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Протокол №1 Учебно-методического совета
Гулистанского государственного университета

Составитель: Бутаева Д., Кулиди О.В.

Учебно-методический комплекс по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика», рекомендуемый для публикации учебно-методическим советом Гулистанского государственного университета. Основан на современных педагогических технологиях. Составлен согласно программе по «Теоретической грамматике» для студентов филологического факультета языковых отделений вузов.

Рецензенты:

Таджиев К.Т., кандидат филологических наук, доцент

Сатимов Г., кандидат филологических наук, доцент

АННОТАЦИЯ

Учебно-методическое пособие по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика» предназначено для преподавания одноименного курса студентам факультетов и отделений английского языка педагогических вузов.

Основная цель УМК – ознакомление студентов с общими положениями грамматики как науки, с различными теориями и грамматическими школами, с общими правилами грамматики английского языка, теоретическими методами исследования, общепринятыми положениями в современной грамматике.

Пособие состоит из 6 лекционных и 6 практических (семинарских) тем:

1. Language and speech levels.
Grammatical structure of English
2. Problems of morphemic analysis
3. Grammatical categories.
Parts of speech problem
4. Parts of speech
5. Syntax
6. Sentence

Данный учебно-методический комплекс соответствует учебной программе курса теоретической грамматики для студентов филологических факультетов отделений английского языка.

I. ВВЕДЕНИЕ

1.1. Цель: Теоретическая грамматика английского языка изучает грамматический строй современного английского языка и является составной частью языковых теоретических дисциплин.

Задачи: К основным задачам дисциплины теоретической грамматики относятся следующие:

- Обучение студентов грамматическому строю английскому языку
- Ознакомление студентов с их концепциями, научными школами и направлениями, а также с рядом спорных вопросов и проблем в области английской грамматики.

1.2. Требования к студентам: усвоить базовую информацию по теоретическому курсу грамматики, усвоить новые грамматические понятия , использовать полученные знания на практике.

Студенты, изучившие данную дисциплину, должны:

- Уметь объяснить грамматические явления в английском языке
- Иметь ясное представление о морфологии и синтаксисе языка в целом и английского языка в частности.
- Уметь практически применять грамматические категории распознавать их и делать самостоятельный анализ.

1.3. Связь предмета с другими дисциплинами. Теоретический курс грамматики непосредственно связан с результатами научных исследований по таким дисциплинам как история языка, лексикология, стилистика, языкознание и другим.

1.4. Объём и понятие предмета.

Lectures

№	Themes	Key questions	Hours
1	Language and speech levels. Grammatical	1. Language and speech levels 2. Primary and secondary levels	2

	structure of English	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Units of levels 4. The difference between language and speech 5. The grammatical structure of languages, from the point of view of general linguistics 6. The morphological types of languages and the place of English in this typology 7. The grammatical means of the English language 	
2	Problems of morphemic analysis	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The morphemic structure of the English language] 2. The types of morphemes 	2
3	Grammatical categories. Parts of speech	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Categorization 2. Parts of speech 3. Notional and functional parts of speech 	2
4	Parts of speech	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Noun 2. Adjective 3. Verb 	2
5	Syntax	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. subject - matter of syntax 2. syntax-minor and syntax-major 3. the types of syntactical relations 4. coordination 5. subordination 6. predication: primary and secondary predication 7. the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents 8. agreement 9. government 10. collocation 11. word-combinations and their types 	2
6	Sentence	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. definition of sentence 2. the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements 	2

		3. the problem of one-member sentences 4. the problem of elliptical sentences	
		Total hours:	12

Practical sessions

№	Themes	Key questions	Hours
1	Language and speech levels. Grammatical structure of English	1 Language and Speech Levels The Grammatical Structure of a Language Five Signals of Syntactic Structure Lexical and Grammatical Meaning	2
2	Problems of morphemic analysis	2 The Morphemic Structure of the English Language The Types of Morphemes	2
3	Grammatical categories. Parts of speech	3 The Grammatical Categories Parts of Speech R. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria	2
4	Parts of speech	4 The Noun The Number and Case in Modern English Nouns The Category of Case in Nouns Gender in Modern English The Adjective The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison Substantivization of Adjectives The Verb Verb as a Part of Speech The Types of Verbs Notional and Functional Verbs Regular and Irregular Verbs Transitive and Intransitive Verbs The Grammatical Categories of Verbs The Category of Voice The Grammatical Category of Mood Other Categories of Verbs	2

		The Category of Posteriority The Categories of Number and Person	
5	Syntax	5 Syntax The Subject - matter of Syntax The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words Types of Syntactic Relations Word-Combinations and Their Types The Types of Co-ordinate Phrases The Types of Subordinate Phrases The Types of Predicative Phrases	2
6	Sentence	6 Sentence The Types of Sentences Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker Interrogative Sentences Exclamatory Sentences Imperative Sentences Elliptical Sentences One -member Sentences Composite Sentences Compound Sentences Complex Sentences The Types of Complex Sentences The Structural Approach to Composite Sentences	2
		Total hours:	12

1.5. Список мультимедиа средств и презентаций.

- Презентации на 6 тем;
- Презентации на самостоятельные работы

**II. РЕЙТИНГОВАЯ РАЗРАБОТКА ПО ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ
«ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА»**

	Виды работ	Количество	Баллы	Всего баллов
1	Т.К.			
	1.1 Практические задания (выполнение практических работ по каждой теме, учитывается грамотность)	5	2,5	12,5
	1.2 Устные ответы на вопросы после каждой темы. Учитывается самостоятельность суждения, выводы, заключения информации и конспекты из источников.	5	2,5	12,5
	1.3 Тестирование	1	5	5
2	П.К.			
	2.1 Письменная работа, учитывается собственное мнение, использование материалов с ИНТЕРНЕТА. 2.2 Интервью, знание изложенного материала, умение рассуждать, делать выводы.	1	15	15
3	И.К.			
	3.1 Устные ответы, учитывается самостоятельное приобретение знаний с разнообразных источников, литература.			

	3.2 Письменная работа, учитывается грамотность, последовательность изложения материала.	1	30	30
4	С. Р.			
	4.1 Устные ответы	3	2,5	7,5
	4.2 ИНТЕРНЕТ,	2	2,5	5
	4.3 Рефераты	3	2,5	7,5
	4.4 Презентации: учитывается творческий подход (CD наглядность, слайды.)	2	2,5	5
	Итого			100 баллов

Критерии оценок по теоретической грамматике

Т.К.

Студент получает от 1 до 1,5 балла за работу на лекциях в случае грамотного ведения конспектов, умения выделить основную информацию из всего услышанного, вычленить научную проблему, предложить свое решение.

Студент получает от 0,5 до 1 баллов за работу на лекциях в случае грамотного ведения конспектов, умения выделить основную информацию.

Студент получает от 2,15 до 2,5 баллов за активное участие в семинарах, использование материалов лекций, дополнительной литературы, всестороннее освещение вопросов семинаров, умение аргументировано доказывать свою точку зрения.

Студент получает от 1,7 до 2,1 баллов за активное участие в семинарах, использование материалов лекций и дополнительной литературы.

Студент получает от 1,4 до 1,7 баллов за участие в семинарах, использование материалов лекций.

Студент получает от 2,15 до 2,5 баллов за письменные работы в случае всестороннего освещения вопросов, умения аргументировано доказывать свою точку зрения, излагать материал без грамматических и стилистических ошибок.

Студент получает 1,7 до 2,1 баллов в случае всестороннего освещения вопросов, не допуская при этом грамматических и стилистических ошибок.

Студент получает от 1,4 до 1,7 баллов за участие в семинарах, использование материалов лекций.

Тестирование

Студент получает от 4,3 до 5 баллов при выполнении тестовых заданий на 86 и 100 %

Студент получает от 3,5 до 4,3 баллов при выполнении тестовых заданий на 71 и 85 %

Студент получает от 2,8 до 3,5 баллов при выполнении тестовых заданий на 56 и 70 %

П.К.

Студент получает от 12,9 до 15 баллов за устный ответ во время промежуточного контроля в случае свободного, полного изложения материала, демонстрируя хорошие навыки говорения и умение аргументировано отвечать на вопросы.

Студент получает от 10,65 до 12,9 баллов в случае достаточного изложения материала, демонстрируя хорошие навыки говорения.

Студент получает от 8,4 до 10,65 баллов в случае неполного изложения материала и допущения ошибок в устной речи и посменной работе.

Студент получает от 12,9 до 15 баллов за презентацию во время промежуточного контроля в случае свободного, полного изложения материала, демонстрируя хорошие навыки говорения и умение аргументировано отвечать на вопросы.

Студент получает от 10,65 до 12,9 баллов в случае достаточного изложения материала, демонстрируя хорошие навыки говорения.

Студент получает от 8,4 до 10,65 баллов в случае неполного изложения материала и допущения ошибок в устной речи.

И.К.

Студент получает от 25,8 до 30 баллов на итоговом письменном экзамене, если он всесторонне раскрыл поставленную тему, изложил материал, не допуская грамматических или стилистических ошибок.

Студент получает от 21,3 до 25,8 баллов, если он всесторонне раскрыл поставленную тему, допустив при этом незначительное количество грамматических или стилистических ошибок.

Студент получает от 16,8 до 21,3 баллов, если предложенная тема раскрыта неполностью, допущены серьезные грамматические и стилистические ошибки.

Студент получает от 25,8 до 30 баллов на устном экзамене в случае полного изложения материала, демонстрируя хорошие навыки говорения и умение аргументировано отвечать на вопросы.

Студент получает от 21,3 до 25,8 баллов в случае достаточного изложения материала, демонстрируя хорошие навыки говорения.

Студент получает от 16,8 до 21,3 баллов в случае неполного изложения материала и допущения ошибок в устной речи.

Тестирование

Студент получает от 25,8 до 30 баллов при выполнении тестовых заданий на 86 и 100 %

Студент получает от 21,3 до 25,8 баллов при выполнении тестовых заданий на 71 и 85 %

Студент получает от 16,8 до 21,3 баллов при выполнении тестовых заданий на 56 и 70 %

III. КОНЦЕПТУАЛЬНЫЕ ОСНОВЫ ПРЕДМЕТА.

This complex has been written primarily for undergraduate and graduate students of English as a foreign or second language. It is also addressed to tutors and others interested in applying a broadly functional approach to language teaching in higher education. It assumes an intermediate standard of knowledge and practical handling of the language and, from this point of departure, seeks to fulfill the following aims:

- 1 to further students' knowledge of English through exploration and analysis;
- 2 to help students acquire a global vision of English, rather than concentrate on unrelated areas;
- 3 to see a grammar as providing a means of understanding the relation of form to meaning, and meaning to function, in context;
- 4 to provide a basic terminology which, within this framework, will enable students to make these relationships explicit.

While not pretending to be exhaustive, which would be impossible, its wide coverage and functional approach have been found appropriate not only in first-degree courses but also in postgraduate courses and as a background resource for courses, publications and work on translation, stylistics, reading projects and discourse studies.

A functional approach to grammar we distinguish several ways in which grammar is functional. In the first place, adopting a broadly systemic-functional view, we base our approach on the assumption that all languages fulfill two higher-level or meta-functions in our lives. One is to express our interpretation of the world as we experience it (sometimes called the 'ideational' or the 'representational' function); the other is to interact with others in order to bring about Changes in the environment (the 'interpersonal' function). The organization of the message in such a way as to enable representation and interaction to cohere represents a third (the 'textual' meta-function), and this, too, is given its place in a functional grammar.

In the second place, the regular patterns of different kinds that can be distinguished reflect the uses which a language serves. For instance, the structural patterns known as 'declarative', 'interrogative' and 'imperative' serve the purposes of expressing a multitude of types of social behaviour. In this area we draw on the pragmatic concepts of speech act, politeness, relevance and inference to explain how speakers use and interpret linguistic forms and sequences in English within cultural settings.

When we come to describe the more detailed mechanisms of English, we also make use of the notion of 'function' to describe syntactic categories such as Subjects and Objects, semantic roles such as Agent and informational categories such as Theme and Rheme, Given and New. These different types of function constitute autonomous dimensions of analysis, so that there is no one-to-one relationship between them. Rather, we shall find

that they can conflate together in different ways, the choice of one or other being largely determined by such factors as context, both situational and linguistic, particularly what has gone before in the message, by the speaker–hearer relationship and by speakers' communicative purposes.

Third, this type of grammar is functional in that each linguistic element is seen not in isolation but in relation to others, since it has potential to realise different functions. Structural patterns are seen as configurations of functions, whether of participants and processes, of modifiers and head of, for instance, a noun, or of Subject, verb and Complements, among others. These in turn are realised in a variety of ways according to the communicative effect desired. Speakers and writers are free, within the resources a particular language displays, to choose those patterns which best carry out their communicative purposes at every stage of their interaction with other speakers and readers.

With these considerations in mind, the present complex has been designed to place meaning firmly within the grammar and, by stressing the meaningful functions of grammatical forms and structures, to offer a description of the grammatical phenomena of English in use, both in speech and writing. This book, we hope, may serve as a foundation for further study in specific areas or as a resource for the designing of other materials for specific purposes.

IV. ТЕХНОЛОГИИ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ПРЕДМЕТА (ФОРМА ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ, МЕТОДЫ И СРЕДСТВА, ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКИЕ КАРТЫ).

Технология преподавания предмета:

Форма образования: очная (дневная)

Методы и средства: интерактивный метод, работа в больших группах и минигруппах, методы аналитического анализа, метод презентации, блиц-опрос, метод проблемного вопроса, кейс-стади, кластер, метод формирования личного мнения.

Технологические карты: на каждое занятие (по темам).

**ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
ТЕМА 1. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH. GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE
ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА №1 [PRESENTATION](#)**

STEPS	ACTIVITY	TIME
1	<p>Identified aims of the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To acquaint the students with the notions of “language and speech” - To teach the students use these notions while speaking about the language - To teach them differentiate language and speech - To acquaint the students with the notions of “grammatical structure” - To teach the students lexical and grammatical meanings - To teach them about morphological types of the languages <p>The main notions: language and speech levels, primary and secondary levels, units of levels, the difference between language and speech, grammatical structure, lexical and grammatical meanings, morphological types of languages, the order of words, the functional words, the stress and intonation, the grammatical inflections, sound changes, suppletion.</p> <p>The form of the lesson: working in groups and separately</p> <p>Equipment: book, desk, distributing materials etc.</p> <p>Methods & methodology: working with a book, method of explanation, practical exercises, method of analysis & synthesis</p>	15
2	<p>Lecture 1</p> <p>To speak about:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Language 2. Speech 3. Language and speech levels 4. Grammatical structure 5. Lexical and grammatical meanings 6. The place of the English language 	20
3	<p>Study questions for seminar:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue? 2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech? 3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels? 4. What does phonetical - phonological level study? 5. What does morphological level study? 6. What does lexicological level study? 7. Describe all the grammatical means of English. 8. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language? 9. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings? 	15
4	Self-independent work	20
5	Home assignment	10

**ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
ТЕМА 2. PROBLEMS OF MORPHEMIC ANALYSIS
ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА №2 [\[PRESENTATION\]](#)**

STEPS	ACTIVITY	TIME
1	<p>Identified aims of the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To acquaint the students with the notions of “morphemic analysis” - To acquaint the students with morphemes, morphs and allomorphs - To teach them analyze morphemic structures <p>The main notions: morphemic analysis, morpheme, morph, allomorph, types of morpheme.</p> <p>The form of the lesson: working in groups and separately</p> <p>Equipment: book, desk, distributing materials etc.</p> <p>Methods & methodology: working with a book, method of explanation, practical exercises, method of analysis & synthesis</p>	15
2	<p>Lecture 2</p> <p>To speak about:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Morpheme, morph, allomorph 2. Morphemic structure of the language 3. Morphemic analysis 	20
3	<p>Study questions for seminar:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What operation is called "morphemic analysis?" 2. What are the procedures for revealing morphemes suggested by Z. Harris and Ch. Hockett? 3. What is a morpheme? 4. What is a morph? 5. What is an allomorph? 6. What are the criteria to classify morphemes? 7. What morphemes do you know according to the functional classification? 8. What types of morphemes are distinguished according to the criterion of number correlation between form and content? 	15
4	Self-independent work	20
5	Home assignment	10

**ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
ТЕМА 3. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES. PARTS OF SPEECH
ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА №3 PRESENTATION**

STEPS	ACTIVITY	TIME
1	<p>Identified aims of the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To acquaint the students with the notions of “categorization” - To teach the students about grammatical categories of the language - To acquaint the students with the notion “opposition” - To acquaint the students with the parts of speech - To teach the students about contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech - To teach them differentiate notional and functional parts of speech <p>The main notions: categorization, grammatical category, opposition, grammatical meaning, grammatical means, parts of speech, notional and functional parts of speech, American Descriptive School, structural approach, Khaimovich and Rogovskaya criteria.</p> <p>The form of the lesson: working in groups and separately</p> <p>Equipment: book, desk, distributing materials etc.</p> <p>Methods & methodology: working with a book, method of explanation, practical exercises, method of analysis & synthesis</p>	15
2	<p>Lecture 3</p> <p>To speak about:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Categorization 2. Grammatical categories 3. Opposition 4. Classifications of parts of speech 5. Notional and functional parts of speech 6. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya’s criteria and classification 	20
3	<p>Study questions for seminar:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is “categorization”? 2. What kinds of conceptions are there about the categories of the language? 3. What is the opinion of Blokh about grammatical category? 4. What is opposition? 5. Name the types of grammatical categories. 8. What tendencies to classify parts of speech are mentioned? 8. What is Fries’ classification? 9. What are notional parts of speech? 10. What are functional parts of speech? 12. What can you say about Khaimovich and Rogovskaya’s classification? 	15
4	Self-independent work	20
5	Home assignment	10

**ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
ТЕМА 4. PARTS OF SPEECH. NOUN. ADJECTIVE. VERB
ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА №4 PRESENTATION**

STEPS	ACTIVITY	TIME
1	<p>Identified aims of the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To acquaint the students with the notions of “noun”, “adjective”, “verb” - To teach the students about grammatical categories of the noun, adjective and verb <p>The main notions: noun, number, gender, case, adjective, comparison, verb, tense, aspect, transitive, intransitive.</p> <p>The form of the lesson: working in groups and separately</p> <p>Equipment: book, desk, distributing materials etc.</p> <p>Methods & methodology: working with a book, method of explanation, practical exercises, method of analysis & synthesis</p>	15
2	<p>Lecture 4</p> <p>To speak about:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Noun 2. Adjective 3. Verb 	20
3	<p>Study questions for seminar:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What peculiar features of nouns do you know? 2. How many grammatical categories of nouns do you know? 3. What do you understand by regular and irregular formation of plural of nouns? 4. What means of irregular formation of plural meaning do you know? 5. What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives? 6. Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives? 7. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed? 8. What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most? 9. What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change? 10. What are the most important features of verbs? 11. What are the criteria for classification of verbs? 12. What verbs are called non-finite? 13. What verbs are called irregular? 14. How many basic forms of the verb do you know? 15. What functional verbs do you know? 16. What is the difference between auxiliary and link-verbs? 	15
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**ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
ТЕМА 5. SYNTAX
ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА №5 PRESENTATION**

STEPS	ACTIVITY	TIME
1	<p>Identified aims of the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To acquaint the students with the notions of “syntax” - To teach the students about different word relations - To acquaint the students with syntactic and predicative relations <p>The main notions: syntax, paradigmatic, syntagmatic, agreement, government, collocation. The form of the lesson: working in groups and separately Equipment: book, desk, distributing materials etc. Methods & methodology: working with a book, method of explanation, practical exercises, method of analysis & synthesis</p>	15
2	<p>Lecture 5 To speak about: 1. Syntax 2. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations 3. Agreement, government, collocation, etc.</p>	20
3	<p>Study questions for seminar:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What types of linguistic relations between words do you know? 2. What relation is called paradigmatic? 3. What relation is called syntagmatic? 4. What is agreement? 5. What is government? 6. What is collocation? 7. Are there agreement, government and collocation in your native language? 8. What relation between words are called syntactic? 9. What relation is called predicative? 	15
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5	Home assignment	10

**ТЕХНОЛОГИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ
ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА
ТЕМА 6. SENTENCE
ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА №6 PRESENTATION**

STEPS	ACTIVITY	TIME
1	<p>Identified aims of the lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To acquaint the students with the notions of “sentence” - To acquaint the students with several theories about the sentence - To teach them differentiate primary and secondary predication - To teach them about the classification of the sentences <p>The main notions: sentence, linguistic unit, primary predication, secondary predication, one-member sentence, two-member sentence, elliptical sentence.</p> <p>The form of the lesson: working in groups and separately</p> <p>Equipment: book, desk, distributing materials etc.</p> <p>Methods & methodology: working with a book, method of explanation, practical exercises, method of analysis & synthesis</p>	15
2	<p>Lecture 6</p> <p>To speak about:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Sentence as a linguistic unit 2. Theories about the sentence 3. Classification of the sentences 	20
3	<p>Study questions for seminar:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What linguistic unit is called a sentence? 2. What are the main features of sentences? 3. What theories on sentence do you know? 4. What is the difference between primary and secondary predication? 5. What criteria are used to classify sentences? 6. What do you understand by structural classification of sentences? 7. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the aim of the speaker? 8. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence? 9. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences? 10. What sentences are called elliptical? 11. What is "syntagmatically restored" and "paradigmatically restored" elliptical sentences? 12. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence? 13. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences? 14. What sentences are called elliptical? 	15
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LECTURE 1 (PART 1) PRESENTATION

Language and Speech Levels

Problems to be discussed

- language and speech levels
- primary and secondary levels
- units of levels
- the difference between language and speech

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non- basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone

morphological level: morpheme/morph

lexicological level: lexeme/lex

Syntax - minor: sentence

Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".(12)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a

generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".(12)

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

language is abstract and speech is concrete;

language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;

language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;

language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: low and battle. The sound "l" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs,

they are. /t/, /d/, /ɪd/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: "lexeme" for language and "lex" for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between "phoneme" and "phone" and "morpheme" and "morph". "Lexeme" is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on. There may be "allolexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexemes" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morpheme are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "Sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which

meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

Study questions

1. How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue?
2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?
3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?
4. Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?
5. How many basic or primary levels are there in language and speech?
6. What's the difference between language levels and speech levels?
7. Are there special terms for language and speech levels?
8. What does phonetical - phonological level study?
9. What does morphological level study?
10. What does lexicological level study?
11. What does syntax - minor study?
12. What does syntax - major study?
13. Do the levels function separately in speech or they function as one body?
14. What is the function of the word "allo"?

LECTURE 1 (PART 2) [\[PRESENTATION\]](#)

The Grammatical Structure of a Language

Problems to be discussed

- the meanings of the notion of "Grammatical Structure"
- the lexical and grammatical meanings
- the grammatical structure of languages from the point of view of general linguistics
- the morphological types of languages and the place of the English language in this typology
- the grammatical means of the English language

- **the order of words**
- **the functional words**
- **the stress and intonation**
- **the grammatical inflections**
- **sound changes**
- **suppletion**

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that "several actors acted upon some objects". This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it. We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance". The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words. Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D. The man landed the jet plane safely N V A N D Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine.) are of this type.

The inflectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the

limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words - is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d ... The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like -s, -ed, -d are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word - changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g. He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of shall, will considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of invite - invited - shall invite we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes -s, -ed.

Study questions

1. What do you understand by "grammatical structure of a language"?
2. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?
3. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?
4. Describe all the grammatical means of English.
5. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?
6. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?

LECTURE 2 [PRESENTATION](#)

The Morphemic Structure of the English Language

Problems to be discussed:

- what operation is called "Morphemic analysis?"
- language and speech levels and their corresponding units
- morpheme-morph-allomorph
- types of morphemes from the point of view of their:

a) function

b) number correlation between form and meaning.

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris(27) "The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of "the same" element".

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they:

have the same meaning;

never occur in identical environments and

have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes

morphophonemics

Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett (28):

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:

they have the same meaning;
they are in non-contrastive distribution;
the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities, choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

tactical simplicity
morphophonemic simplicity
conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion. (27)

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

functional
number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are

associated with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical - free and lexical - bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like- friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and so on. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical - grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical - bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical - free morphemes. The lexical - bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, - (e)s, -(e)d and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical - free and grammatical - bound. The grammatical - free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical - bound ones are usually attached to some lexical - free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl's bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask - asks

high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: "asks" is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection "s". In its counterpart there's no marker like "s" but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb "ask" is not in the third person, singular number. Such morphemes are called "zero". In the second example the adjective "higher" is in the comparative degree, because of the "- er" while its counterpart "high" is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it's a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there's a marker which has not a concrete meaning, i.e. there's neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state - s - man. The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But "s" has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence "is" and " - ing" express one meaning: a continuous action. Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and content.

Study questions

1. What operation is called "morphemic analysis?"
2. What are the procedures for revealing morphemes suggested by Z. Harris and Ch. Hockett?
3. What is a morpheme?
4. What is a morph?
5. What is an allomorph?
6. What are the criteria to classify morphemes?
7. What morphemes do you know according to the functional classification?
8. What types of morphemes are distinguished according to the criterion of number correlation between form and content?

LECTURE 3 (PART 1) PRESENTATION

The Grammatical Categories

Problems to be discussed:

- **what is categorization**
- **what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?**
- **what is "opposition"?**
- **the types of grammatical categories.**

Any research presupposes bringing into certain order the material being studied. The issue under the consideration is also an attempt to generalize the grammatical means of language.

There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin (13) "a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression". It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning and grammatical means.

M.Y. Blokh (6), (7) explains it as follows: "As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical "form", a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called "grammatical oppositions".

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features:

common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek).

As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed, by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...нинг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (...им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

The doctrines mentioned above one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

One of the most consistent theories of the grammatical categories is the one that is suggested by L. Barkhudarov.

(2), (3)

According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:

general grammatical meaning;

this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;

the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:

the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category. English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:

it has general grammatical meaning of number;

it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;

singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;

singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. Schematically this can be shown as follows:

Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;

The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;

They are opposed to each - other;

They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

LECTURE 3 (PART 2) [\[PRESENTATION\]](#)

Parts of Speech

Problems to be discussed:

- brief history of grouping words to parts of speech**
- contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech**
- structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)**
- notional and functional parts of speech**

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre - structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form. To this group of scientists H. Sweet (42), O. Jespersen (33), (34), O. Curme (26), B. Ilyish (15) and other grammarians can be included.

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution. The representatives of the tendency are: Ch. Fries (31), (32), W. Francis (30), A. Hill (44) and others.

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25) One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's (42) classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles

II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or 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 particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords. O. Jespersen. (34)

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications. He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should be kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)

2. Adjectives

In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns".

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)

4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")

5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' (31), (32) classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1st class), verb (2nd class), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

Woggles ugged diggles

Uggs woggled diggs

Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words - we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern. All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

The team went there

Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some

three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert was

good

food

coffee

taste

The words of this list he called class 1 words.

The word "was" and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words.

In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

Class A Words

the concert was good

the a/an every

no my our

one all both

that some John's

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

Group B - modal verbs
adverbs

Group I - interrogative pr-n's and

Group C - n.p.not

Group J - subordinating conj-s

Group D - adverbs of degree

Group K- interjections

Group E - coordinating conj-s.

Group L- the words yes and no

Group F - prepositions
look, say, listen

Group M - attention giving signals

Group G - the aux-v. do

Group N - the word please

Group H - introductory there sentences.

Group O - let us, let in request

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.

In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.

Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money.

The boys have given the money. (32)

Russian grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. His word-groups are:

	Notional words	Function words
1.	Nouns	link - verbs
2.	Adjectives	prepositions conjunctions
3.	Numerals	modifying function words
4.	Pronouns	(article, particle)
5.	Adverbs	only, even, not
6.	Verbs	

R. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria

Lexico - grammatical meaning of words

Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)

Grammatical categories of words.

Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)

Their function in a sentence.

Their Classification

Nouns

Modal words

Adjectives	Prepositions
Pronouns	Conjunctions
Numerals	Particles (just, yet, else, alone)
Verbs	Interjections
Adverbs	Articles
Adlinks (the cat. of state)	Response words (yes, no)
asleep, alive	

As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of speech are features 1, 4 and 5. B. A. Ilyish (15) distinguishes three criteria:

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:
 - the method of combining the word with other ones
 - the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

Nouns	Adverbs
Adjective	Prepositions
Pronoun	Conjunctions
Numerals	Particles
Statives (asleep, afraid)	Modal words
Verbs	Interjections

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling (4). Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

Nouns	Verbs
Articles	Prepositions
Pronouns	Conjunctions
Adjectives	Particles
Adverbs	Modal words
Numerals	Interjections

We find another approach of those authors to the words of English.

All the words are divided into two main classes: notional words and function - words: connectives, determinatives

Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

- connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;

- determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional - which are rather distinct.

Study questions

1. What is “categorization”?
2. What kinds of conceptions are there about the categories of the language?
3. What is the opinion of Blokh about grammatical category?
4. What is opposition?
5. Name the types of grammatical categories.
8. What tendencies to classify parts of speech are mentioned?
8. What is Fries' classification?
9. What are notional parts of speech?
10. What are functional parts of speech?
12. What can you say about Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's classification?

LECTURE 4 (PART 1) [\[PRESENTATION\]](#)

The Noun

Problems to be discussed:

- **nouns as a part of speech**
- **the grammatical categories of nouns**
- **number**
- **case**
- **the meaning of gender in Modern English**

- gender and sex.

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The noun is classified into a separate word - group because:

they all have the same lexical - grammatical meaning :

substance / thing

according to their form - they've two grammatical categories:

number and case

they all have typical stem-building elements:

- er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...

typical combinability with other words:

most often left-hand combinability

function - the most characteristic feature of nouns is - they can be observed in all syntactic functions but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

When the quality of nouns are described we make use of adjectives:

big, red apple

energetic crisis

a long, dusty track and others.

When the quantity and order of nouns are described the numerals are to be used:
the six continents

25th anniversary

12 students....

When we denote the action of substances we make use of the verbs: An apple-tree grows in the garden

Russia assisted India in Mounting Bokaro Steel Plant

When the relation of nouns to other words are described we make wide use of prepositions: a window of the school

to the park

at the construction of the bridge

In all these cases with the exception of verbs the noun is characterized with left-hand combinability / in overwhelming majority/. So far as to the verbs are concerned they may both precede and follow them.

The Number and Case in Modern English Nouns

Number is a grammatical category of nouns which denotes the number of objects, expressed by a word.

In English there are two numbers: singular and plural. The formal signal of the singular number is a zero morpheme, while the usual signal of plurality -/e/s. The formation of plural by means -/e/s is considered to be productive, but in Modern English there are some non-productive types of plural number, as for instance:

suffix - en : ox - oxen

variation of vowels in the root of a word:

tooth-teeth; goose-geese; mouse-mice; man-men,

variation of vowels of the root + suffix- "ren" children;

homonymous forms for both sing and plural:

sheep - sheep deer - deer swine - swine

This type of formation of plurality was a norm for the whole group of words in Old English, but in Modern English only some words have been preserved.

Non-productive type of number we find in some borrowed words from Latin and Greek, such as: datum - data basis - bases /si:z/

memorandum - memoranda crisis - crises /si:z/

formula - formulae /i: / analysis - analyses /si:z/

These words form their plural as per the norms of Latin and Greek languages, though some of them form their plural according to English: formulas, memorandums.

With regard to the category of number English nouns fall under two subclasses: countable and uncountable. The latter is again subdivided into those having no plural form and those having no singular. The former type is called Pluralia tantum: clothes, goods, the latter - singularia tantum: milk, water.

The lexical and grammatical morphemes of a word linked together so closely that sometimes it seems impossible to separate them. The relation between foot and feet, goose and geese, man and men is similar to the relation between.

bag - bags; desk - desks

The examples above remind us the facts of the Arabic language. In this language lexical morphemes are usually consist of consonants. They are united with vocalic morphemes grammatical in character and occurring between consonants, e.g., Ktb

ktaab - a book

kutub - books

katab - he wrote

kaatib - clerk

kattab - he dictated.

In these examples consonants Ktb are lexical morphemes as well as English f..t, g...s, m...n and so on. But there are two different things here to be distinguished. Arabic is a Semitic synthetic language while English is an Indo-European analytical one. If a discontinuous lexical morpheme is characteristic to the system of Arabic, for English it is an exception. English forms its plural forms by - /e/ s.

Some linguists consider the case as above as internal inflection inserted into a lexical one / -u- / and / - i : - // as it is in Arabic / and others think of vowel change / u > i : /. To be consistent we'll regard nouns above as follows: sing. Man - pl /man + s/ = men

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed on nouns which express things as objects consisting of two or more parts, e.g. trousers, scissors. Nouns like clothes, sweets must also be referred to pluralia tantum since they denote collective meaning. The - s, here is lexicalized and developed into an inseparable part of the stem. The suffix here is no longer a grammatical morpheme.

In compound nouns both the 1st and 2nd components may be pluralized: father-in-law / 1st /, suitcase / 2nd /, manservant—menservants etc.

The Category of Case in Nouns

The problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on the different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure. Case is an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word. H. Sweet's (42) conception of the number of cases in English doubtful. He is not sure whether in English there are five or two cases. He writes: "English has only one inflected case, the genitive /man's, men's/, the uninflected base constituting the common case / man, men /, which is equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of such a language as Latin".

As we see he is under a certain influence of the Latin grammar. If we treat the English language out of the facts of Latin, then we'll really have to acknowledge the existence of five cases. But the facts of English made Sweet identify only two.

Curme (26) considers that of many case endings once used English has preserved only one, - 1st of the genitive. Apart from the genitive relation, these grammatical relations are now indicated by the position of the noun with regard to the verb or prepositions which have taken the place of the old inflectional endings / He distinguishes four cases:

Nominative-performs 3 functions:

subject, predicate and direct object

Accusative - performs 3 functions: object, adverbial modifier, predicate.

The dog bit my brother /obj./

He stayed an hour /adverbial acc/

I believed to be him /predicate/

Dative: When an action directed toward smb:

He makes coat for John.

Genitive: girl's ...

Jespersen (33), (34) distinguishes two cases: common and genitive.

M. Bryant (24) is of the same opinion:

A. Whitehall (43) distinguishes two cases in nouns on analogy with the pronouns which can substitute for them: nominative and objective.

He says: "The so-called possessive case is best thought of as a method of transforming a noun into a modifier" ...

Among the Russian grammarians we find different views on the problem of case system in Modern English nouns.

B.A. Ilyish (15) considers that - 's is no longer a case inflexion in the classical sense of a word. Unlike such classical inflections, -'s may be attached:

to adverbs: yesterday's events

to a word group: Mary and John's apartment

to a whole clause: the man I saw yesterday's son.

Ilyish concludes that the - 's morpheme gradually develops into a "form-word", a kind of particle serving to convey the meanings of belonging, possession".

G.U. Vorontsova (11) does not recognize -'s as case morpheme. She treats it as a "postposition", "a purely syntactical form - word resembling a preposition", used as a sign of syntactical dependence". Her arguments are as follows:

The use of -'s is optional /her brother's, of her brother/.

It is used with a limited group of nouns outside which it occurs very seldom.

-'s is used both in the singular and in the plural which is not incident to case morphemes.

e.g. мальчик - а - мальчиков

It occurs in very few plurals, only those with the irregular formation of the plural member: oxen's, but cows

-'s does not make an inseparable part of the structure of word. It may be placed at some distance from the head-word of an attributive group.

To Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) -'s still function as a case morpheme, because:

The-'s morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups /in 96 %/.

It's general meaning - "the relation of a noun to another word" - is a typical case meaning.

The fact that -'s occurs, as a rule, with a more or less limited group of words bears testimony to its not being a "preposition like form word". The use of the preposition is determined, chiefly by the noun it introduces: on /in/ under the table ...

oxen's - cows' /z/, /0/ and /of/ alternants: identical meanings and in complementary distribution.

-'s not a "preposition like word" since it has no vowel as it is found in other prepositions in English.

Gender in Modern English

The term "gender" is opposed to the term "sex" (пол). The first term (gender) is a pure grammatical term which deals with the grammatical expression of grammatical gender, i.e. the expression of masculine, feminine and neuter genders. The second word (sex) is used as a common word for both male and female. Thus, it is often used to denote biological notions.

Speaking about the Modern English language we can say that the English nouns do not have a grammatical category of gender. It is because that the nouns do not have constant grammatical means to express the gender distinctions. Such a grammatical category is found in Russian which is one the most important grammatical phenomenon in this language "категория рода существительного - это несловоизменяемая синтагматически выявленная морфологическая категория, выражающаяся в способности существительного в формах единственного числа относиться избирательно к родовым формам согласуемой (в сказуемом - координируемой) с ним словоформы: письменный стол, большое дерево; Вечер наступил; Девочка гуляла бы; Окно открыто; Ночь холодная. Морфологическая категория рода выявляется в формах единственного числа, однако она принадлежит существительному как слову в целом, во всей системе его форм. Категорию рода образуют три незамкнутых ряда морфологических форм, в каждый такой ряд входят формы разных слов, объединённых общим для них морфологическим значением рода - мужского, женского или среднего".

Морфологическое значение рода существительного - это такое значение, которое обуславливает собою: 1) способность существительных определяться прилагательными со следующими флексиями в форме именительного падежа единственного числа: - ой, -ий, ый - мужской род (большой стол, синий свет, добрый человек), -ая, -яя - женский род (большая книга, синяя тетрадь); -ое, -ее - средний род (большое окно, синее небо)..." (19)

It becomes clear that in Russian we find three grammatical genders -masculine, feminine and neuter as well as in the personal pronouns in the 3rd person singular - он, она, оно. These pronouns, as a rule, replace nouns in accordance with their gender. Nouns denoting persons may be either masculine or feminine - according to the sex of the person usually denoted by them. Nouns denoting inanimate objects may be of masculine, feminine and neuter.

If nouns in the nominative case (им. падеж) singular form have no special ending, and no soft sign (мягкий знак) at the end, they are included into the masculine gender: дом, семья.

If in the same case and form they have the endings -а or -я (ручка, станция), they are included into the feminine gender.

If nouns have the endings -о or -е (радио, замечание) they are in neutral gender.

Nouns ending in "ь" (soft sign - мягкий знак) are either masculine (портфель - он) or feminine (тетрадь - она).

In the English language we do not find such phenomenon. Because of this fact the Russian and the most other foreign grammarians think that English does not have the grammatical category of gender. "English has no gender: the nouns of English cannot be classified in terms of agreement with articles, adjectives (or verbs)" (38), (20)

In old English there were three genders with their own markers. В.А.Ильиш writes the following in this respect: "Three grammatical categories are represented in the OE nouns, just as in many other Germanic and Indo-European languages: gender, number and case. Of these three gender is a lexical-grammatical category, that is, every noun with all its forms belong to gender (masculine, feminine or neuter).

But in Modern English the meaning of gender may be expressed by the help of different other means:

1. gender may be indicated by a change of words that is, by the help of lexic-semantic means: man - woman, cock (rooster) - hen, bull-cow, Arthur, Ann, Edgar, Helen and so on.

2. gender may be indicated by the addition of a word that is, by syntactic means examples: Grandfather - grandmother, manservant - maidservant, male cat - female cat or he cat - she cat and so on.

3. gender may be expressed by the use of suffixes, examples, host - hostess (хозяин - хозяйка), hero - heroine (герой - героиня), tiger - tigress (тигр - тигрица). There are opinions according to which these suffixes are morphological means, thus they are grammatical means and because of this fact one may consider that English has the grammatical category of gender. But it can hardly be accepted.

А.И. Smirnitsky (20) gives convincing counter-arguments on this question. Here it is: "Однако на самом деле и здесь выражение «рода» относится не к грамматике, а к лексике. Слово actor - «мужского рода», а actress - «женского рода» потому, что это соответствует реальным внеязыковым фактам, а не вследствие особенностей склонения или каких-либо других формальных грамматических особенностей данных слов. Слово actress по сравнению с actor обозначает реально иное живое существо женского пола, и соотношение actor - actress является по существу таким же, как соотношение слов father отец - mother мать . этот суффикс является не грамматическим, а лексическим, словообразующим. (его можно сопоставить, например, с уменьшительным суффиксом - у в doggy и т.п.). Следовательно, в соотношении actor - actress нет ничего противостоящего общим закономерностям выражения «родовых» различий в системе английских существительных"

There is a regular correspondence between English nouns and the personal pronouns in the third person singular he, she, it. But this correspondence is not equal with the one which is found in Russian. In the Russian language this correspondence is based on both the lexical-semantic and the grammatical aspects but in English it is based on only the lexical-semantic aspect, that is "he" is usually used to indicate real biological male sex, "she" indicates real biological female sex and "It" is used to indicate inanimate objects. It is important to remember that the pronouns he, she, may also be used with regard to inanimate nouns. Such a use of these pronouns is explained by the cultural and historical backgrounds and it has nothing to do with the grammatical expression of the meaning of gender. Examples: moon - she, ship - she, love - he and so on.

Summing up the problem of gender in Modern English, it is important to say that:

gender is the grammatical distinction between; masculine, feminine and neuter;

the lexical - grammatical category of gender existed only in the OE period but in ME (middle English) this category has been lost;

in Modern English we find only lexical-semantic meanings of gender, that is, the gender distinction is based on the semantic principle;

English has certain lexical and syntactic means to express a real biological sex.

Study questions

1. What peculiar features of nouns do you know?
2. How many grammatical categories of nouns do you know?
3. What do you understand by regular and irregular formation of plural of nouns?
4. What means of irregular formation of plural meaning do you know?
5. Does English have the grammatical category of case?
6. What conceptions on the category of case do you know?
7. Is the category of case in English nouns is as stable as it is in your native language?
8. Is there a grammatical category of gender in English nouns?
9. What is the difference between the terms "gender" and "sex"?
10. Compare the gender meanings in English and your native language?

LECTURE 4 (PART 2) [PRESENTATION](#)

The Adjective

Problems to be discussed:

- **the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech**
- **the types of adjectives**
- **the grammatical category of degrees of comparison**
- **the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives**
- **substantivization of adjective Pronouns**

The characteristic features of the adjective as a part of speech are as follows:

their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;

from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;

from the point of view of their combinability 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.

the stem-building affixes are: -ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ir, un-, -pre-, in-...;

their syntactic functions are: attribute and predicative

It is important to point out that in the function of an attribute the adjectives are in most cases used in pre-position; in post- position they are very seldom: time immemorial; chance to come.

The category of comparison of adjectives shows the absolute or relative quality of a substance.

The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison

Not all the adjectives of the English language have the degrees of comparison. From this point of view they fall under two types:

comparable adjectives

non- comparable adjectives

The non-comparable adjectives are relative ones like golden, wooden, silk, cotton, raw and so on.

The comparable ones are qualitative adjectives. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison is the opposition of three individual meanings:

positive degree

comparative degree

superlative degree

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. 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. From the point of view of forming of the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison the qualitative adjectives must be divided into four groups. They are:

1) One and some two syllabic adjectives that form their degrees by the help of inflections - er and -est respectively,

short - shorter - the shortest strong - stronger - the strongest pretty - prettier - the prettiest

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 - further - the furthest (farther - the farthest)

The adjectives that form their degrees by means of suppletion

good - better - the best

bad - worse - the worst

Note: 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).

Many - syllabic adjectives which form their degrees by means of the words "more" and

"most":

interesting - more interesting - the most interesting

beautiful - more beautiful - the most beautiful

So far we have not been referring to the works of grammarians on the problem since the opinions of almost all the grammarians coincide on the questions treated. But so far as to the lexical way of expressing the degrees is concerned we find considerable divergence in its treatment. Some authors treat more beautiful, the most beautiful not as a lexical way of formation of the degrees of comparison but as analytical forms. Their arguments are as follows:

More and -er identical as to their meaning of "higher degree";

Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degree of comparison.

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. And if it is a grammatical

category it cannot be formed by several means, therefore we consider it to be a free syntactic unit which consists of an adverb and a noun.

Different treatment is found with regard to the definite and indefinite articles before most: the most interesting book and a most interesting book.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22): 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".

As has been stated we do not think that there are two homonymous words: most - functional word; most - notional word.

There is only one word - notional /adverb/ which can serve to express the superlative degree by lexical means and since it's a free combination of three notional words any article can be used according to the meaning that is going to be expressed.

The difference in the meaning of the examples above is due to the difference in the means of the definite and indefinite articles.

Substantivization of Adjectives

As is known adjectives under certain circumstances can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns.

B. Khaimovich (22) states that "when adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances but substances possessing these attributes.

B. Khaimovich (22) speaks of two types of substantivization full and partial. 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 (15) 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. (37)

Study questions

What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives?

Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives?

How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed?

What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most?

Are there adjectives that form their degrees of comparison by means of suppletion?

What do you understand by substantivization?

Are the words "more" and "most" lexical or grammatical means when, they form the degrees of comparison of adjectives?

What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change?

LECTURE 4 (PART 3) PRESENTATION

The Verb

Problems to be discussed:

- **the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech**
- **verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech**
- **the types of verbs**
- **the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.**

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like to read, to live, to go, to jump are called verbs because of their following features.

they express the meanings of action and state;

they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;

the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function - predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate; they may be part of the predicate;

verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical function of verbs in speech;

verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:

postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify.)

-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize.)

-ate (activate, captivate.)

prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant.)

mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate.)

un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown.)

de- (depose, depress, derange.) and so on.

The Types of Verbs

The classification of verbs can be undertaken from the following points of view:

- meaning
- form - formation;
- function.

There are three basic forms of the verb in English: infinitive, past indefinite and PII. These forms are kept in mind in classifying verbs.

There are four types of form-formation:

affixation: reads, asked, going ...

variation of sounds: run - ran, may - might, bring - brought ...

suppletive ways: be - is - am - are - was; go - went ...

analytical means: shall come, have asked, is helped ...

There are productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in present-day English verbs.

Affixation is productive, while variation of sounds and suppletion are non-productive.

Notional and Functional Verbs

From the point of view of their meaning verbs fall under two groups: notional and functional.

Notional verbs have full lexical meaning of their own. The majority of verbs fall under this group.

Function verbs differ from notional ones of lacking lexical meaning of their own. They cannot be used independently in the sentence; they are used to furnish certain parts of sentence (very often they are used with predicates).

Function verbs are divided into three: link verbs, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs.

Link verbs are verbs which having combined with nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases and so on add to the whole combination the meaning of process.

In such cases they are used as finite forms of the verb they are part of compound nominal predicates and express voice, tense and other categories.

Modal verbs are small group of verbs which usually express the modal meaning, the speaker's attitude to the action, expressed by the notional verb in the sentence. They lack some grammatical forms like infinitive form, grammatical categories and so on. Thus, they do not have all the categories of verbs. They may express mood and tense since they function as parts of predicates. They lack the non-finite forms.

Besides in present-day English there is another group of verbs which are called auxiliaries. They are used to form analytical forms of verbs. Verbs: to be, to do, to have and so on may be included to this group.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

From the point of view of the formation of the Past Tense verbs are classified into two groups:

Regular verbs which form their basic forms by means of productive suffixes-(e)d. The majority of verbs refer to this class.

Irregular verbs form their basic forms by such non-productive means as:

variation of sounds in the root:

should - would - initial consonant change

begin - began - begun - vowel change of the root

catch - caught - root - vowel and final consonant change

spend - spent - final consonant change;

suppletion:

be - was / were go - went

unchanged forms:

cast - cast - cast

put - put - put

By suppletion we understand the forms of words derived from different roots.

A. Smirnitsky (20) gives the following conditions to recognize suppletive forms of words;

when the meaning of words are identical in their lexical meaning.

when they mutually complement one another, having no parallel opposeemes.

when other words of the same class build up a given opposeemes without suppletivity, i.e. from one root. Thus, we recognize the words be - am, bad - worse as suppletive because they express the same grammatical meanings as the forms of words: light - lighter, big - bigger, work - worked.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs can also be classified from the point of view of their ability of taking objects. In accord with this we distinguish two types of verbs: transitive and intransitive. The former type of verbs are divided into two:

verbs which are combined with direct object: to have a book to find the address

verbs which take prepositional objects: to wait for, to look at, talk about, depend on... To the latter type the following verbs are referred:

verbs expressing state: be, exist, live, sleep, die ...

verbs of motion: go, come, run, arrive, travel ...

verbs expressing the position in space: lie, sit, stand ...

As has been told above in actual research work or in describing linguistic phenomena we do not always find hard-and-fast lines separating one phenomenon from the other. In many cases we come across an intermediate stratum. We find such stratum between transitive and intransitive verbs which is called causative verbs, verbs intransitive in their origin, but some times used as transitive: to fly a kite, to sail a ship, to nod approval ...

The same is found in the construction "cognate object": to live a long life, to die the death of a hero ...

The Grammatical Categories of Verbs

In this question we do not find a generally accepted view-point. B.A. Ilyish (15) identifies six grammatical categories in present-day English verb: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number.

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling distinguish only the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, and mood. Further they note, that the finite forms of the verb have special means expressing person, number and tense. (4)

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (4): out of the eight grammatical categories of the verb, some are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well.

Two of them-voice (ask - be asked), order (ask - have asked) are found in all the verbids, and the third aspect (ask - to be asking) - only in the infinitive.

They distinguish the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, mood, posteriority, person, number.

The Category of Voice

By the category of voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object.

The majority of authors of English theoretical grammars seem to recognize only two voices in English: the active and the passive.

H. Sweet (42), O. Curme (26) recognize two voices. There are such terms, as inverted object, inverted subject and retained object in Sweet's grammar.

The Inverted object is the subject of the passive construction. The Inverted subject is the object of the passive constructions.

The rat was killed by the dog. O. Jespersen (34) calls it "converted subject".

But in the active construction like: "The examiner asked me three questions" either of the object words may be the subject of the passive sentence.

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner.

Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words me and three questions are called retained objects.

H. Poutsma (39) besides the two voices mentioned above finds one more voice - reflexive. He writes: "It has been observed that the meaning of the Greek medium is normally expressed in English by means of reflexive or, less frequently, by reciprocal pronouns". It is because of this H. Poutsma distinguishes in Modern English the third voice. He transfers the system of the Greek grammar into the system of English. He gives the following examples: He got to bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep.

H. Whitehall (43)

This grammarian the traditional terms indirect and direct objects replaced by inner and outer complements (words of position 3 and 4) consequently. The passive voice from his point of view is the motion of the words of position 3 and 4 to position one. The verb is transformed into a word-group introduced by parts of be, become, get and the original subject is hooked into the end of the sentence by means of the preposition by.

Different treatment of the problem is found in theoretical courses written by Russian grammarians

The most of them recognize the existence of the category of voice in present-day English. To this group of scientists we refer A.I. Smirnitsky (20), L. Barkhudarov, L. Steling (14), Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's (22) according to their opinion there are two active and passive voices. But some others maintain that there are three voices in English. Besides the two mentioned they consider the reflexive voice which is expressed by the help of semantically weakened self- pronouns as in the sentence:

He cut himself while shaving.

B.A. Ilyish (15) besides the three voices mentioned distinguishes two more: the reciprocal voice expressed with the help of each-other, one another and the neuter ("middle") voice in such sentences as: The door opened. The college was filling up.

The conception reminds us Poutsma's view. (39) He writes: "A passive meaning may also not seldom be observed in verbs that have thrown off the reflexive pronoun and have, consequently, become intransitive. Thus, we find it more or less distinctly in the verbs used in: Her eyes filled with tears ..."

We cannot but agree with arguments against these theories expressed by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: "These theories do not carry much conviction, because:

1) in cases like he washed himself it is not the verb that is reflexive but that pronoun himself used as a direct object;

washed and himself are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings;

if we regard washed himself as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender, person, non-person (washed himself-washed itself), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word-group washed himself;

similar objection can be raised against regarding washed each-other, washed one another as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between "each other" and "one another" would become a grammatical category of the verb;

A number of verbs express the reflexive meanings without the corresponding pronouns: He always washes in cold water. Kiss and be friends.

The grammatical categories of voice is formed by the opposition of covert and overt morphemes. The active voice is formed by a zero marker: while the passive voice is formed by (be-ed). So the active voice is the unmarked one and the passive-marked.

To ask- to be asked

The morpheme of the marked form we may call a discontinuous morpheme.

From the point of view of some grammarians O. Jespersen (33), O. Curme (26), G. Vorontsova (11) verbs get / become + Participle II are passive constructions. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) seem to be right when they say that in such constructions get / become always retain lexical meanings.

Different opinions are observed as to the P II.

V. Vorontsova (11), L. Barkhudarov and D. Steling (4) the combination be + PII in all cases treat as a passive voice if PII is not adjectivized (if particles very, too and adverbs of degree more (most) do not precede PII on the ground that PII first and foremost, a verb, the idea of state not being an evident to this structure but resulting from the lexical meaning of the verb and the context it occurs in).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) arguing against this conception write that in such cases as: His duty is fulfilled we deal with a link verb +PII since:

it does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action:

The sentence correspond rather He has fulfilled his duty, as the perfective meaning of Participle II is particularly prominent.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

The problem of the category of mood i.e., the distinction, between the real and unreal expressed by the corresponding forms of the verb is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. The main theoretical difficulty is due:

to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality and

to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality. Another difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries should would, may (might) which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

Opinions differ in the establishment of the number of moods in English.

Below we'll consider views of some grammarians on the problem.

H. Sweet (42): "By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".

There are two moods in English which oppose to each other

Thought -form fact mood

The thought- form is divided into 3 moods:

conditional mood-the combination of should and would with the infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.

permissive mood-the combination of may/might with the infinitive.

compulsive mood-the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine. If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do.

G.O. Curme (26): "Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker".

He distinguishes three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.

Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.

The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopeless, likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality;

I desire that he go at once.

I fear he may come too late.

I would have bought it if I had had money.

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action expressed by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive are found in almost all the grammars of Russian grammarians. We say «almost» because Barkhudarov and Steling (4) consider only the first and third.

in the indicative mood the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality;

in the imperative mood the speaker urges the listener to perform some action.

in subjunctive mood the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

As to the number of mood we do not find common opinion: Smirnitsky and some others speak of six moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional and suppositional).

B. Ilyish and Ivanova (14) find three (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive) B.A. Ilyish divides the latter into two forms-the conditional and the subjunctive and so on.

The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed category of the verb.

According to Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) the grammarians are unanimous about the meaning of the Subjunctive Mood. While in all other respects opinions differ. It seems interesting to compare the opinions of Whitehall (43) (above) and Khaimovich

on the problem: "The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use".

O. Jespersen (33) argues against Sweet's definition of Mood; he writes that it would be more correct to say that mood expresses certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence.

P. Whitehall (43): "Although the subjunctive is gradually dying out of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one's psychological moods toward happenings that are imaginary".

Other Categories of Verbs

Besides the already discussed categories of the verb, there are some other categories like aspect, order, posteriority, tense and others.

These categories are very often mixed up: most authors consider them within the tense category. To illustrate this we'll view the conception of Henry Sweet.

To H. Sweet (42) there are three tenses in English. "Tense is primarily the grammatical expression of distinctions of time".

Every occurrence, considered from the point of view of time, must be either past (I was here yesterday), present (he is here today), or future (he will be here tomorrow).

Simple and Compound Tenses: The present, preterite and future are simple tenses. All the perfect tenses are referred by him to compound tense. These tenses combine present, past and future respectively with a time anterior to each of these periods:

present perfect = preterite + preterite;

pluperfect (past p.) = pre-preterite + preterite;

future perfect = pre - future + future

Primary and secondary Tenses: He writes: "When we speak of an occurrence as past, we must have some point of time from which to measure it.

When we measure the time of an occurrence from the time when we are speaking, that is, from the present, the tense which expresses the time of the occurrence is called a primary tense. The present, preterite, future and perfect (the present perfect) are primary tenses.

A secondary tense on the other hand, is measured not from the time when we are speaking, but from some past or future time of which we are speaking and consequently a sentence containing secondary tense makes us expect another sentence containing a verb in a primary tense to show the time from which that of the secondary tense is to be measured. The pluperfect and future perfect are both secondary tenses.

He will have informed his friends by the time they (the quests) arrived. He had informed his friends when the quests arrived.

Complete and Incomplete Tenses. The explanation of this classification of tenses by H. Sweet is vague and confused because he mixes up the lexical and grammatical means, compare: I have lived my life. I have lived here a good many years. The first is

complete and second is incomplete. As one can see there's no difference in the form of verbs. He makes his division because of different distribution of the tense forms. But one point is clear in his conception. He considers continuous tense to be also incomplete as for instance: The clock is striking twelve while. The clock has struck twelve. (complete) Continuous Tenses are opposed to Point-Tenses: I've been writing letters all day. We set out for Germany.

After-past time: I know of no language which possesses a simple tense for this notion. A usual meaning "obligation" in English most often is expressed by "was to":

Next year she gave birth to a son who was to cause her great anxiety.

After future. This has a chiefly theoretical interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like I shall be going to rewrite (which implies nearness in time to the chief future time is of very frequent occurrence).

The Continuous tenses he calls expanded ones: is writing, will be asking, will have been asking ... or composite tense-forms.

The categories of tense, aspect and order characterize an action from different points of view.

The tense of a verb shows the time of the action; the aspect of a verb deals with the development of the action, while order denotes the order of the actions.

When discussing grammatical categories we accepted that a grammatical category is a grammatical meaning which has a certain grammatical means to be expressed.

The analyses of the following example will help us to make certain conclusions: When you come he will have been writing his composition. The predicates of the sentence are in the indicative mood. And, as has been stated, it is in this mood all the grammatical categories of the verb are expressed. The tense is future and it is expressed by the auxiliary word/verb will. The order is prior and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb have + -en or -ed. The aspect is continuous and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb be + ing.

Since all these categories have their own means we may call them grammatical ones. And as any category must have certain opposition (while defining the grammatical categories we defined it as "at least having two individual forms").

The category of tense is orientated with regard to the present tense. The tense category is the system of three-member opposition. So the present tense may be called as the point of measurement or orientation point.

The category of order is a system of two-member opposition: prior and non-prior. Compare: I work - I have worked.

So the prior order marker have + ed is opposite to the zero of non-prior. As in English there are three tenses. This grammatical category can be expressed in all of them. Present: I work - I have worked. Past: I worked - I had worked. Future: I shall work - I shall have worked.

The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposition: Continuous - Non-continuous: I work - I am working.

To be - ing is the morpheme of the continuous meaning. This category is found in all the three tenses.

Present: I work - I am working

Past: I worked - I was working.

Future: I'll work - I'll be working.

The means of expression of these categories are arranged in a certain sequence. In the active voice they are arranged in the following way:

Tense is expressed in the first component of the predicate: order - in first or second (second if it is in the future tense), aspect - in the second or third components. The order means always precede the aspect means if both are found in the predicate.

If the predicate is in the passive voice the tense is again expressed by the first component of it while the means of the passive voice follows the means of the aspect and order categories.

Note: In the future tense the passive meaning and the aspect (continuous) is incompatible.

The Category of Posteriority

This category is distinguished by B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya. (22)

As they put it this category is the system of two member opposition: shall come - should come. will come - would come their meaning is: absolute and relative posteriority.

When posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech it is called absolute. If posteriority is with regard to some other moment then it is relative.

If we accept this category, according to the definition of the grammatical category it is expressed by auxiliary verbs shall and will for absolute posteriority and should and would for relative. Shall and will cannot denote at the same time, two meanings: those of tense and posteriority, if in this case - there are two meanings then we must admit that the auxiliaries will- would, shall-should consist of two morphemes each. Applying the usual procedure we cut the words into w-ill and w-ould; sh-all and sh-ould; w-w and sh-sh are combined into morphemes of tense, and ill-all as allmorphs of the morpheme of absolute posteriority while ould-ould - as morpheme of relative posteriority.

The Categories of Number and Person

The category of person is the system of two member opposition. It is available only in the Present Tense in singular number. B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that "the third person with a positive morpheme being opposed to the first person with a zero morpheme". In the future tense sh- of the first person is opposed to w- of the second and third persons.

A similar treatment of the problem is observed in works of L.S. Barkhudarov (2), (4), who opposes third person to the common person (1st, 2nd persons) because "almost all the verbs in the 1st and 2nd persons have a zero marker".

So far as to the category of number is concerned many grammarians consider that it is in its purity represented only in the verb "to be", for other verbs the opposition of the 3rd person singular, to 3rd person plural accepted (in the present-tense).

Study questions

1. What are the most important features of verbs?
2. Why do some scientists say that verbs are "System of systems"?
3. Why do they say that verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech?
4. What are the criteria for classification of verbs?
5. What is the difference between finite and non-finite forms of the verb?
6. What verbs are called non-finite?
7. What verbs are called irregular?
8. How many basic forms of the verb do you know?
9. What is the difference between terminative and non-terminative verbs?
10. What is the difference between notional and functional verbs?
11. What functional verbs do you know?
12. What is the difference between auxiliary and link-verbs?
13. What are the peculiar features of modal verbs? Why are they called defective?
14. How many grammatical categories of the verb do you know?
15. Which grammatical category of the verb is the most intricate and why?
16. Do English verbs have the reciprocal and reflexive voices?

LECTURE 5 [\[PRESENTATION\]](#)

Syntax

Problems to be discussed:

- **subject - matter of syntax**
- **syntax-minor and syntax-major**
- **the types of syntactical relations**
- **coordination**
- **subordination**

- **predication: primary and secondary predication**
- **the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents**
- **agreement**
- **government**
- **collocation**
- **word-combinations and their types**

The Subject - matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two: syntax - minor and syntax - major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second - with text and its structure.

The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of John's writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

The basic unit of syntax - minor i.e. sentence often consists of some word - groups (or word combinations):

The roundness of the earth is known all over the world.

1 .The sentence consists of two distinct word - combinations: "the roundness of the earth" and "is known all over the world". The same word - combinations may be used without any change in other sentences. The teacher explained the pupils the roundness of the earth. This means that word - combinations can be studied as a separate unit.

2. In utterances there may be simple sentences like "It was dark", "It began to rain". Sometimes they may be joined together, depending on the intensions of the speakers, as for example:

It was dark, and it began to rain.

When it was dark, it began to rain.

Though the structure of constituting sentences are identical when they are joined together the structure of joined units (a) and (b) are different. This means that such units (which are traditionally called composite or compound/complex sentences) may be also studied separately.

Thus syntax - minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence - composite sentences.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeniously for both language and speech units.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

Paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common -ing ending);

ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem "ask" is common);

Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

One of the most important problems of syntax is the classification and criteria of distinguishing of different types of syntactical connection.

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:

A tall boy came in.

A boy came in.

Tall came in.

This shows that the head-word is "a boy" while "tall" is adjunct, since the sentence (3) is unmarked from the English language view point. While sentence (2) is marked as it has an invariant meaning with the sentence (1).

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

Pens and pencils were purchased.

Pens were purchased.

Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

He came ...

*He ...

* ... came or

I knew he had come

* I knew he

* I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

I see him, here "him" is in the objective case-form. The transitive verbs require the personal pronouns in this case.

I thought of him. "him" in this sentence is governed by the preposition "of". Thus, "see" and "of" are the words that governs while "him" is a governed word.

B. Ilyish (15) also distinguishes two types of relations between words: agreement by which he means "a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated". Further he states: "the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small. It is restricted to two pronouns-this and that ..." government ("we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself-that is the difference between agreement and government")

e.g. Whom do you see

This approach is very close to Sweet's conception.

E. Krusinga (36) considers two types of word-groups: close and loose.

Close group - when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. There may be verb groups like running quickly, to hear a noise and nouns groups: King Edward, my book

Loose group - when each element is comparatively independent of the other members: men and woman; strict but just and so on.

Thus, if we choose the terms suggested by Barkhudarov L.S., then we may say all grammarians mentioned here are unanimous as to the existence in English the subordination and coordination bonds. In addition to these two bonds Barkhudarov adds the predication. So when speaking on the types of syntactic connections in English we shall mean the three bonds mentioned.

As one can see that when speaking about syntactic relations between words we mention the terms coordination, subordination, predication, agreement and government. It seems that it is very important to differentiate the first three terms (coordination, subordination and predication) from the terms agreement and government, because the first three terms define the types of syntactical relations from the standpoint of dependence of the components while the second ones define the syntactic relations from the point of view of the correspondence of the grammatical forms of their components. Agreement and government deals with only subordination and has nothing to do with coordination and predication. Besides agreement and government there is one more type of syntactical relations which may be called collocation when head and adjunct words are connected with each-other not by formal grammatical means (as it is the case with agreement and government but by means of mere collocation, by the order of words and by their meaning as for example: fast food, great day, sat silently and so on).

Study questions

1. What types of linguistic relations between words do you know?
2. What relation is called paradigmatic?
3. What relation is called syntagmatic?
4. What is agreement?
5. What is government?
6. What is collocation?
7. Are there agreement, government and collocation in your native language?
8. What relation between words are called syntactic?
9. What relation is called predicative?

LECTURE 6 [\[PRESENTATION\]](#)

Sentence

Problems to be discussed:

- definition of sentence
- the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements
- the problem of one-member sentences
- the problem of elliptical sentences

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different viewpoints to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

«Предложение - минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему» (14)

"The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose"

The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: "The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition" (15)

"A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

"В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг друга к выполнению действия.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Для того чтобы сообщение о том или ином факте, явлении был полным, законченным, требуется указать каким образом данный факт, явление, событие и т.д. относится к реальной действительности, существует ли оно на самом деле или же мыслится как возможное предполагаемое, воображаемое, необходимое и т.д., т.е. необходимо выразить модальность сообщения. Модальность непременно имеется в любом предложении».

«Важнейшим средством грамматического оформления предложения является законченность интонации». (15)

Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, we can say that in any act of communication there are three factors:

The act of speech;

The speaker;

Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that these factors are variable since they change with every act of speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints:

from the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of communication;

they are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person and reality.

The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of person of verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he...

Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed by the category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must, probably...)

According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity. Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it.

Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them.

My mother kept a little day-school for the girls.

Nobody wants a baby to cry.

A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it's a room filled with love.

Thus, by sentence we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation pattern.

The Types of Sentences

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of them.

B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles:

types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative.

according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences: simple and composite.

Ch. Fries (31), (32) gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.

The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:

Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only: A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.

Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: requests or commands.

Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.

L. Barkhudarov (3) compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural view-point. His classification will represent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence and marked one is the transformed sentence.

The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the following two:

Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.

Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, we can say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so are as follows:

the criterion of the structure of sentences

the criterion of the aim of the speaker

the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

From the point of view of the first criterion sentences fall under two subtypes: simple and composite.

The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.

According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall under declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Below we shall consider these types of sentence.

Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker

The declarative sentences: This type of sentence may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the

result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences).

they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.

they usually have the falling an intonation

usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences differ from the declarative or interrogative ones by some their specific features.

There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English - general questions (yes- or no- questions) and special (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversions:

Are we staying here?

Where are we staying?

Besides, the first one has a special (rising) intonation pattern. The second one (wh- question) has interrogative words. But the intonation pattern of wh-questions is identical with that of the affirmative sentences.

And it is important to point out that the interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).

Exclamatory Sentences

The peculiar features of these sentences are:

exclamatory sentences usually express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it;

in their structure they have such introductory words as what and how:

Ex. What a lovely night! How beautiful it is here!

they are always in the declarative form;

there's usually no inversion;

they are pronounced with a falling intonation;

Imperative Sentences

The imperative sentences are opposed to non-imperative ones because.

In imperative sentences the predicate is used in only one form-in the imperative one, while in non-imperative sentences predicate may be used in any form except the imperative.

In imperative sentences no modal verb is used.

The imperative sentences are most often directed to the second person.

The subject of the imperative sentences are almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, that is, elliptically.

The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.

The above said is quite sufficient to characterize the structure of imperative sentences to be specific and distinct from that of the structure of non-imperative sentences.

Elliptical Sentences

The problem of elliptical sentences has been and still is one of the most important and at the same time difficult problems of syntax.

The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to H. Kruisinga's (36) concept "Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word.

Some words regularly form a sentence, such as "yes" or "no"; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only..."

As we stated above elliptical sentences are also the result of transformation of kernel sentences. Since transforms are derived from kernel sentences they must be considered in connection with the latter.

L. Barkhudarov (3) looks upon the sentences like «Вечер», «Утро» and so on as two-member sentences. Really, if we isolate such utterances from the language system it will not be divisible. If an investigator wants to be objective he cannot neglect the language system. Any unit of any language is in interdependence of the other units of the language. Since the overwhelming majority of sentences are two-member ones as e.g. «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the above-mentioned utterances are also two-member ones. In sentences «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the predicates are expressed explicitly, while in «Вечер», «Утро» the predicates are expressed by zero alternants of the verb «быть». M. Blokh is conception is very close to this (5), (6).

The classification of elliptical sentences may be based on the way of their explication. By explication we understand the replacement of the zero alternant of this or that word by the explicit one. There are two kinds of explication:

Syntagmatically restored elliptical sentences - when the explicit alternant of the elliptical sentence is found in the same context where the elliptical sentence is:

One was from Maine; the other from California.

If you have no idea where Clive might be, I certainly haven't. (Nancy Buckingham).

Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentence - when the explicit alternant of the zero form is not found in the context where the ellipsis is used but when it is found in similar language constructions, e.g.

Stop and speak to me. (Galsworthy)

You listen to me, Horace. (Steinback)

One -member Sentences

"A sentence is the expression of a self-contained and complete thought". Quite often the terms are applied to linguistic forms lack completeness in one or more respects. It will of course be readily agreed that sentences like "All that glitters is not gold" and "Two multiplied by two are four", are formally and notionally complete and self-contained.

But in everyday intercourse utterances of this type are infrequent in comparison with the enormous number which rely upon the situation or upon the linguistic context - to make their intention clear.

In the extract Strove asked him if he had seen Strickland. "He is ill", he said. "Didn't you know?" - "Seriously?" - "Very, I understand", to Fries "Seriously" is a sentence - equivalent. They all seem to be a complete communication. But it can not be denied that each of them, either through pronouns (he, him) or through omissions, depend heavily on what has been said immediately before it is spoken; in fact the last three would be unthinkable outside a linguistic context. Properly speaking, therefore, omissions must be said to effect connection between sentences (31), (32).

Sentences with syntactic items left out are natural, for omissions are inherent in the very use of language. "In all speech activities there are three things to be distinguished: expression, suppression, and impression.

Expression is what the speaker gives, suppression is what the speaker does not give, though he might have given it, and impression is what the hearer receives". (35)

Grammarians have often touched upon omissions of parts of sentences. But it is difficult to find an opinion which is shared by the majority of linguists.

When considering the types of sentences some grammarians recognize the existence of two-member, one-member and elliptical sentences. The two-member sentences are sentences which have the subject and the predicate. However, language is a phenomenon where one cannot foresee the structure of it without detailed analysis. There are sentences which cannot be described in terms of two-member sentences. We come across to sentences which do not contain both the subject and the predicate. "There's usually one primary part and the other could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change of the structure of the sentence", (Ilyish) Fire! Night. Come on!

As Ilyish (15) puts it, it is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not be termed subject in some case (as in Fire! Night...) or predicate in some other (Come on!; Why not stay here?) There are grammarians who keep to such a conception. Russian Academician V.V. Vinogradov (10) considers that grammatical subject and predicate are correlative notions and that the terms lose their meaning outside their relation to each other. He suggests the term "main part".

Thus, one member sentence is a sentence which has no separate subject and predicate but one main only instead. B. Ilyish (15) considers some types of such sentences:

with main part of noun (in stage directions);

Night. A lady's bed-chamber

Imperative sentences with no subject of the action mentioned:

Come down, please.

Infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. In these sentences the main part is expressed by an infinitive. Such sentences are usually emotional: Oh, to be in a forest in May! Why not go there immediately?

B.A. Ilyish (15) states that these sentences should not be considered as elliptical ones, since sentences like:

Why should not we go there immediately? - is stylistically different from the original one. By elliptical sentence he means sentence with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context.

Study Questions

1. What linguistic unit is called a sentence?
2. What are the main features of sentences?
3. What theories on sentence do you know?
4. What is the difference between primary and secondary predication?
5. What criteria are used to classify sentences?
6. What do you understand by structural classification of sentences?
7. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the aim of the speaker?
8. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence?
9. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences?
10. What sentences are called elliptical?
11. What is "syntagmatically restored" and "paradigmatically restored" elliptical sentences?
12. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence?
13. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences?
14. What sentences are called elliptical?

VI. САМОСТОЯТЕЛЬНЫЕ РАБОТЫ

The subject matter of self independent work

1. Morphemic analysis, practical work with analysis – 4 hours
2. The grammatical categories – 4 hours
 - a) what is opposition
 - b) the types of grammatical categories
 - c) grammatical categories conceptions
3. Problem of parts of speech – 6 hours
 - a) nouns
 - b) verbs
 - c) adverbs and adjectives
 - d) pronouns
 - e) practical work in written form
4. Syntax. The types of syntactical relations – 4 hours
5. Word-combinations and their types, the types of subordinate phrases, the types of predicative phrases – 2 hours
6. Sentence, the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements, the problem of one-member sentences, elliptical sentences, composite sentences. – 4 hours

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VIII. КОНТРОЛЬНЫЕ ЗАДАНИЯ.

CONTROL QUESTIONS:

1. How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue?
2. Why do we have to stratify language and speech?
3. What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?
4. Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?
5. How many basic or primary levels are there in language and speech?
6. What's the difference between language levels and speech levels?
7. Are there special terms for language and speech levels?
8. What does phonetical - phonological level study?
9. What does morphological level study?
10. What does lexicological level study?
11. What does syntax - minor study?
12. What does syntax - major study?
13. Do the levels function separately in speech or they function as one body?
14. What is the function of the word "allo"?
15. What do you understand by "grammatical structure of a language"?
16. What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?
17. What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?
18. Describe all the grammatical means of English.
19. Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?
20. What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?
21. What operation is called "morphemic analysis"?
22. What are the procedures for revealing morphemes suggested by Z. Harris and Ch. Hockett?
23. What is a morpheme?
24. What is a morph?
25. What is an allomorph?
26. What are the criteria to classify morphemes?
27. What morphemes do you know according to the functional classification?
28. What types of morphemes are distinguished according to the criterion of number correlation between form and content?
29. What peculiar features of nouns do you know?
30. How many grammatical categories of nouns do you know?
31. What do you understand by regular and irregular formation of plural of nouns?
32. What means of irregular formation of plural meaning do you know?
33. Does English have the grammatical category of case?
34. What conceptions on the category of case do you know?
35. Is the category of case in English nouns is as stable as it is in your native language?
36. Is there a grammatical category of gender in English nouns?

37. Compare the gender meanings in English and your native language?
38. What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives?
39. Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives?
40. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed?
41. What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most?
42. Are there adjectives that form their degrees of comparison by means of suppletion?
43. What do you understand by substantivization?
44. Are the words "more" and "most" lexical or grammatical means when, they form the degrees of comparison of adjectives?
45. What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change?
46. What are the most important features of verbs?
47. Why do some scientists say that verbs are "System of systems"?
48. Why do they say that verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech?
49. What are the criteria for classification of verbs?
50. What is the difference between finite and non-finite forms of the verb?
51. What verbs are called non-finite?
52. What verbs are called irregular?
53. How many basic forms of the verb do you know?
54. What is the difference between terminative and non-terminative verbs?
55. What is the difference between notional and functional verbs?
56. What functional verbs do you know?
57. What is the difference between auxiliary and link-verbs?
58. What are the peculiar features of modal verbs? Why are they called defective?
59. How many grammatical categories of the verb do you know?
60. Which grammatical category of the verb is the most intricate and why?
61. Do English verbs have the reciprocal and reflexive voices?
62. What are the main features of adverbs?
63. Why the term "adverb" chosen to name this group of words?
64. What sub-types of adverbs do you know?
65. Do adverbs have any grammatical category? If the answer is positive which adverbs have it?
66. Why do some grammarians consider such verbal phrases as "give up", "dream about" within the adverbs?
67. What is the main problem within this group of words?
68. What words are called statives? Why are they called so?
69. There's no unanimously accepted conception on this group of words, why?
70. What is the main difference between statives and other notional parts of speech?
71. Are there any other terms that name this group of words?
72. Why are these words develop so fastly?
73. How are these words translated in your native language?
74. What types of linguistic relations between words do you know?
75. What relation is called paradigmatic?
76. What relation is called syntagmatic?

77. What is agreement?
78. What is government?
79. What is collocation?
80. Are there agreement, government and collocation in your native language?
81. What relation between words are called syntactic?
82. What relation is called predicative?
83. What is phrase (word - combination)?
84. What is the difference between a word and a phrase?
85. What is the difference between a word and a phrase and a sentence?
86. What conceptions on phrase (word-combination) do you know?
87. What are the criteria to distinguish the types of phrases?
88. What types of phrases do you know according to the syntactic relations between the constituents of phrases?
89. What types of phrases do you know according to the word-groups constituting phrases?
90. What linguistic unit is called a sentence?
91. What are the main features of sentences?
92. What theories on sentence do you know?
93. What is the difference between primary and secondary predication?
94. What criteria are used to classify sentences?
95. What do you understand by structural classification of sentences?
96. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the aim of the speaker?
97. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence?
98. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences?
99. What sentences are called elliptical?
100. What is "syntagmatically restored" and "paradigmatically restored" elliptical sentences?
101. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence?
102. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences?
103. What sentences are called elliptical?
104. What does the term "composite" mean?
105. What types of composite sentences do you know?
106. Specify the compound, complex and mixed type of composite sentences.
107. What are the problems connected with compound sentences?
108. How the complex sentences are are classified?
109. What does H. Sweet mean by "co-complex" and "sub- complex"?
110. What is the structural approach to the problem of composite sentences?

TEST ON THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

1 The smallest distinctive unit is:

- a) morpheme
- b) phoneme
- c) word
- d) phrase

2 The smallest meaningful unit is:

- a) morpheme
- b) phoneme
- c) word
- d) phrase

3 What presents the division of the word on the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning?

- a) stylistic meaning
- b) elements of language
- c) grammatical forms
- d) syntactical forms

4 The abstract complete morphemic model of the common English word is:

- a) root + lexical suffix
- b) root + lexical suffix + grammatical suffix
- c) prefix + root + lexical suffix + grammatical suffix
- d) root + grammatical suffix

5 What terms denote the generalized in variant units of language characterized by a certain functional status - phonemes, morphemes:

- a) erne - terms
- b) alio - terms
- c) root - terms
- d) iso - terms

6 What terms denote the concrete manifestations, or variants of the generalized units, dependent on the regular co- location with other elements of the language-allophones, allomorphs:

- a) root- terms
- b) iso- terms
- c) erne- terms
- d) alio- terms

7 Erne- terms denote such a language units as:

- a) phonemes, morphemes
- b) allophones, allomorphs
- c) sentences, phrases
- d) words, sounds

8 Alio-terms denote the concrete manifestations with other elements of a language as

- a) phonemes, morphemes
- b) words, morphemes
- c) allophones, allomorphs
- d) phrases, words

9 The morphs are said to be in contrastive distribution if their meanings are:

- a) same
- b) alike but not same
- c) different
- d) there is no such morphs

10 The morphs are said to be contrastive if their meanings are:

- a) different
- b) not very different
- c) if they are homonyms
- d) same

11 On the basis of what morphemes are distinguished as free and bound?

- a) segmental relation
- b) word-form
- c) degree of self-dependence
- d) formal presentation

12 "Overt" and "covert" morphemes are distinguished on the basis of:

- a) degree of self-dependence
- b) formal presentation
- c) segmental relation
- d) grammatical alternation

13 On the basis of segmental relation morphemes are distinguished:

- a) free and bound
- b) "overt" and "covert"
- c) additive and replacive
- d) segmental and suprasegmental

14 On the basis of grammatical alternation morphemes are distinguished:

- a) additive replace
- b) segmental and suprasegmental
- c) free and bound

d) "over" and "covert"

15 On the basis of linear characteristic morphemes are distinguished:

a) free and bound

b) continuous, discontinuous

c) segmental and suprasegmental

d) "overt" and "covert"

16 What is the nominative unit of the language?

a) morpheme

b) word

c) phrase

d) sentence

17 Prefixes, suffixes and infixes are:

a) root morphemes

b) stem morphemes

c) affixal morphemes

d) such morphemes do not exist

18 How many types of morphemes in traditional classification exist?

a) 3 b) 4

c) 1 d) 2

19 Complete the following sentence:

... express the concrete "material" fact of the meaning of the word

a) root

b) stem

c) affix

d) suffix

20 What expresses the specification part of the meaning of the word?

a) root

b) affix

c) stem

d) bound morphemes

21 What are interjections?

a) words used to express strong feeling or sudden emotion.

b) words that usually denote an action, an occurrence, or a state of being.

c) a part of speech that connects two words, phrases or classes together.

d) words that are used in combination with a numeral to indicate the count of nouns.

22 How do scientists call the subjunctive mood in other words?

a) the interrogative mood

b) the optative mood

c) the potential mood

d) the conjunctive mood

23 What does the simple sentence consist of?

a) multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses

b) a single independent clause with no dependent clauses

c) one or more independent clauses with a least one dependent clause

d) multiple independent clauses, at least one dependent clause which has at least one dependent clause

24 Agent noun is...

a) a noun that presents entities as an unbounded mass

b) a noun that can take plural, can combine with numerals or quantifiers

c) a word that is derived from another word denoting an action

d) a word used to define a group of object, where "object" can be people, animal, concepts or other things

25 When do we use reflexive pronouns?

a) when the person or thing is the subject of the sentence or clause

b) when the person or thing is the object of the sentence or clause

c) when grammatical rules require a noun, but none is semantically required

d) when a person or thing acts on itself

26 What field does morphology belong to?

a)

linguistics

b)

lexicology

c)

phonetics

d) stylistics

27 Give the definition of the genitive case

a) indicates the indirect object of a verb

b) indicates the possessor of another ttom

c) indicates the object of most common prepositions

d) indicates a location

28 How do scientists call a compound verb in other words?

a) complex object

b) complex predicate

c) auxiliary verb

d) modal verb

29 Give the definition of a verbal noun

a) a phrase whose head is a noun or a pronoun, optionally accompanied by a set of modifiers

b) a lexical category which is defined in terms of how its members combine with other kinds of expressions

- c) a noun representing unique entities, as distinguished from common nouns which describe
a class of entities
- d) a noun formed directly as an inflexion of a verb stem, sharing at least in part its constructions
- 30 Defective verb is...
- a) a verb that gives semantic or syntactic information about the main verb
b) a verb with an complete conjunction
c) a verb with an incomplete conjunction
d) there is no correct answer
- 31 What type of a mood shows that the speaker is considered an action to be a real fact in the past, present and future?
- a) imperative;
b) indicative;
c) subjunctive;
d) conditional.
- 32 Who has proposed a system of 6 moods?
- a) I.A. Smirnitsky
b) I. Vasilevskaya;
c) M. Ganshina;
d) G. Vorontsova
- 33 Who has proposed a system of 16 moods in Modern English?
- a) G. Vorontsova;
b) M. Ganshina;
c) M. Deutschbein;
d) I.A. Smirnitsky.
- 34 What kind of a mood expresses a prompt to the action (order, advice)?
- a) subjunctive mood, present tense;
b) indicative;
c) imperative;
d) subjunctive, past tense.
- 35 How many forms of the second person has an imperative mood?
- a) 2;
b) 1;
c) 3;
d) 5;
- 36 What is a principle distinction between subjunctive and indicative moods?
- a) the form of the third person in the present (-s);
b) the form of the first person in the past;
c) the form of the 3 person in the past;
d) the form of the 2 person in the future
- 37 What kind of a mood in English expresses supposed or desirable action, not a real fact?
- a) indicative;
b) subjunctive;
c) conditional;

- d) imperative
- 38 What verb form is used in subjunctive mood as the most widely spread one?
- a) were;
 - b) would;
 - c) should;
 - d) would have
- 39 A verb in imperative mood is used in a form of...
- a) 3 person;
 - b) 1 person;
 - c) 2 person;
 - d) 3 and 2 person
- 40 How many moods are there in English?
- a) 3;
 - b) 4;
 - c) 5;
 - d) 2
- 41 What is the smallest meaningful unit of the language?
- a) phoneme
 - b) morpheme
 - c) word
 - d) sentence
 - e) phrase
- 42 What is an abstract unit of morphological analysis in linguistics that roughly corresponds to a set of words that are different forms of the same word?
- a) phoneme
 - b) morpheme
 - c) lexeme
 - d) lemma
 - e) word
- 43 Which branch of linguistics studies the internal structure of words?
- a) syntax
 - b) lexicology
 - c) phonetics
 - d) morphology
 - e) stylistics
- 44 What is a paradigm?
- a) it is the complete set of related word-forms associated with a given lexeme
 - b) it is alternative form of a word
 - c) it is the smallest meaningful unit of a language
 - d) it is a combination of morphemes
 - e) it is a canonical form of a word or a citation form
- 45 How are morphological rules which relate different forms of the same lexeme called?
- a) word-formation rules
 - b) derivational rules
 - c) functional rules
 - d) lemma rules

e) inflectional rules

46 What is compounding?

- a) It is a process of involving non-independent forms to existing lexemes
- b) It is a process of word-formation that involves combining complete word-forms into a single compound form
- c) It is a process of division words into composite parts
- d) It is a process of compiling words with the help of affixes
- e) It is a process of compiling paradigms

47 What model of morphology does make use of a word-and-paradigm approach?

- a) word-based morphology
- b) morpheme-based morphology
- c) lexeme-based morphology
- d) morph syntax
- e) lexical morphology

48 What is item-and-arrangement?

it is the way of analyzing in which a word form is said to be the result of applying rules that alter a word form or stem in order to produce a new one

- a) it is the way of analyzing in which paradigms are taken as a central notion
- b) it is the way of analyzing in which a word is rated from the point of view of its structure
- c) it is the way of analyzing based on the paradigmatic relations between linguistic units
- d) it is the way of analyzing word-forms as if they were made of morphemes put after each other like beads on a string

49 How do we call a part of morphology that concerns itself with inflections and paradigms?

paradigmatic morphology

- a) syntagmatic morphology
 - b) morph syntax
 - c) lexeme-based morphology
 - d) prosodic morphology
- 50 Lexeme-based morphology makes use of an ...
- a) item-and-arrangement approach
 - b) paradigms
 - c) word-and-paradigm approach
 - d) item-and-process approach
 - e) compound-and-derivational approach

51 Forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexico-grammatical features between verbs and the non-processual parts of speech are...

- a) auxiliary verbs
- b) adverbial modifiers
- c) verbids
- d) adverbs
- e) predicates

52 How are the non-finite verbs formed?

- a) by conversion

- b) by special lexemes
- c) by special prefixes
- d) by compounding
- e) by special morphemic elements

53 What is the main characteristic feature of the non-finite verbs that distinguishes them from the finite verbs?

- a) non-finite verbs can't express the meaning of time and mood
- b) non-finite verbs can't express the meaning of belonging and time
- c) non-finite verbs can express the processual meaning
- d) non-finite verbs have structural marking
- e) non-finite verbs have no syntactic functions

54 Non-finite forms of the verb are...

- a) the pronoun, the infinitive, the adverbial modifier, the gerund
- b) the infinitive, the gerund, the participle I, the participle II
- c) the adjective, the gerund, the auxiliary verb, the infinitive
- d) the link verb, the notional verb, the adverb, the participle I
- e) the adverbial modifier, the participle II, the particle, the gerund

55 What non-finite form should be considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb?

- a) the gerund
- b) the participle I
- c) the participle II
- d) the infinitive
- e) the adverbial modifier

56 How does infinitive differ from other non-finite verbs?

- a) the infinitive is formed with the help of prefix "to"
- b) the infinitive is formed with the help of conversion from the noun
- c) the infinitive is the zero-suffixed form
- d) the infinitive is the compound form
- e) the infinitive is the free-based form

57 What are the main distinctive features of the gerund?

- a) the gerund can express the time and can be used with adverbs
- b) the gerund can express the mood and can be used with nouns
- c) the gerund can express semi-predication of verbs and can be used with conjunctions
- d) the gerund can express the of voice and can be used with adjectives
- e) the gerund can express the subject of the verbal process and can be used with prepositions

58 Which non-finite form of the verb is wholly homonymous with the gerund?

- a) the infinitive
- b) the participle II
- c) the participle I
- d) the particle
- e) the interjection

59 What functions can the self-position participle I perform?

- a) the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier
- b) the predicative, the subject, the attribute, the object

- c) the predicative, the conjunctive, the object
 - d) the subject, the adverbial modifier, the attribute
 - e) the attribute, the object, the subject
- 60 Which non-finite verb can express implicitly the categorical meaning of the perfect and the passive?
- a) the infinitive
 - b) the gerund
 - c) the participle I
 - d) the participle II
 - e) the adverbial modifier
- 61 What is the definition of the pronoun?
- a) It is a part of speech which is used instead of a noun and adjective
 - b) It is a part of speech which includes words denoting substances or certain facts or phenomena regarded as substances
 - c) It is a part of speech which denotes an action
 - d) It is a part of speech which includes words expressing the attributes of substances
- 62 How many cases have the personal pronouns?
- a) three
 - b) two
 - c) one
 - d) Four
- 63 Exactly parallel to the personal pronouns and distinguish number, gender and person in the same way as the personal pronouns do: I-my, he-his are...
- a) possessive pronouns
 - b) reflexive pronouns
 - c) emphatic pronouns
 - d) reciprocal pronouns
- 64 When the conjoint forms of the possessive pronouns are used?
- a) when a noun doesn't follow the pronoun
 - b) when a pronoun follows the noun
 - c) when a pronoun follows the verb
 - d) when a noun follows the pronoun
- 65 How can reflexive pronouns without imparting reflexive meaning to the verb also be used?
- a) as a subject
 - b) as an object
 - c) as an attribute
 - d) as an adverbial modifier
- 66 Which kind of pronouns are used in forming special questions?
- a) interrogative pronouns
 - b) emphatic pronouns
 - c) demonstrative pronouns
 - d) reciprocal pronouns
- 67 If an interrogative pronoun is used with a preposition the latter is often placed
- a) at the beginning of the sentence

b) in the middle of the sentence

c) at the end of the sentence

68 What do the conjunctive pronouns introduce?

a) subordinate subject, predicative clause

b) predicative and object clauses

c) subordinate subject and object clause

d) subordinate subject, predicative and object clauses

69 Which pronouns have the common and the possessive cases?

a) who, this, what

b) somebody, each, other

c) you, whose, them

d) I, they, which

70 Pronouns are classed as...

a) noun-pronouns, adjective-pronouns

b) noun-pronouns

c) adjective-pronouns

d) There is no correct answer

71 How many predicative lines has the simple sentences?

a) only one

b) two

c) two and more

d) many

e) no one

72 Find the one - number sentence .

a) the girl smiled

b) the sun is shining

c) the spring

d) the book are our friends

e) this apple is green

73 The model of immediate constituents consists of two groups :

a) subject and object

b) subject and predicate

c) predicate and adverbial

d) subject and attribute

e) predicate and object

74 The subject is a . . . of the predicate.

a) a substance - modifier

b) a quality - modifier

c) a process - modifier

d) a person - modifier

e) a detached speaker - bound modifier

75 How many basic versions has the model of immediate constituents ?

a) 2

b) 7

c) 5

d) 3

e) 10

76 Find the two - member sentence.

- a) very nice
- b) the boy slept
- c) in the school
- d) the roof of the house
- e) go on

77 Reflecting the subject-object relation , simple sentences should be divided into:

- a) subjective and objective
- b) subjective and neutral
- c) neutral and objective
- d) neutral and subjective
- e) subjective , objective and neutral

78 The basic predicate meaning is connected with . . .

- a) the subject
- b) the object
- c) the adverbial
- d) the attribute
- e) no right answer

79 Which simple sentence is formed only by obligatory notional parts ?

- a) expanded
- b) personal
- c) unexpanded
- d) objective
- e) factual

80 Which sentence has all obligatory positions ?

- a) elementary sentence
- b) sentence model
- c) unexpanded simple sentence
- d) expanded simple sentence
- e) one - axis sentence.

81 According to their meaning and grammatical characteristics adjectives are divided into:

- a) qualitative and relative
- b) qualitative and relative
- c) qualitative and compound
- d) relative and compound

82 Give the definition of the adjective

- a) it is a part of speech which includes words denoting number
- b) it is a part of speech which includes words expressing the attributes of substances
- c) it is a part of speech which denotes an action
- d) it is a part of speech which includes words denoting substances.or certain facts or phenomena regarded as substances

83 What do relative adjectives express?

- a) qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object
- b) qualities of size, shape, colour, which an object may possess in various degrees

- c) a degree of quality
 - d) there is no right answer
- 84 How many degrees of comparison of adjectives exist?
- a) four
 - b) two
 - c) three
 - d) five
- 85 To express an inferior degree of quality the adjective is connected with...
- a) the pronoun
 - b) the verb
 - c) the noun
 - d) the adverb
- 86 What do qualitative adjectives denote?
- a) a degree of quality
 - b) qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object
 - c) qualities of size, shape, colour, ect., which an object may possess in various degrees
 - d) the right answers A) and C)
- 87 Substantivized adjectives denote...
- a) all the persons possessing the quality mentioned by the adjective as a group, but not separate individuals
 - b) abstract notions
 - c) the right answers are A) and B)
 - d) concrete notions
- 88 The main syntactical function of an adjective in the sentence is that of...
- a) an attribute
 - b) adverbial modifier
 - c) a subject
 - d) the right answers are A) and C)
- 89 What inflexions of adjectives are there in Modern English?
- a) case
 - b) number
 - c) gender
 - d) no inflexions
- 90 How the adjective in nominal predicate may be used?
- a) as an attribute
 - b) as a predicative
 - c) as an adverbial modifier
 - d) the right answer A) and B)
- 91 Choose a sentence where the reciprocal voice is presented.
- a) he dressed himself.
 - b) they greeted each other.
 - c) the door opened.
 - d) I will be invited.
- 92 Choose a sentence where the middle voice is presented.
- a) he hurt himself not so badly.
 - b) the conference resumed.

- c) he was spoken of.
 d) they kissed each other and the child.
- 93 Which of these languages has no article?
 a) Italian.
 b) Swedish.
 c) Spanish.
 d) Latin.
- 94 is a part of speech expressing the state a subject is in, and characterized by the prefix, e.g. asleep, ablaze, astir.
 a). noun.
 b) adjective.
 c) stative.
 d) adverb.
- 95 Point out a sentence with secondary predication.
 a) I saw him run.
 b) I met my relatives and friends.
 c) Denis tried to escape, but in vain.
 d) Scarlet stood in her apple-tree "second dress".
- 96 Who established a system of absolute and anterior tenses, and of static and dynamic tenses?
 a) A. Korsakov.
 b) I. Ivanova.
 c) V. Vinogradov.
 d) U. Gleason.
- 97 Who represented the theory of duration and terminative verbs in English?
 a) G. Voronsova.
 b) O. Jespersen.
 c) N. Irtenyeva.
 d) H. Sweet
- 98 Which of these morphemes has no homonyms?
 a) -s.
 b) -ren.
 c) -er.
 d) -ed.
- 99 What morpheme expressed simultaneously the plural number and the genitive case in the Old English?
 a) -s.
 b) -en.
 c) -a.
 d) -ren.
- 100 What type of sentences we can refer the following sentence to?
 "Keep away from him", said Mrs. Ruggles.
 a) declarative.
 b) interrogative.
 c) imperative.
 d) exclamatory.

ANSWERS:

	42 C	86 C
	43 D	87 C
	44 A	88 A
1 B	45 E	89 D
2 A	46 B	90 B
3 C	47 A	91 B
4 C	48 E	92 B
5 A	49 C	93 D
6 D	50 D	94 A
7 A	51 C	95 A
8 C	52 E	96 A
9 C	53 A	97 A
10 D	54 B	98 D
11 C	55 D	99 C
12 B	56 C	100 C
13 D	57 E	
14 A	58 C	
15 B	59 A	
16 B	60 D	
17 C	61 A	
18 D	62 B	
19 A	63 A	
20 B	64 D	
21 A	65 B	
22 D	66 A	
23 B	67 C	
24 C	68 D	
25 D	69 B	
26 A	70 A	
27 B	71 A	
28 B	72 C	
29 D	73 B	
30 C	74 D	
31 B	75 A	
32 A	76 B	
33 C	77 E	
34 C	78 A	
35 B	79 C	
36 A	80 A	
37 B	81 A	
38 A	82 B	
39 C	83 A	
40 A	84 B	
41 B	85 D	

VIII. GENERAL PROBLEMS AND TASKS, RESULTS OF THE COURSE

Общие проблемы и задачи, выводы по дисциплине

The grammatical system of English, like that of any other language, possesses its own peculiar features.

The English language has comparatively few grammatical inflections. They are the plural and the Genitive case endings of some nouns, the comparative degree endings of some adjectives and adverbs; personal inflections of verbs are confined to the third person singular and the opposition of the forms was - were. What is most characteristic of these inflections in comparison with Russian is that they are more unified. Thus the plural ending -s in nouns is used with the majority of count nouns. The few exceptions (such as tooth - teeth, goose - geese, child - children, ox - oxen) are regarded as obsolete forms.

In the sphere of the verb, however, many complications arise, as there is no such regularity among the past tense and participle II forms. Some of them are formed with the inflection -ed (help - helped - helped), others by means of root vowel change (bring - brought - brought, come - came - come). The latter are considered as irregular verbs.

Alongside synthetic forms, the verb has an elaborate system of analytical forms (most of the tense, aspect and perfect forms, the passive voice forms, most of the subjunctive mood forms). The analytical forms, include an auxiliary verb, as the bearer of the grammatical meaning, and a notional part: has gone, was sent, would like, to be posted, being done, having been done, etc.

Many words are not inflected at all: most adjectives and adverbs, modal words, statives, non-count nouns, conjunctions, prepositions, particles and interjections. Moreover, most words are devoid of any word-forming (derivational) morphemes which would show that they belong to a certain class. This lack of morphological distinctions between the classes accounts for the fact that a great number of words (both notional and functional words) may easily pass from one class to another, their status being determined mainly syntactically, by their function in the sentence. The prevailing role of syntax over morphology is also revealed in the fact that words, phrases and clauses may be used in the same functions.

The order of elements in the English sentence is fixed to a greater degree than in inflected languages (as the Russian language). The order subject - predicate - object is most characteristic of statements, and any modification of it is always justified by either stylistic or communicative considerations. Attributes may precede or follow head-word, the first pattern being more usual. The most mobile element in the sentence is the adverbial, but that can be explained by its reference to different parts of the sentence.

A most peculiar feature of English is a special set of words employed as structural substitutes for a certain part of speech: noun substitutes (one, that), the verb substitute (do), the adverbs and adjective substitute (so).

The grammatical content of the course is presented in three ways:

- a first way giving a bird's-eye view of the whole course and defining the basic concepts and terms used in this course;
- 6 lectures describing basic patterns, together with their corresponding elements of structure, from syntactic, semantic, textual and communicative-pragmatic points of view; and dealing similarly with nominal, verbal, adjectival, adverbial and prepositional groups and phrases.

In each case the aim is that of describing each pattern or structural element in use, rather than that of entering in depth into any particular theory. Lecture titles attempt to reflect, as far as possible, the communicative viewpoints from which the description is made. The lectures are divided into 'modules', each one being conceived as a teaching and learning unit with appropriate information and activities grouped at the end of each lecture.

Each module begins with a list of basic notions, summary, which presents the main matters of interest.

It is designed to assist both tutor and students in class preparation and to offer a review for study purposes.

IX. GLOSSARY

Absolute

used independently of its customary grammatical relationship or construction, e.g. Weather permitting, I will come.

Acronym

a word formed from the initial letters of other words, e.g. NATO.

Active

applied to a verb whose subject is also the source of the action of the verb, e.g. We saw him; opposite of passive.

Adjective

a word that names an attribute, used to describe a noun or pronoun, e.g. small child, it is small.

Adverb

a word that modifies an adjective, verb, or another adverb, expressing a relation of place, time, circumstance, manner, cause, degree, etc., e.g. gently, accordingly, now, here, why.

Agree

to have the same grammatical number, gender, case, or person as another word.

Analogy

the formation of a word, derivative, or construction in imitation of an existing word or pattern.

Antonym

a word of contrary meaning to another.

Apposition

the placing of a word, especially a noun, syntactically parallel to another, e.g. William the Conqueror.

Article

a/an (indefinite article) or the (definite article).

Attributive

designating a noun, adjective, or phrase expressing an attribute, characteristically preceding the word it qualifies, e.g. old in the old dog; opposite of predicative.

Auxiliary verb

a verb used in forming tenses, moods, and voices of other verbs.

Case

the form (subjective, objective, or possessive) of a noun or pronoun, expressing relation to some other word.

Clause

a distinct part of a sentence including a subject (sometimes by implication) and predicate.

Collocation

an expression consisting of two (or more) words frequently juxtaposed, especially adjective + noun.

Comparative

the form of an adjective or adverb expressing a higher degree of a quality, e.g. braver, worse.

Comparison

the differentiation of the comparative and superlative degrees from the positive (basic) form of an adjective or adverb.

Complement

a word or words necessary to complete a grammatical construction: the complement of a clause, e.g. John is (a) thoughtful (man), Solitude makes John thoughtful; of an adjective, e.g. John is glad of your help; of a preposition, e.g. I thought of John.

Co-ordination

the linking of two or more parts of a compound sentence that are equal in importance, e.g. Adam delved and Eve span.

Elliptical

involving ellipsis.

Intransitive

designating a verb that does not take a direct object, e.g. I must think.

Main clause

the principal clause of a sentence.

Noun phrase

a phrase functioning within the sentence as a noun, e.g. The one over there is mine.

Phrasal verb

an expression consisting of a verb and an adverb (and preposition), e.g. break down, look forward to.

Possessive

the case of a noun or a pronoun indicating possession, e.g. John's; possessive pronoun, e.g. my, his.

Predicate

the part of a clause consisting of what is said of the subject, including verb + complement or object.

Predicative

designating (especially) an adjective that forms part or the whole of the predicate, e.g. The dog is old.

Preposition

a word governing a noun or pronoun, expressing the relation of the latter to other words, e.g. seated at the table.

Prepositional phrase

a phrase consisting of a preposition and its complement, e.g. I am surprised at your reaction.

Singular

denoting a single person or thing.

Subjective

the case of a pronoun typically used when the pronoun is the subject of a clause.

Subjunctive

the mood of a verb denoting what is imagined, wished, or possible, e.g. I insist that it be finished.

Subordinate clause

a clause dependent on the main clause and functioning like a noun, adjective, or adverb within the sentence, e.g. He said that you had gone.

Superlative

the form of an adjective or adverb expressing the highest or a very high degree of a quality, e.g. bravest, worst.

