans- almanlar; a Russian- rus, Russians- ruslar [9,61].

And adjectives denoting nationality can also be partially substantivized, they are used with definite article “the”, such as: the English, the Chinese, the Japanese, the French, etc.

We can also note that the substantivizing adjectives English, Spanish, French, Dutch, accepting definite article “*the*”, then they mean whole nation. So they are translated into Azerbaijani as: the Dutch – hollandlar; etc. If the conversation is about some individuals belonging to these nations, at that time, it is used as complex noun. For example: an Englishman, an Englishwoman, a Dutchman, a Dutchwoman, a Frenchman, a Frenchwoman, etc. [8,39].

CHAPTER II

LEXICO-SEMANTICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADJECTIVE

Unlike the Russian language, in English the adjective has no number, case or gender distinctions. In connection with that a questionnaire: by what signs do we then recognize adjectives in Modern English? In most cases it can be done by taking into account semantic and syntactic functions of the adjectives. In some other cases derivational suffixes are significant. Among them there are suffixes "-less, -like," etc. But in certain cases a suffix cannot help to distinguish the adjectives. This is the case, when first and the same suffix can be found both in adjectives and in other parts of speech. E.g.: We can find the suffix "-ful" in the suffix adjectives, such as: "useful, beautiful", etc. And alongside it, we can also see the suffix in nouns "spoonful, pocketful", etc. In spite of the fact that the adjectives in Modern English is weak morphologically, still it is distinguished as a separate part of speech characterized by the following features:

- 1) the lexico-grammatical meaning of attributes of substances or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;
- 2) the morphological category of the degrees of comparison;
- 3) the characteristic combinability with nouns, (ex.: high building), with link verbs (ex.: is brave, it is red,), with adverbs (ex.: very clear); they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word "one":

A white horse. The horse is white. ;

The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red. ;

- 4) typical stem-building affixes, such as: -ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, ir-, un-, -pre-, in-etc.;

5) the syntactic function of attributes and predicatives [12,24].

Adjectives have not much been studied in traditional lexical semantics compared to the large amount of work devoted to verbs and to nouns. They nevertheless present an interesting polymorphic behaviour. Adjectives constitute a challenging issue for natural language processing applications. To the *morphological category of adjective* include: *category of degrees of comparison of adjective* is the system of three member opposemes (like: long-longer-longest). The main *syntactic function* of adjective is that predicative or attributive. Syntactically, they can appear in different positions in the sentence, as modifier of the noun (a sad book) or complement of a copular verb like be (this book is sad); **Semantically**, adjectives, more than other categories, are able to take different meanings depending on their context (for example *difficult* in *a difficult child, a difficult book, a difficult exam* or *fast* in *a fast car, a fast motorway, a fast procedure*, etc.) From a semantic viewpoint, their sense can vary depending on the context in which they appear. For instance, *difficult* does not have the same meaning in the phrases *a difficult book, a difficult child* and *a difficult exam*. No natural language processing system can ignore adjectives: in order to correctly analyze, generate, translate natural languages or index a text, the system must understand (or at the least, simulate) the meaning of the adjective [13].

2.1. Classification of adjectives according to its lexical meaning.

As we know, the adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that adjective denotes material, colour, dimension, position, state, and other characteristics of the substance or the both permanent and temporary. According to their lexical meaning adjectives fall into three groups:

- 1) **Qualitative adjectives**;
- 2) **Relative adjectives** [12,25].

1. Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of a substance directly as size, *shape, colour, physical* and *mental qualities*, such as: large room, long way, little bird, wide yard, round table, high mountain, strong man, important question, beautiful woman, blue eyes, warm weather, etc.

Qualitative adjectives, as different from relative ones, denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative estimation. The measure of a quality can be estimate as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. In this connection, the ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition.

2. Relative adjectives denote qualities of a substance not directly but through their relation (a) to *materials*, (b) to *place*, (c) to *time*, (d) to *some action*, such as:

- (a) wooden door, silken dress, woollen gloves;
- (b) Italian singer, African language, Asian music;
- (c) weekly payments, monthly meeting;
- (d) preparatory meetings, rotatory saw.

Relative adjectives is made up with these suffixes: -ly, -an, -en, -ical, -ic, -ish, etc. For example: weekly, Italian, golden, syntactic, analytical, reddish.

Relative adjectives express qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object: woolen gloves, wooden house, Siberian wheat.

Relative adjectives have **no degrees of comparison**. In English the number of relative adjectives is limited. A few relative adjectives are formed from nouns by means of the suffix "-en" (wooden, woollen); some relative adjectives are formed from nouns by the suffix "-ly" (daily, motherly); many relative adjectives are converted from nouns (silk, gold, cotton) [8,32].

Adjectivized nouns are also freely used with the meaning of relative adjectives: a summer day, a wood flower, the Moscow theatres.

There is no hard and fast line of between qualitative and relative adjectives. A relative adjective may acquire the meaning of a qualitative one, example:

- a silver watch (relative adjective) - a silver stream (qualitative adjective);
- an iron bridge (relative adjective)- an iron will (qualitative adjective).

The use of the forms in "-en" when the relative adjectives “gold, flax (лён) wax (воск), silk” acquire qualitative meaning:

- a gold chain -golden hair;
- a wax candle - flaxen cheeks ;
- a flax flower - flaxen hair;
- a silk dress - silken hair [17].

While speaking about lexical meanings of adjectives we must also speak about *the words of the category of state*. Notional words signifying states and specifically used as predicatives were first identified as a separate part of speech in the Russian language by *L. V. Shcherba* and *V. V. Vinogradov*. The two scholars called the newly identified part of speech the "*category of state*" (and, correspondingly, separate words making up this category, "words of the category of state"). Here belong the Russian words mostly ending in *-o*, but also having other suffixes: *тепло, зябко, одиноко, радостно, жаль, лень*, etc. [24].

On the analogy of the Russian "category of state", the English qualifying *a*-words of the corresponding meanings were subjected to a lexico-grammatical analysis and given the part-of-speech heading term "*words of the category of state*". This analysis was first conducted by *B. A. Ilyish* and later continued by other linguists. It was later changed into "stative words", or "statives"[2,135]. The part-of-speech interpretation of the statives is not shared by all linguists working in the domain of English, and has found both its proponents and opponents. The first scholar who undertook this kind of re-consideration of the lexemic status of English statives was *L. S. Barkhudarov*, he denied statives as special parts of speech [10,134].

Probably the most consistent and explicit exposition of the part-of-speech interpretation of statives has been given by *B. S. Khaimovich* and *B. I. Rogovskaya* [11]. Their theses supporting the view in question can be summarized as follows: *First*, the statives, called by the quoted authors "*adlinks*" (by virtue of their connection with link-verbs and on the analogy of the term "adverbs"), are allegedly opposed to adjectives on a purely semantic basis, since adjectives denote "qualities", and statives-adlinks denote "states". *Second*, as different from adjectives, statives-adlinks are characterized by the specific prefix *a-*. *Third*, they allegedly do not possess the category of the degrees of comparison. The category of comparison is

connected with the functional division of adjectives into evaluative and specificative, like common adjectives, statives are subject to this flexible division, and so in principle they are included into the expression of the quantitative estimation of the corresponding properties conveyed by them. True, *statives do not take the synthetical forms of the degrees of comparison*, but they are capable of expressing comparison analytically, in cases where it is to be expressed. E.g.: Of us all, Jack was the one *most aware* of the delicate situation in which we found ourselves. I saw that the adjusting lever stood far *more askew* than was allowed by the directions. *Fourth*, the combinability of statives-adlinks is different from that of adjectives in so far as they *are not used in the pre-positional attributive function*, i.e. are characterized by the absence of the right-hand combinability with nouns [24].

According to *Kaushanskaya*:

1) *the words of the category of state* denote the *temporary state or condition* of persons or things. E.g.:

But Johnny and Paddy were *asleep*, the rose-red glow had paled, bats were flying, and still the bathers had not returned. (*Mansfield*)

2) As regards *form* the words of the category of state have the *prefix a-* : **ablaze**, **afire**, **aflake**, **afloat**, **afraid**, **asleep**, **alike**. etc.

3) They are mainly used in the function of *a predicative*:

"He is *awake!*!" Sally cried. (*Saxton*);

That was all right in the daytime, but while Alice was putting her to bed she grew suddenly *afraid*. (*Mansfield*)

Words of the category of state may be used as **objective predicatives**: She was saying that she intended to leave him entirely alone again. (*Wilson*)

Words of the category of state may be sometimes used as **attributes**. But unlike adjectives they cannot be placed before the words they modify. As **attributes** they may be only used in **post-position**. E.g.:

The father and mother dolls, who sprawled very stiff as though they had fainted in the drawing-room, and their two little *children asleep* upstairs were really too big for the doll's house. (*Mansfield*)

4) Words of the category of state can be modified by *adverbs of degree*: Sally, who had been *half asleep* with her head on Eddie's lap, woke up and began chanting. (Saxton); He immediately came *fully awake*. (Heym)

Words of the category of state may take *prepositional indirect objects*: “You were *afraid of the war?*” she asked compassionately. (Heym) [5, 75-76].

But *Oruc Ibrahimoghlu Turksever (Musayev)* don't classify *the words of the category of state* as a separate part of speech. He include *the words of the category of state* into the lexical meaning of adjectives. In his book (In “A practical grammar of contemporary English”) he divide adjectives into 3: **qualitative, relative, stative**, so he called *the words of the category of state* the *stative adjectives*. **Stative adjectives** denote the temporary **state** or **condition** of persons or things[8,32]. Unlike qualitative and relative adjectives, the number of stative adjectives is limited. Semantically stative adjectives fall into five groups describing various states of persons or non-persons. They are:

1. Psychological states of persons, such as:

afraid, ashamed, aware, agog.

2. Physical states of persons, such as:

alive, awake, asleep.

3. Physical states of non-persons, such as:

afire, aflame, alight, aglow, ablaze.

4. States of motion or activity of persons or non-persons, such as:

afoot, astir, afloat, adrift.

5. The posture of non-persons, such as:

askew, awry, aslant, ajar.

Stative adjectives have a special marker: the prefix **a-**. There are about 30 stable stative adjectives in contemporary English used both in colloquial and in formal style. They are:

afire	ajar	asleep
ablaze	ahead	askew
aflame	alight	aslant
adrift	akin	astir
afloat	alike	
afoot	alive	astray
afraid	aloof	athirst
aghast	alone	awake
aglow	amiss	aware
agog	ashamed	awry

We can note that, besides the above mentioned ones in contemporary English there exist about 100 unstable stative adjectives such as, *atwist, ashuddar, agleam*, etc. which are seldom used even in formal style and never in colloquial speech [8, 33].

2.2. Morphological category of adjectives – the category of the degrees of comparison.

According to *Oruc Ibrahimoglu Turksever (Musayev)* (in his book “A practical grammar of contemporary English”) the adjective has only one morphological category in contemporary English: the category of the degrees of comparison [8, 34]. This category is a system of three member opposeemes, such as: hot-hotter-hottest. This category shows whether the adjective denotes the property of a given substance absolutely or relatively.

Before starting to speak about the category of the degrees of comparison, it is necessary to note that not all the adjectives in contemporary English have this category. From this point of view they fall under two types:

- 1) comparable adjectives
- 2) non- comparable adjectives [12, 24].

Neither the relative nor the stative adjectives have the category of the degrees of comparison, because these adjectives are non-comparable. The non-comparable adjectives are relative ones like golden, wooden, silk, cotton, raw and so on. The nuclear of non-comparable adjectives is composed of derived adjectives like woolen, mathematical, etc. Denoting some relation to phenomena basics of stems refer to thus a wooden house is the house of wood. These adjectives are called relative as

distinguishing from all, other adjectives called qualitative. Only the qualitative adjectives are comparable and accordingly they possess the category of the degrees of comparison [8, 34].

There are *three* degrees of comparison of qualitative adjectives. They are:

1. The positive degree;
2. The comparative degree;
3. The superlative degree.

The Positive Degree of the Adjective – The common or basic degree is called positive which is expressed by the absence of a marker. Therefore we say that it is expressed by a zero morpheme. The positive degree of the adjective is not marked, i.e. there is no morphological element showing that the adjective is in the positive degree. In the positive degree English adjectives consist of only the root, such as: long, short, sharp, blue, yellow, red, wide, narrow etc. [12, 24].

Some qualitative adjectives have no degrees of comparison, such as: greenish, darkish, reddish, incurable, chief, principal, extreme, supreme, prior, former, junior, senior, optimal, minimal, etc. Most qualitative adjectives built up opposemes of comparison but in the following cases some don't built opposeme:

- 1) adjective that in themselves express highest degree of quality supreme, extreme;
- 2) those having the suffix *-ish* which makes the degree of quality: reddish, childish;
- 3) those denoting qualities which aren't compatible with the idea of comparison. E.g.: deaf, mute, blind, perpendicular. All these adjectives which have no opposemes of comparison are united into class of adjectives denoting positive degree [8, 36].

In the *positive degree* adjectives can be used with the conjunctions **as... as**, **not so ...as**, **not as ...as** and show whether the quality of the compared substances is equal or unequal. The conjunction **as ... as** is used when the quality of compared substances is equal in quality, and it is translated into Azerbaijani "kimi, eyni".

My brother is as strong as yours. – Mənim qardaşım səninki kimi güclüdür.

Our room is as large as theirs. – Bizim otağımız onlarınki kimi böyükdür [9,53].

The conjunctions **not so ... as** and **not as ... as** are used when the quality of

compared substances is not equal, and it is translated into the language Azerbaijani “kimi deyil”, such as:

My room is not so large as his. (or My room is not as large as his) – Mənim otağım onunki kimi böyük deyil.

This way is not so long as that one. (or This way is not as long as that one). – Bu yol o birisi kimi uzun deyil.

We can note that in positive degree we can use adverbs: *such, quite, too, so, very, rather, how, enough as key words* [9, 54].

The Comparative and Superlative Degrees of the Adjective. – So far as to the comparative and superlative degrees they have special material means. At the same time we'll have to admit that not all the qualitative adjectives form their degrees in the similar way. There are three ways of forming the degrees of comparison of native adjectives:

- the synthetic way;
- the analytic way;
- the suppletive (irregular) way [12,25].

From the point of view of forming of the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison the qualitative adjectives must be divided into four groups. The choice of this or that way to form the degrees of comparison of qualitative adjectives mostly depends upon the morphological phonetic composition of the adjective:

1) All the monosyllabic qualitative adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees in the first way, i.e. synthetically, by taking the suffix -er in comparative degree and -est in the superlative degree, such as:

Comparative degree	Superlative degree
long + er = longer	long + est = longest
short + er = shorter	short + est = shortest

2) Besides, the following disyllabic qualitative adjectives also form their comparative and superlative degrees in the first way, i.e. synthetically:

Disyllabic qualitative adjectives in which the second syllable is the syllabic [l], such as:

Comparative degree

able + er = abler

noble + er = nobler

Superlative degree

able + est = ablest

noble + est = noblest

Disyllabic qualitative adjectives ending in **y** or one of the letter combinations: **-er**, **-ow**, **-le**, **-ise**, some, and in which the stress falls on the last syllable, such as:

Comparative degree	Superlative degree
happy + er = happier	happy + est = happiest
clever+ er = cleverer	clever + est= cleverest
narrow + er = narrower	narrow + est= narrowest
simple + er = simpler	simple + est= simplest
concise + er = conciser	concise +est= concisest
handsome + er =handsomer	handsome+ est =handsomest

Degrees of comparison of the above mentioned qualitative adjectives can be formed analytically, too i.e. by using **more** and **most** before these adjectives. Accordingly it is possible to say **cleverer**, **cleverest** or **more clever** and **most clever**.

3) Polysyllabic qualitative adjectives form their degrees of comparison analytically, i.e. by using **more** before the adjective in the comparative degree and **most** before the adjective in the superlative degree, such as:

Comparative degree

more beautiful

more interesting

more difficult

Superlative degree

most beautiful

most interesting

most difficult, etc. [8, 36].

4) Some qualitative adjectives form their degrees of comparison in the third way, i.e. in regularly. These adjectives are:

The adjectives that form their degrees by **means of suppletion**.

good - better - the best

bad - worse - the worst

The two adjectives form their degrees by means of suppletion. It concerns only of the comparative degree (good - better; bad - worse). The suppletive degrees of these adjectives are formed by root - vowel and final consonant change (better - the best) and by adding “t” to the form of the comparative degree (in worse - the worst).

The adjectives which form their degrees by means of **root-vowel and final consonant change**:

many - more - the most;

much - more - the most;

little – less – the least;

far- farther- the farthest (with reference to distance)

far- further – the furthest (with reference to distance, abstract notions and in figurative use)

near – nearer- the nearest (with reference to distance)

near – nearer – next (with reference to time, row)

late – later [leitə] – latest [leitist] (with reference to time)

late – latter [lætə] – last [lɑ:st] (with reference to time, row)

old – older – oldest (with reference to age)

old-elder – eldest (with reference to sequence of brothers and sisters) [8, 36].

In the comparative degree two objects, things are compared, and one differ from another:

Which game is **more interesting** football or chess?

Which city is **larger** London or Moscow?

The comparative is followed by the conjunction "**than**", for example: “Now I am in the garden at the back, where the fruit clusters on the trees, riper and richer than fruit has ever been since in any other garden” (Ch. Dickens) **Than** is translated into Azerbaijani as “-dan, -dən”. E.g.: My room is larger than yours. – Mənim otağım sizinkindən daha genişdir.

In the comparative degree the conjunction **as** is used, and it is translated into Azerbaijani “-ca, -cə”. For example: Her face turn more beautiful as she grow. – Onun üzü böyüdükcə daha gözəl olur. [9, 54].

To grow, to get, to become, to turn, to be – after these verbs the comparative degree is always used. For example:

In winter the days become shorter and the nights become longer.

My mother gets older as the years go on. She grew paler as he spoke, etc.

Both in comparative and in positive degrees before the adjectives the articles **a** and **an** are used. Of course, it depends on nouns which is used after that adjectives. E.g.:

This is a beautiful girl. (positive degree)

This is a more beautiful girl than my sister. (comparative degree)

If uncountable or plural noun are used, then there is *no article*:

This girl is more beautiful than me.

This water is colder.(than that one), etc. [18].

Before the adjective in the comparative degree may be intensified by means of such words or phrases as: "*much, a lot, a bit, a little, far, slightly, a great deal*". For example:

Let's go by car. It's *much* cheaper.

Don't go by train. It's *a lot* more expensive.

This bag is *slightly* heavier *than* the other one.

Her illness was *far more serious than* we thought at first, etc.[2, 60].

... and Pegotty's love is *a great deal* better than mine, Davy (Ch. Dickens).

... I found the task *much* more difficult than I had anticipated (Greenwood).

If in the sentence is used these time adverbs: *day by day, year after year, month after month, every year, every passing day*, then the comparative degree is chosen. For example: The days are shorter day by day.

In compound adjectives the first element is compared by means of the inflexions “-er, -est”, as long as the two elements preserve their separate meaning:

well-known – better-known – best-known;

far-fetched (süni, qeyri tæbii) - more far-fetched - most far-fetched.

When the two things are compared, the word "other" is sometimes used with the name of the second object to make the expression more precise:

Sparrows are more common than any other birds.

His study is larger than any other room in the house [9, 57].

Comparatives may be intensified by means of repetition:

The song grew fainter and fainter (J. London).

His hairs were turning greyer and more grey(Ch. Dickens)

The adjective in superlative degree is always used with article “**the**”. E.g. : She is the tallest girl in our class. If in the sentence, about the place of the spoken thing or the exact time of action is shown then the adjective used before that object, that noun is in superlative degree. For example: in the world, in the building, in the school, at the baker’s, to the stationer’s, etc.

If in the sentence the combination **of all** is used, the superlative degree is chosen. The combination **of all** is translated into Azerbaijani as “hamısından”. for example: She is the cleverest girl of all [9, 56].

If in the sentence the word **among** is used, then the adjective is chosen in the superlative degree. For example: We are *the most excellent* players *among* those children.

If in the sentence the combination **one of** is used, this shows the superlative degree. For example : Baku is one the nicest cities in the world.

In the sentence used **ever, never** also shows the superlative degree. For example : She is the nicest girl, I have ever met. [18].

Spelling Rules – While forming degrees of comparison we must keep to the following rules:

1) if the adjective ends in a consonant preceded by a stressed short vowel, the consonant is doubled before **-er**, and **-est**, such as: sad - sadder- saddest; hot - hotter - hottest, etc.

2) if the adjective ends in **y** preceded by a consonant, **y** is changed **i** before **er**, **-est**, such as: happy - happier - happiest; easy -easier - easiest, etc.

3) if the adjective ends in mute **e**, the **e** is dropped before **-er** and **-est**, such as: safe -safer –safest; brave- braver – bravest [8, 37].

Nowadays grammarians argue on one matter, that is the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives like "beautiful- more beautiful - most beautiful".

The problem is that some grammarians try to put "less beautiful and least beautiful" in the same row as "more beautiful and most beautiful". And they consider these combinations (less-least) as analytical forms of comparison. But a certain group of grammarians reject this idea putting forward the following reasons:

1. "More" and "-er" are identical as to their meaning of a higher degree;

2. Their distribution is complementary i.e. together they cover all the adjectives having the degrees of comparison and usually the adjectives with the suffix "-er" have no parallel opposites with "more" and vice versa. But this is not the case with "less":

1. "-er" and "less" have different, even opposite meanings;

2. Their distribution is not complementary, one and the same adjective can take both "less" and "-er" ex.: prettier - less pretty, and if we don't use "less" we can use "not so", ex.: less pretty - not so pretty [12, 25].

These and other language facts show that "more beautiful" is the analytical form of the comparison, but "less beautiful" is a free combination of the adverb and the adjective. There is one more problem connected with the adjective - it is the use of the definite article with the superlative degree. Dealing with this problem *prof. Ilyish writes*: "It remains somewhat doubtful whether the article belongs to the noun defined by the adjective: in the superlative degree or whether it makes part of superlative form itself". Further on he says, that the definite article can at least, be said to have a tendency to become an appendix of the superlative form itself, rather than of the noun, to which the adjective in the superlative degree is an attribute [1,135].

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: "One must not forget that more and most are not only word- morphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words. Moreover they are poly- semantic and poly-functional words. One of the meanings of most is "very, exceedingly". It is in this meaning that the word most is used in the expression a most interesting book [4, 81].

Within the system of the English Grammar we do not find a category which can be formed at the same time by synthetic and analytical means.

2.3. Semantic classes of adjectives

Semantically, adjectives can belong to different classes. The adjectives can also be classified with respect to semantic features as:

Gradation: Adjectives come in two varieties: **gradable** and **non-gradable**. In a *gradable adjective*, the properties or qualities associated with it, exist along a scale. In the case of the adjective "hot," for example, we can speak of: not at all hot, ever so slightly hot, only just hot, quite hot, very hot, extremely hot, dangerously hot, and so forth. Consequently, "hot" is a gradable adjective. Gradable adjectives usually have antonyms: hot/cold, hard/soft, smart/dumb, light/heavy. Some adjectives do not have room for qualification or modification. These are the *non-gradable adjectives*, such as: pregnant, married, incarcerated, condemned, adolescent (as adjective), dead, and so forth. In figurative or literary language, a non-gradable adjective can sometimes be treated as gradable, especially in order to emphasize some aspect. E.g.: "When a man's verses cannot be understood, nor a man's good wit seconded with a forward child, understanding, it strikes a man *more dead* than a great reckoning in a little room." A non-gradable adjective might have another connotation in which it is gradable. For example, "dead" when applied to sounds can mean *dull*, or not vibrant. In this meaning, it has been used as a gradable adjective. E.g.: "... the bell seemed to sound *more dead* than it did when just before it sounded in open air." [6,108].

Gradable adjectives can occur in comparative and superlative forms. For many common adjectives, these are formed by adding "-er" and "-est" to the base form: cold-colder-coldest, hot-hotter-hottest; dry-drier-driest, and so forth; however, for other adjectives, "more" and "most" are needed to provide the necessary qualification: more apparent, most apparent; more-iconic, most-iconic; more hazardous, most hazardous. Some gradable adjectives change forms atypically: good-better-best; bad-worse-worst; little-less-least; some/many, more, most [14,156].

We can classify adjectives in the different semantic categories as the following:

1. *dimension*: big, short, etc.
2. *physical property*: strong, ill, etc.
3. *speed*: fast, quick, etc.
4. *age* : new, old, etc.

5. *colour*: red, black, etc.
6. *value*: good, bad, etc.
7. *difficulty*: easy, difficult, etc.
8. *qualification*: definite, probable, possible, usual, likely, sure, correct, appropriate, etc.
9. *human propensity*: fond, angry, jealous, anxious, happy, unsure, certain, eager, ready, clever, stupid, generous, etc.
10. *similarity*: similar, different, etc. [14, 19].

The Position of Adjectives: 1) Most adjectives can be used in a noun group, after determiners and numbers if there are any, in front of the noun. E.g.: He had a beautiful smile. She bought a loaf of white bread [22].

2) Most adjectives can also be used after a link verb such as ‘be’, ‘become’, or ‘feel’. E.g.: I’m cold. Some adjectives are normally used only after a link verb. For example, we can say ‘She was glad’, but you do not talk about ‘a glad woman’. E.g.: We were getting ready for bed; He didn't know whether to feel glad or sorry [23].

3) Some adjectives are normally used only in front of a noun. E.g.: we talk about ‘an atomic bomb’, but we do not say ‘The bomb was atomic’. He sent countless letters to the newspapers. A few adjectives are used alone after a noun: designate, elect, galore, incarnate. E.g.: She was now the president elect. There are empty houses galore [23].

4) When we use an adjective to emphasize a strong feeling or opinion, it always comes in front of a noun. E.g.: Some of it was absolute rubbish. He made me feel like a complete idiot.

5) Some adjectives that describe size or age can come after a noun group consisting of a number or determiner and a noun that indicates the unit of measurement. E.g.: He was about six feet tall. The water was several metres deep. The baby is nine months old. Note that we do not say ‘two pounds heavy’, we say ‘two pounds in weight’ [17].

6) A few adjectives have a different meaning depending on whether they come in front of or after a noun. For example, ‘*the concerned mother*’ means a mother who is

worried, but *'the mother concerned'* means the mother who has been mentioned. E.g.: It's one of those incredibly involved stories. The people involved are all doctors; I'm worried about the present situation. Of the 18 people present, I knew only one; Her parents were trying to act in a responsible manner. We do not know the person responsible for his death [18].

When there are two or more adjectives in the sentence, they usually go in the following order: 1) quantity or number, 2) quality or opinion, 3) size, 4) age, 5) shape, 6) colour, 7) proper adjective (often nationality, other place of origin, or material), 8) purpose or qualifier; e.g.:

opinion	size	age	shape	colour	origin	material	noun
lovely	small	old	square	red	Thai	Silk	scarfs

We don't usually have long list of adjectives before a single noun. A noun is usually described by one, two or three adjectives at the most: an expensive Persian silk carpet, etc. [16].

2.4. Syntactic functions of adjectives.

Syntactically, adjectives can be classified with respect to the **function** features: Adjectives can appear as *attribute*, as noun modifiers inside a noun phrase (NP) as shown in: a happy person, or in *predicative* position as a complement of a verb like *be*, *seem*, *consider*, etc., as shown in: They are happy, they consider him happy, he seems happy, etc. [13].

In the function of *attribute* adjectives are part of the noun phrase headed by the noun they modify; for example, *happy* is an attribute in "happy people". In some languages, adjectives precede their nouns; in others, they follow their nouns; and in yet others, it depends on the adjective, or on the exact relationship of the adjective to the noun. In English, as attribute adjectives usually precede their nouns in simple phrases, but often follow their nouns when the adjective is modified or qualified by a phrase acting as an adverb. For example: "I saw three happy kids", and "I saw three kids happy enough to jump up and down with glee."

Predicative adjectives are linked via a link verb or other linking mechanism to the noun or pronoun they modify; for example, *happy* is a predicative adjective in "they are happy" and in "that made me happy." [13].

CONCLUSION

The object of our investigation is adjectives. The definition of the adjective is a word expressing a quality of a substance by limiting its meaning. According to their morphological structure adjectives may be divided into the following groups: simple adjectives, derivative adjectives, compound adjectives. English adjectives have positive, comparative and superlative forms. These are generally constructed in one of two ways: either by suffixes (big, bigger, biggest) or by the use of the grammatical particles more and most. Some adjectives have suppletive forms in their comparison, such as good, better, best.

Adjectives differ in many ways. We examine their semantic and syntactic characteristics. Semantically, adjectives can belong to different classes. Syntactically, adjectives can be used in attribute and predicative function. An adjective modifies a [noun](#). An adjective usually precedes a noun which it modifies. For example: “The *truck-shaped* balloon floated over the treetops.” An adjective can be modified by an [adverb](#), too. In the sentence “I’m *terribly* sorry.” For example, the adverb “terribly” modifies the adjective “sorry.”

We investigate adjectives with all its parts, also with its degrees and positions in the sentences.

XÜLASƏ

Bizim tədqiqatımızın obyektı sifətlərdir. Sifətin tərifı onun mənasını məhdudlaşdırmaq ilə mahiyyətin keyfiyyətini ifadə edən sözdür. Morfoloji quruluşuna görə sifətlər müvafiq olaraq növbəti qruplara bölünə bilər: sadə sifətlər, düzəltmə sifətlər, mürəkkəb sifətlər. İngilis sifətləri adı, müqayisə və üstünlük dərəcəsi formalarına malikdir. Bunlar ümumiyyətlə iki usuldan biri ilə düzəlir: şəkilçilər (big, bigger, biggest-böyük, daha böyük, ən böyük) ilə və ya qrammatik ədatların və more(daha çox) and most(ən) köməyi ilə. Bəzi sifətlərin müqayisəsində good, better, best suppletiv formalara malikdir.

Sifətlər müxtəlif üsullarla fərqlənir. Biz onların semantik və sintaktik xüsusiyyətlərini tədqiq etdik. Sifətlər semantik xüsusiyyətlərə görə müxtəlif sinfə mənsub ola bilər. Sintaktik baxımdan, sifətlər təyin və predikativ funksiyasında işləyə bilərlər. Sifət ismi təyin edir. Sifət təyin etdiyi isimdən adətən əvvəl gəlir. Məsələn: “The *truck-shaped* balloon floated over the treetops.” Sifət zərf ilə də təyin edilə bilər. Məsələn: “I’m *terribly* sorry.” – “terribly” zərfi “sorry” sifətini təyin edir.

Biz sifətləri onun bütün hissələrini, həmçinin onun dərəcələri və cümlələrdə vəziyyətlərini araşdırdıq.

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