

FATIMA SAIDOVNA VAKHIDOVA

**THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

COURSEBOOK ON THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

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Blurb/Short text:

This course book, containing a theoretical outline of English grammar, is intended as a manual for the departments of English linguistics in Universities. Its purpose is to present an introduction to the problems of up-to-date grammatical study of English on a systemic basis, sustained by demonstrations of applying modern analytical techniques to various grammatical phenomena of living English speech. The suggested description of the grammatical structure of English, reflecting the author's experience as a lecturer on theoretical English grammar for students specializing as teachers of English language. Materials illustrating the analyzed elements of English grammar have been mostly collected from the literary works of British and American authors. Some of the offered examples have been subjected to slight alterations aimed at giving the necessary prominence to the lingual phenomena under study.

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INTRODUCTION

The subject of theoretical aspects of a foreign language consists of three modules: "Theoretical phonetics of English", "Theoretical grammar of English" and "Lexicology". As these disciplines are closely related, systematically referred to as "Theoretical Aspects of Foreign Languages" and taught in modules. Theoretical phonetics of English teaches phonetic units such as sound structure, pronunciation norms, syllable rules, stress, and intonation. Lexicology teaches the properties of words, the basic units of language vocabulary, the morphological, lexical, semantic structure of words, word formation, phraseological combinations, and the origin of words.

Theoretical grammar, which studies the structure of the English language, is an integral part of linguistic theoretical disciplines and is taught as a separate subject in the departments of English philology. The main purpose of theoretical grammar is to teach students the grammatical structure of the English language, to acquaint them with the scientific schools, currents and linguistic concepts, as well as the controversial problems of linguistics. This course - book is intended for lectural classes in the field of Theoretical English grammar to facilitate the teaching of student methods of grammatical analysis, the ability to critically evaluate study various theoretical positions and concepts and test their analysis of specific language material.

Most tasks require prior elaboration of theoretical material; therefore, in all sections as the first task, questions are given to understand the educational literature recommended on the topic. Most of the sections include tasks for commenting the development of linguistic terms related to the topic under discussion.

At the same time, students must master the morphology and syntax of the English language.

Theoretical grammar is closely related to the disciplines of linguistics, theoretical phonetics, English history, and lexicology.

Tasks of theoretical grammar are:

- word form, word-forming and word-changing affix morphemes;
- classification of grammatical means;
- syntactic relations;

-studies and analyzes linguistic phenomena such as word order and speech on the basis of theoretical and scientific discussions. Requires students to have a deep understanding of English morphology and syntax.

1. THE SCOPE OF THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

PLAN:

1. Theoretical grammar and its subject.
2. General principles of grammatical analysis.
3. Stratification of Language. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language
4. General characteristics of language as a functional system.
5. Notions of 'system' and 'structure'. General characteristics of linguistic units.

Key words and expressions

1. Theoretical grammar.
2. Main signals.
3. History development.
4. Types of grammar.
5. Grammatical structure.
6. Means of communication.
7. Grammatical markers.
8. Inflexions.
9. Function words.
10. Word order.
11. Grammatical system.
12. Pre - scientific grammar.
13. Universal grammar.
14. Philosophical grammar.
15. Historical grammar.
16. Old English.
17. Transformational method.
18. Descriptive method.
19. Generative method.
20. Origin of the word.
21. Prescriptive and scientific grammar.
22. Comparative and grammar.
23. Normative and practical grammar.

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- 4.N.F. Irtenyeva and others. A Theoretical English Grammar (syntax) МД1969.

Man is not well defined as “*Homo sapiens*” (“man with wisdom”). For what do we mean by wisdom? It has not been proved so far that animals do not possess it. Those of you who have pets can easily prove the contrary. Most recently, anthropologists have started defining human beings as “man the toolmaker”. However, apes can also make primitive tools. What sets man apart from the rest of animal kingdom is his ability to speak: he is “can easily object by saying that animals can also speak *Homo loquens*” – “man the speaking animal”. Again, you, naturally, in their own way. However, their sounds are meaningless, and there is no link between sound and meaning (or if there is, it is of a very primitive kind) and the link for man is grammar. Only with the help of grammar, we can combine words to form sentences and texts. Man is not merely *Homo loquens*, he is *Homo Grammaticus*.

The term “grammar” goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the “art of writing”. Nevertheless, later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of **linguistics**. A question comes immediately to mind: what does this study involve?

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to explain these rules. Theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

According to the Bible: ‘In the beginning was the Word’. In fact, the word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit of language. Linguistic units (or in other words – signs) can go into three types of relations:

- a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality). E.g., the word ‘table’ refers to a definite piece of

furniture. It may be not only an object but also a process, state, quality, etc.

This type of meaning is called **referential** meaning of a unit. Semantics studies the referential meaning of units.

b) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units). No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called **syntactic**. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by **syntactics** (or **syntax**).

c) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose (e.g.). The same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called **pragmatic**. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by **pragmatics**.

Thus, there are three models of linguistic description: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. To illustrate the difference between these different ways of linguistic analysis, let us consider the following sentence: *Students are students*.

Grammatical studies (Grammar as a linguistic discipline) cover grammatical features of words and grammatical, communicative, semantic and structural features of sentences.

There are two main purposes why people describe the Grammar of a language. One type of descriptions is made to understand it, and the other is made to teach it. **Prescriptive** Grammars suggest rules how to build and use forms of words, word combinations and sentences. Such Grammars are sets of rules. Grammatical descriptions aimed at understanding the Grammar of a language, and because of that endeavoring to register, the facts as accurately as possible, are called **descriptive Grammars**. The main purpose of such Grammars is stating the facts of a language.

Descriptive Grammars usually include different interpretations of the facts registered in them.

These interpretations present a third type of Grammars known as **the Theory of Grammar** or grammatical theory (grammatology).

Descriptive Grammars can be:

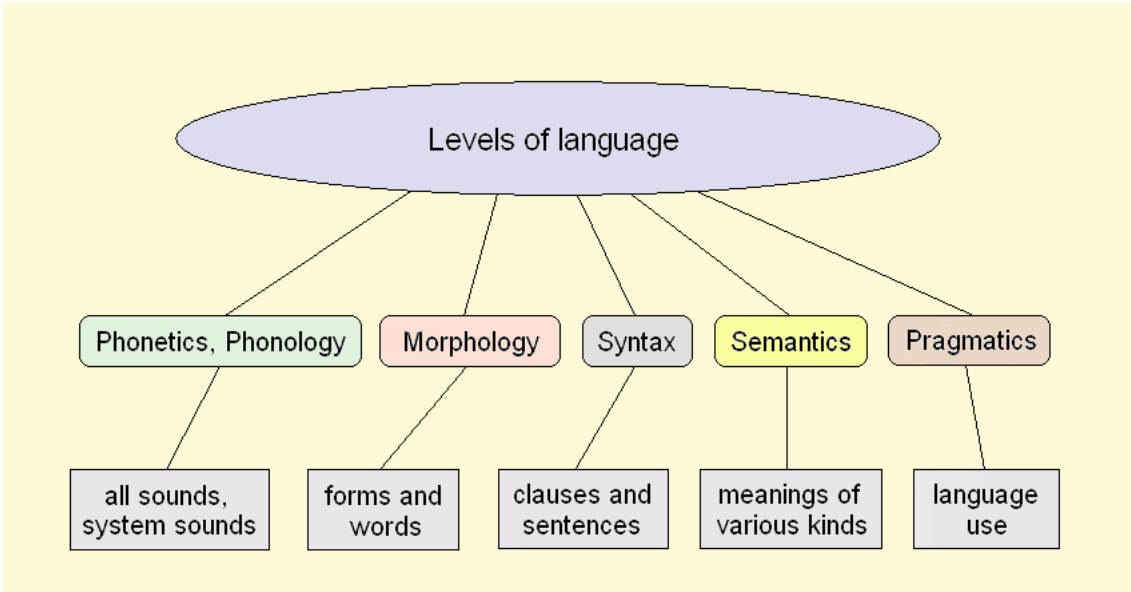
1. according to the analytic procedures:
 - a) **Distributional** (based on the analysis of the positioning of units);
 - b) **Categorial** (based on the analysis of the substitution of units);
 - c) **Transformational** (based on the analysis of procedures used to create units).
2. according to the purpose of description:
 - a) **Synchronic**;
 - b) **Diachronic** or **Historical**;
 - c) **Contrastive**;
 - d) **Typological**.

The Grammar of Language embraces all its levels and units. The problem is how many and what sorts of units must we recognize to be sure that our model of language (i.e. the theory of language) should be its correct representation?

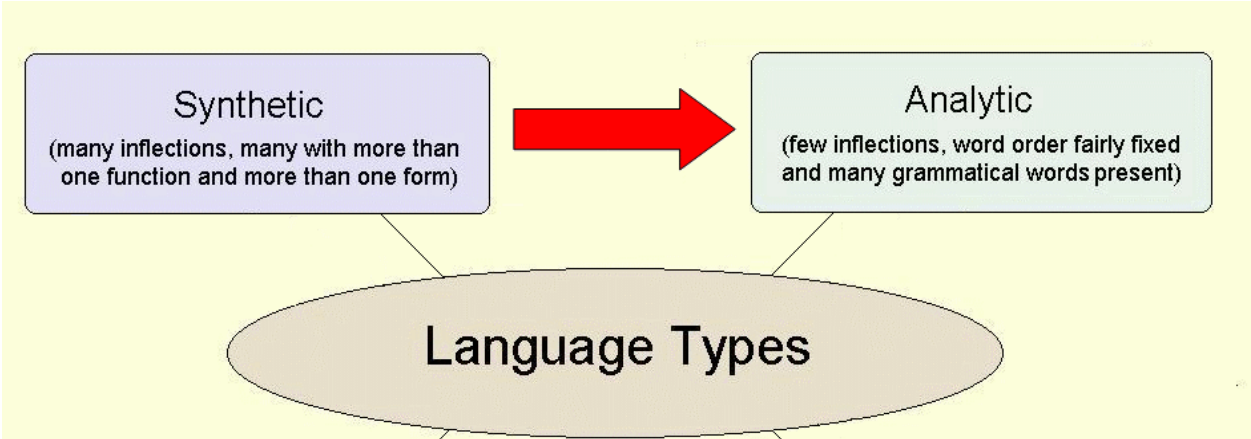
The solution to the problem depends on how we answer another question: what is a

Language? Language is a **means of communication**. If so, the structure of language, the number and properties of its components, units are determined by its function. It means that they depend upon the aim the means is used for and the manner it can be used in. the main aim of language due to its definition is to create conditions for communication. So the biggest structure language should provide us with is **dialogue**. Then it must give us a possibility to show our position in the event we speak about. Therefore, the next structure is a **communicative part (role)**. Then we have to inform each other about the matter we speak of, about our aims and about what we want our partners to do. So the next structure is an **utterance** or, in other terms, **text**. Then we have to correlate our informative structures with “the actual life as we know it”, producing sign models of the necessary fragments of that life. In addition, language provides us with a **sentence**. Sentences, being models of fragments of states of things, must represent *relations* of things for which end language provides us with **members of sentence**. Because relations can exist only if there are objects, we need names of these objects. Moreover, language provides us with **words**. Then, to operate as names, words need elements, which we know as **morphemes**. Finally, we find **phonemes**, the material substance to make it all perceptible.

The units and their functions, which we have just listed, constitute *levels* of language.



The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words – the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means. Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic** and **analytic**.



The first part of the XXth century can be characterized by a formal approach to the language study. Only inner (syntactic) relations between linguistic units served the basis for linguistic analysis while the reference of words to the objective reality and language users were actually not considered. Later, semantic language analysis came into use. However, it was surely not enough for a detailed language study. Language certainly figures centrally in our lives. We discover our

identity as individuals and social beings when we acquire it during childhood. It serves as a means of cognition and communication: it enables us to think for ourselves and to cooperate with other people in our community. Therefore, the pragmatic side of the language should not be ignored either. **Functional** approach in language analysis deals with the language 'in action'. Naturally, in order to get a broad description of the language, all the three approaches must be combined.

Any human language has two main functions: the communicative function and the expressive or representative function – human language is the living form of thought. These two functions are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is realized in the process of speech communication.

The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a **semiotic** system. It means that linguistic signs are of semiotic nature: they are **informative** and **meaningful**. There are other examples of semiotic systems but all of them are no doubt much simpler. For instance, traffic lights use a system of colours to instruct drivers and people to go or to stop. Some more examples: Code Morse, Brighton Alphabet, computer languages, etc. What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems? Language is universal, natural; all members of society use it while any other sign systems are artificial and depend on the sphere of usage.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. **System** implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system. **Structure** means hierarchical layering of parts in `constituting the whole. In the structure of language, there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, and syntactical and super syntactical. The corresponding level units represent the levels: The **phonological** level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit is the '**phoneme**. It is a distinctive unit (*bag – back*).

The morphological level has two level units:

- a) The '**morpheme** – the lowest meaningful unit (*teach – teacher*);
- b) The **word** - the main naming (^nominative) unit of language.

The **syntactical** level has two level units as well:

- a) The **word-group** – the dependent syntactic unit;
- b) The **sentence** – the main communicative unit.

The **super syntactical** level has the **text** as its level unit.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis, we focus attention on different features of language. The larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called **isomorphism**. This is how language works – a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

We have arrived at the conclusion that the notions of system and structure are not synonyms – any system has its own structure (compare the system of UK education vs. the structure of British education; army organization).

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish **the content side** and **the expression side**. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word 'dog' happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Uzbekistan by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one.

Self-control questions:

1. What does linguistic study involve?
2. Give the definition of practical grammar and theoretical one.
3. How many types of grammar do you know?
4. What do you understand by "grammatical structure of a language"?
5. What is the difference between referential and syntactic meaning?

6. What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other

Semiotic systems?

7. Compare the grammatical structure of the English language with your native language?

7. What is the difference between language system and structure?

8. How many main grammatical signals do you know? Describe them.

9. Language as functional system, describe 2 main functions.

Test

1. The classical scientific theory appeared during...

- a) the first half of the 20th
- b) the first half of the 19th
- c) the 19th
- d) the 18th

2. What are the main types of grammar?

- a. Grammar may be practical and theoretical
- b. Grammar may be prescriptive and descriptive
- c. Grammar may be synthetical and analytical
- d. Grammar may be segmental and supra segmental

3. The aim of **practical** grammar is

- a. the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences
- b. dealing with the language as a functional system
- c. to offer explanation for the rules
- d. to embrace the whole study of language

4. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is

- a. to offer explanation for the rules
- b. dealing with the language as a functional system
- c. the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences
- d. to embrace the whole study of language

5. What is the smallest meaningful unit of the language?

- a) morpheme

- b) Phoneme
 - c) Word
 - d) Phrase
6. What is the smallest unit of the language?
- a) Phoneme
 - b) Morpheme
 - c) Word
 - d) Sentence
7. What is the smallest communicative unit of the language?
- a) word
 - b) Morpheme
 - c) Phoneme
 - d) Sentence

Task.

I. Analyze the sentences and point out the peculiarities of the grammatical structure of English manifested in them:

1. Teacher: Do you know who built the ark?

Student: No.

Teacher: Correct.

2. – Did you know that Job spoke when he was just a baby?

– Where does it say that?

– It says: “Job cursed the day he was born.”

3. They are going to get going at once.

4. She gave me a little nod and went out.

5. Don't trouble trouble until trouble troubles you.

II. Analyze the following oppositions and state what grammatical categories they constitute:

- 1) had:: had had; 2) will do:: will have done; 3) will do:: will be done;
- 4) cats:: cats'; 5) she:: her

III. Differentiate between the processes of neutralization and transposition in the sphere of morphological categories:

- 1. The human race is forever taking one-step forward and one-step back.
- 2. While we drove through the town I made a few snapshots.
- 3. I was walking through the hall ten minutes ago and suddenly his door bumps open...

4. The room needed airing.
5. – Will you stay for dinner?
– No, I am leaving in an hour.

IV. Find a mistake and explain the cause:

1. I try to do my shopping on weekdays because on weekends the shops are overcrowded.
2. There was a little town near the ocean. Moreover, in this town lived a fisherman.
3. Nobody likes to be meddled.
4. This problem I can't solve alone.
5. I didn't like that my name would appear in press.
6. The evening was warm and windless and I decided to walk.

2. BASIC LINGUISTIC NOTIONS

PLAN:

1. Language and speech.
2. Systemic relations in language. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.
3. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of language.
4. Morphology and syntax as two parts of linguistic description.

Key words and expressions

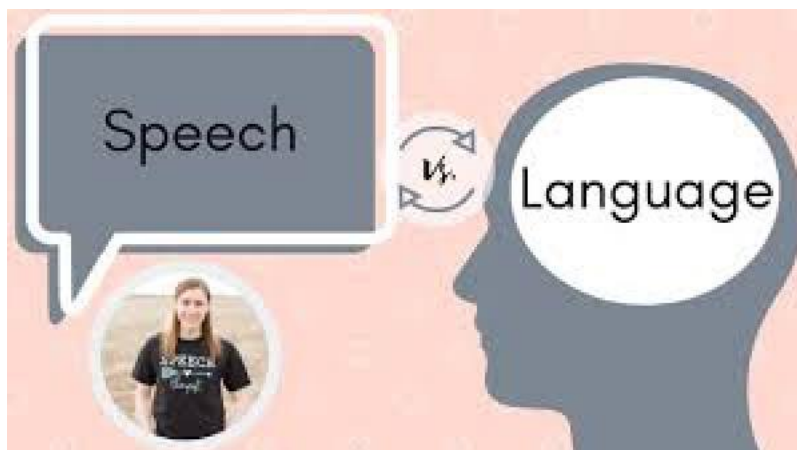
1. Basic notions of grammar.
2. General theory of morphemes.
3. Classification of morphemes.
4. The notion of allomorph.
5. General characteristics.
6. The basic unit of grammar.
7. The smallest communicative unit
8. Specific features.
9. Phonemes, morphemes.
10. Segmental and supra segmental.
11. Hierarchy of levels.
12. Lexemic level.
13. Phrasemic level.
14. Functional type of segmental units.

15. Post-morphemes.
16. Morphological categories.
17. Scarcity of inflexions.
18. Abundance of functional-words.
19. Allomorphs.
20. Traditional classification.
21. Strict word order.
22. Substitute words.

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3. M.Y. Blokh. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 1983.
4. N.F. Irtenyeva and others. A Theoretical English Grammar (syntax) МД1969.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact, the number of these combinations is endless. **Speech** is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play



chess.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit *phoneme* is opposed to the speech unit – *sound*: phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech - /s/ and /z/). The *sentence* is opposed to the *utterance*; the *text* is opposed to the *discourse*.

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into **paradigmatic** relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle, cup*, etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same*, etc. According to different principles of similarity, PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal and functional**.

- a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day – He would practice English every day.*
- b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a **paradigm**: *man – men; play – played – will play – is playing.*
- c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g., in the word-group, *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* contrasts SR with *A, OF, MILK*; within the word *PINT* – *P, I, N* and *T* are in syntagmatic relations. SR are linear relations that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate and predicative**.

- a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you* and *me*; They were *tired* but *happy*.
- b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach* + *er* – morphological level; *a smart student* – word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses – sentence level.
- c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

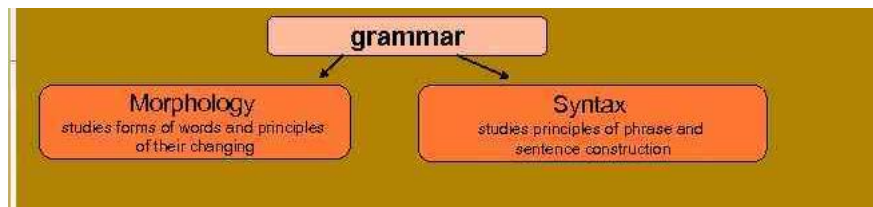
As mentioned above, SR may be observed in utterances, which is impossible when we deal with PR. Therefore, PR are identified with ‘language’ while SR are identified with ‘speech’.

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words – the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means.

Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types – **synthetic** and **analytic**. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of ‘internal’ grammar of the word – most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Ukrainian - *зроблю*, Russian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of ‘external’ grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic – the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

As the word is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction, which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. Morphology deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while traditional syntax deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

Usually the study of words and morphemes is united under one heading **MORPHOLOGY**. Morphology describing grammatical features of words and morphemes is mostly concentrated on description of *forms* of words. Two other levels united under one heading are those of sentences and members of sentences (phrases). This part of Grammar is known as



SYNTAX. Syntax deals with all features of sentences but intonation patterns and other prosodic features.

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First, it is the main **expressive** unit of human language, which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic **nominative** unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language, it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of 'language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides – the content and expression sides: concept and sound form.

Self control questions.

1. Define the difference between language and speech.
2. Systemic relations in language. Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relations.
3. General characteristics of the grammatical structure of a language.
4. Describe the division of grammar. Morphology and syntax.

Test

1. The models of linguistic description are:

- a) semantic, syntactic, pragmatic
- b) phonetic, lexical, grammatical
- c) synthetical and analytical

d) morphology and syntax

2. What relation is studied by semantics?

a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality).

b) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units)

c) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it.

d) The relation between a unit and a meaning.

3. How many models of description exist in Linguistics?

a) 3

b) 2

c) 4

d) 5

4. The models of linguistic description are:

a) semantic, syntactic, pragmatic

b) phonetic, lexical, grammatical

c) synthetical and analytical

d) morphology and syntax

5. What relations can linguistic unit enter?

a) paradigmatic and syntagmatic

b) segmental and supra segmental

c) morphological and syntactical

d) synthetic and analytic

6. How do we call the relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment?

a) paradigmatic

b) syntagmatic

c) synthetic

d) analytic

7. How do we call the relations with other units of the same level it occurs with?

a) syntagmatic

b) paradigmatic

c) synthetic

d) analytic

8. According to different principles of similarity Paradigmatic relations can be

- a) semantic, formal and functional
- b) expressive and nominative
- c) synthetic and analytic
- d) coordinate, subordinate and predicative

9. According to different principles of similarity syntagmatic relations can be

- a) coordinate, subordinate and predicative
- b) expressive and nominative
- c) semantic, formal and functional
- d) synthetic and analytic

3. GRAMMATICAL MEANING. GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES.

PLAN:

1. The notion of 'grammatical meaning'
2. Types of grammatical meaning.
3. Grammatical categories.
4. The notion of opposition.
5. Transposition and neutralization of morphological forms.

Key words and expressions

1. Lexical meaning
2. Grammatical meaning
3. Countableness
4. Verbiality
5. Qualitativeness
6. Adverbiality
7. Implicit
8. Explicit
9. General grammatical meaning
10. Dependent grammatical meaning
11. Conceptual reality

12. Objective reality
13. Lingual reality
14. Conceptual category
15. Objective category
16. Grammatical category
17. Opposition
18. Transposition
19. Neutralisation
20. Mean

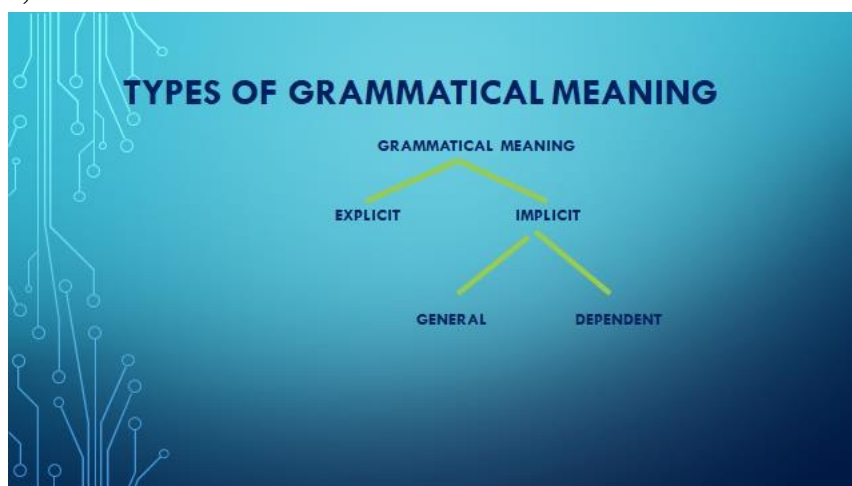
LITERATURE

1. B.S. Khaimovich, B.L. Rogovskaya. *A Course in English Grammar*. Moscow, 1967.
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The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings – lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it

possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun 'table' has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of verbality – the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives – qualitiveness – the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality – the ability to denote quality of qualities.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group – articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

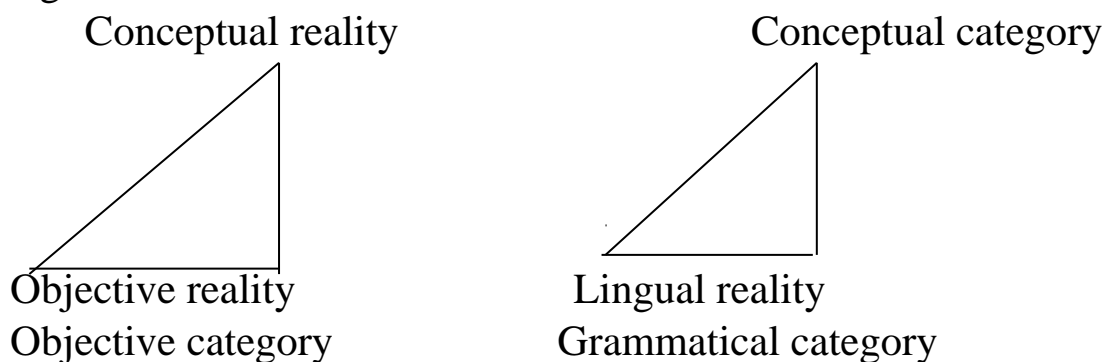


The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker. In the word *cats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *cat's* – here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form 's'; *is asked* – shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types – general and dependent. The **general** grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns – the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical

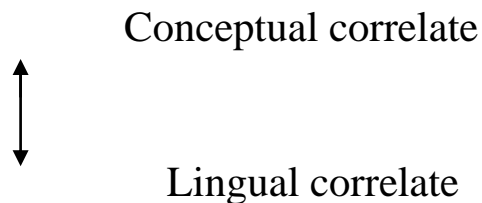
meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/non-stativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness and animateness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, terminativeness/non-terminativeness - the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity – the category of voice.

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular::plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality. It may be shown with the help of a triangle model:



It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not

correspond to anything in the objective reality. Such categories correlate only with conceptual matters:



They are called **significational** categories. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has **modality** as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality – it expresses the speaker’s attitude to what he says.

At least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number – singular and plural forms) must represent any grammatical category. The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** – book::books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural.

Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

Means of realization of grammatical categories may be synthetic (*near – nearer*) and analytic (*beautiful – more beautiful*).

In the process of communication, grammatical categories may undergo the processes of transposition and neutralization.

Transposition is the use of a linguistic unit in an unusual environment or in the function that is not characteristic of it (*He is a lion*). In the sentence *He is coming tomorrow* the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form is reduced and a new meaning appears – that of a future action. Transposition always results in the neutralization of a paradigmatic meaning. **Neutralization** is the reduction of the opposition to one of its members: custom:: customs – x :: customs; x :: spectacles.

Study questions:

1. What is lexical meaning?
2. What is grammatical meaning?

3. What classes of words are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only?
4. What types of grammatical meaning do you know?
5. What are types of implicit meaning?
6. What is explicit grammatical meaning?

Test.

1. What is lexical meaning?
 - a) the individual meaning of the word
 - b) the meaning of the whole class or a subclass
 - c) meaning, which is not expressed formally
 - d) meaning, which is always marked morphologically
2. What is grammatical meaning?
 - a) the meaning of the whole class or a subclass
 - b) the individual meaning of the word
 - c) meaning, which is not expressed formally
 - d) meaning, which is always marked morphologically
3. What classes of words are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only?
 - a) articles, particles, prepositions
 - b) adjectives and adverbs
 - c) verbids
 - d) nouns and pronouns
4. What are types of grammatical meaning?
 - a) implicit and explicit
 - b) expressive and nominative
 - c) synthetic and analytic
 - d) general and dependent
5. What are types of implicit meaning?
 - a) general and dependent
 - b) expressive and nominative
 - c) implicit and explicit
 - d) synthetic and analytic
6. What is implicit grammatical meaning?
 - a) meaning, which is not expressed formally
 - b) the meaning of the whole class or a subclass
 - c) the individual meaning of the word
 - d) meaning, which is always marked morphologically

7. What is explicit grammatical meaning?
- meaning, which is always marked morphologically
 - the meaning of the whole class or a subclass
 - the individual meaning of the word
 - meaning, which is not expressed formally
8. What is general grammatical meaning?
- meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech
 - meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech
 - meaning, which is not expressed formally
 - meaning, which is always marked morphologically
9. What is dependent grammatical meaning?
- meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech
 - meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech
 - meaning, which is not expressed formally
 - meaning, which is always marked morphologically

4. THE MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH WORD

Plan

- The morphological structure of the English word.
- The structural types of English words.
- The morphemic analysis of the word.

Key words and expressions

- Morphemes
- Affixes
- Suffix
- Prefix
- Inflectional suffixes
- Derivational
- Bound
- Free morphemes
- Affixational morphemes
- Derived stems
- Compound stem

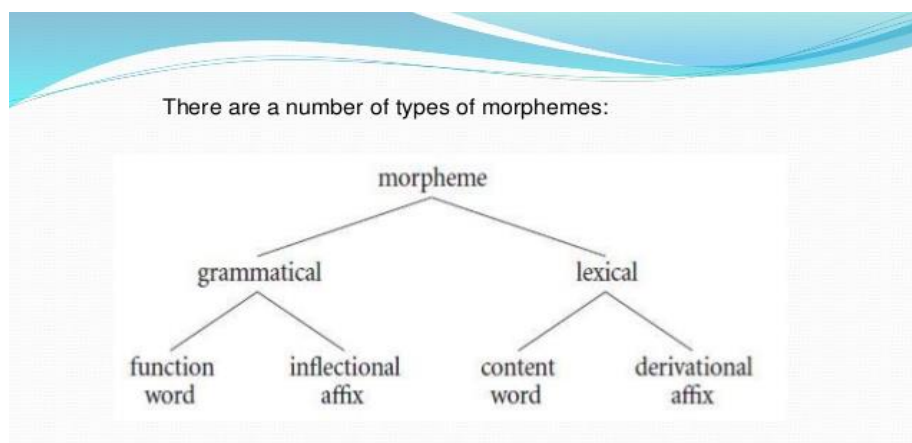
12. Allomorphes
13. Stem
14. Derivative stem

The list of recommended literature

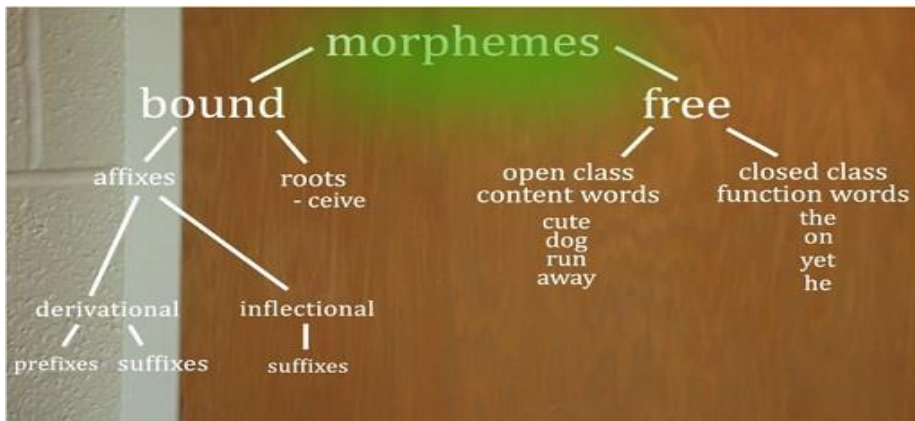
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The fundamental unit of language is a **word**. Being the most elementary unity of sound and meaning a word nevertheless falls into smaller meaningful structural units, which are called **morphemes**. Morphemes do not occur as free forms but only as constituents of words. Yet they possess meanings of their own.

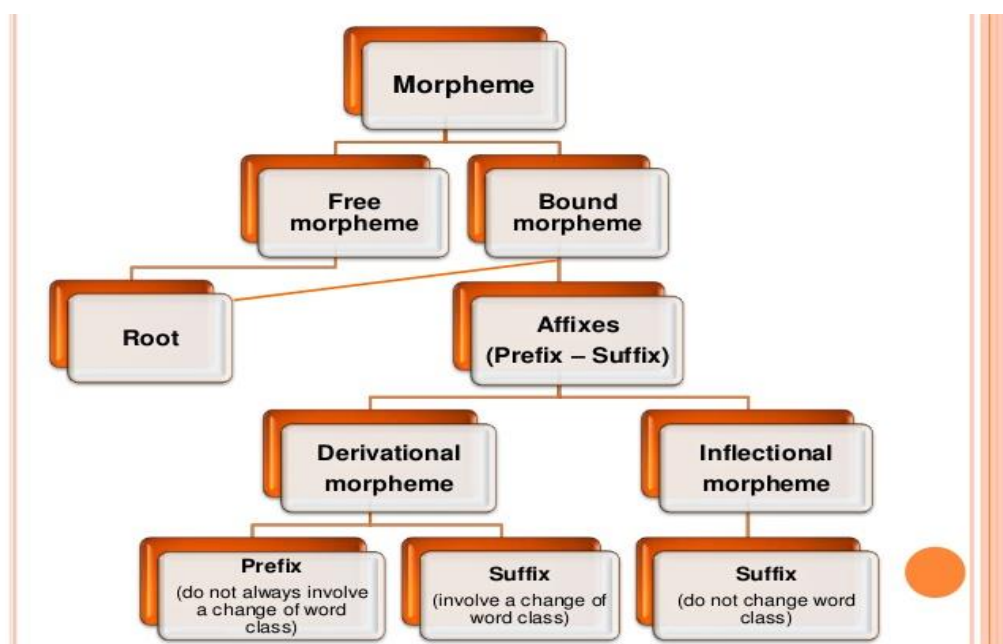
The notion and the term “*morpheme*” was suggested by Beaudouin de Courtenay in 1881. The word *morpheme* is one more term which linguistics owes to Greek [(*morphe* – “form” + the Greek suffix *-eme* which denotes the smallest unit or the minimum distinctive feature (Cf.: *phoneme*, *sememe*, *lexeme*, *grammeme*, *opposeme*)].



From the **semantic point of view** all morphemes are divided into two large classes: **root morphemes** (or roots) and **affixational morphemes** (or affixes). The root is the primary element of the word, its basic part which conveys its fundamental lexical meaning. For example, *end-* and *boy-* are the roots in the following groups of words: *end*, *ending*, *endless*, *unending*, *endlessly*, *endlessness* and *boy*, *boyhood*, *boyish*. There exist many root morphemes which coincide with root words, e.g. *man*, *son*, *desk*, *tree*, *red*, *black*, *see*, *look*, *serve*, etc.



The affixes, in their turn, fall into **prefixes** which precede the root (e.g. *unhappy*, *rewrite*, *discover*, *impossible*, *misbehavior*, etc.) and **suffixes** which follow the root (e.g. *friendship*, *peaceful*, *worker*, *teaching*, *realize*, *calmly*, etc.). The affixes in the above examples are **derivational affixes** serving to make new words and



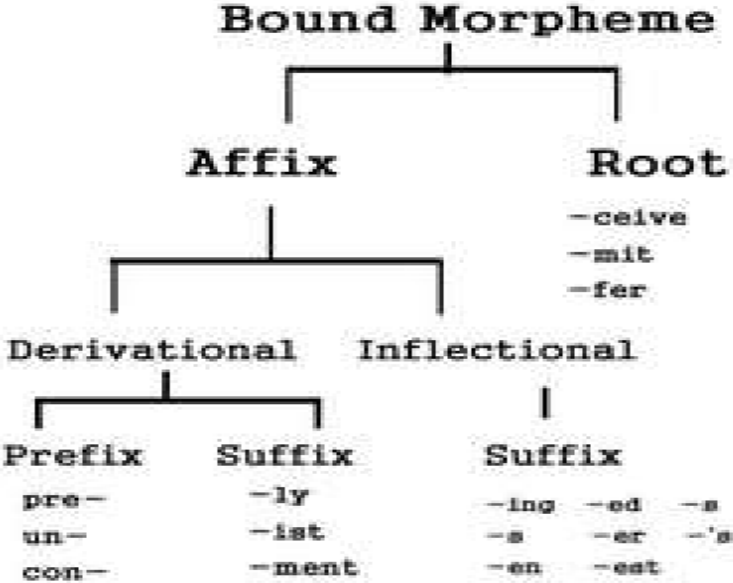
conveying lexico-grammatical meaning.

It should be mentioned that **prefixes** in Modern English are always **derivational** (e.g. *read* – *reread*, *arrange* – *disarrange*, *happy* – *unhappy*, *convenience* – *inconvenience*, etc.). As for suffixes, they are either inflectional or derivational. **Inflectional suffixes** (or inflections) are morphemes serving to make different forms of one and the same word and conveying grammatical meaning, e.g. *love* – *loves* – *loved*, *live* – *lives* – *lived*, *pavement* – *pavements*, *word* – *words*. Inflectional suffixes are studied by grammar.

The part of the word without its inflectional suffix is called a **stem**. Stems that coincide with roots are known as **simple stems**, e.g. *boy*, *s*, *trees*, *roads*, *books*; *reads*, *looks*, *seems*, etc. Stems that contain a root and one or more affixes are **derived stems**, e.g. *teacher*'s, *misfires*, *governments*, etc. Binary stems comprising two simple or derived stems are called **compound stems**, e.g. *machine-gunner*'s, *school-boyish*, etc.

From the **structural point of view** morphemes fall into 3 types: **free morphemes**, **bound morphemes** and **semi-bound morphemes**.

A **free morpheme** can stand alone as a word, e.g. *friendly*, *friendship* (cf.: *a friend*); *boyish*, *boyhood* (cf.: *a boy*). So, a free morpheme, is, in fact, a root.



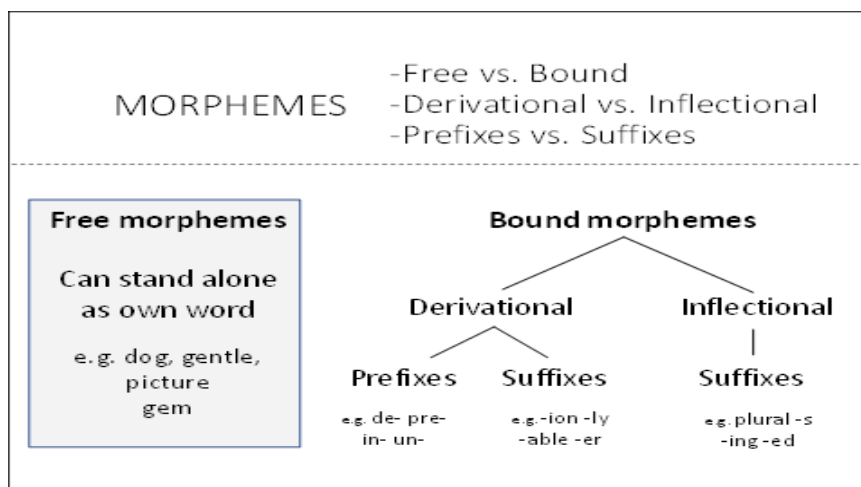
Bound morphemes occur only as constituent parts of words, e.g.

a) depart, enlarge, misprint, dishonest, unhappy;

b) freedom, greatly, poetic, beautiful, greenish;

c) conceive, perceive, deceive, receive; exist, desist, subsist, resist; interior, exterior, ulterior; conclude, occlude, preclude, include, exclude.

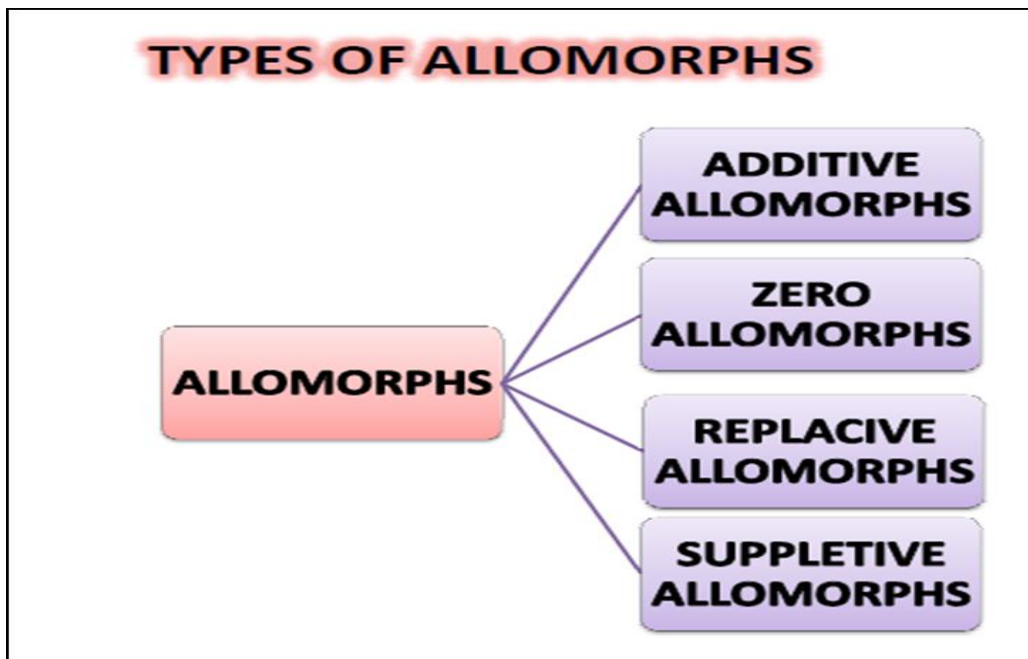
Bound morphemes are, in fact, of three types: **prefixes**, **suffixes** and **bound bases**. **Bound bases** are morphemes which serve as stems for derivation but which never occur as free forms,



e.g. structure, construct, destruct, etc.

Semi-bound morphemes can function both as affixes and as free morphemes, i.e. words. E.g. *after*, *half*, *man*, *well*, *self* and *after-thought*, *half-baked*, *chairman*, *well-known*, *himself*.

Positional variants of a morpheme occurring in a specific environment are called **allomorphs**.



Thus, for instance, the allomorphs of the prefix *in-* (*insane, insensitive, intransitive, involuntary*)
il- before *l* (*illogical, illegal, illegible, illegitimate*),
im- before bilabials: *b, m, p* (*imbalanced, immobile, immaterial, impossible, imperfect, impenetrable*)

Types of Allomorphs

differences is shown in the following table.

Phonological conditioned allomorph	Morphological & syntactical conditioned allomorph
1. /z/ beds, knees 2. /s/ parents, books 3. /iz/ houses, 4. /t/ helped 5. /d/ consumed 6. /id/ wanted, landed 7. /dis/ disagree, discount, disbelieve	1. Feet, geese, mice 2. Knife, knives, deep, depth 3. En, oxen, children, 4. Zero allomorph, deer, sheep, and Some irregular verbs, put, put, put. 1. Some changes to Consume, consumption, or

ir- before *r* (*irregular, irrational, irrational, irresolute, irresponsible*).

Study questions:

1. How many parts do affixal morphemes are divided into?
2. What are derivational morphemes?
3. What is a free morpheme?
4. How many types do bound morphemes have?
5. What is allomorphs?
6. Give examples to the derived stem.
7. How many types of prefixes in English?

Test.

1. From the point of view of structure morphemes can be divided into:
 - a) segmental, super-segmental
 - b) root, affixal
 - c) derivational, inflexional
 - d) affixal, prefixes
2. According to the traditional classification and there function morphemes are divided into:
 - a) root, affixal
 - b) segmental, super-segmental
 - c) derivational, inflexional
 - d) affixal, prefixes
3. Affixal morphemes are divided into:
 - a) derivational, inflexional
 - b) root, affixal
 - c) segmental, super-segmental
 - d) affixes, prefixes
4. Show the examples of inflexional morphemes.
 - a) reads, cats, risen
 - b) reader, worker, kindness
 - c) reads, reader
 - d) reading, reader
5. What are derivational morphemes?
 - a) they serve to build one part of speech from another
 - b) they form another grammatical category
 - c) they change the grammatical form
 - d) they form another grammatical structure

6. Which of the following words have a simple stem?
- write
 - transport
 - brother-in-law
 - give up
7. Which of the following words have a derivative stem?
- boyhood
 - in spite of
 - day
 - motor-car
8. Which of the following words have a compound stem?
- pickpocket
 - translated
 - books
 - at last

5.PARTS OF SPEECH. THE NOTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH

PLAN:

1. Different viewpoints to the problem of the parts of speech.
2. Word classes
3. Analysis of five criteria.

Key words and expressions

1. Disputable problem.
2. Different approaches.
3. Declinable (changeable).
4. Indeclinable (unchangeable).
5. Semantic classification.
6. Countable nouns.
7. Uncountable nouns.
8. Lexical-grammatical meaning.
9. Combinability.
10. Stem-building elements.
11. Lexical-grammatical morphemes.

12. Functional parts of speech.
13. Left-hand connections.
14. Right-hand combinability.
15. Word-building elements.
16. Parts of speech.
17. Notional and functional parts.
18. Lexical-grammatical classes.
19. Syntactic rule.
20. Main criteria.

The list of recommended literature

1. B.S. Khaimovich, B.L. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar. Moscow, 1967.
2. B.A Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. L.1983.
3. M.Y. Blokh. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M.,1983.
4. N.F. Irtenyeva and others. A Theoretical English Grammar (syntax) МД969.

The parts of speech are classes of words, all the members of these classes having certain characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of other classes. The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech. There are four approaches to the problem:

1. Classical (logical-inflectional)
2. Functional
3. Distributional
4. Complex

The **classical** parts of speech theory goes back to ancient times. It is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided dichotomically into **declinable** and **indeclinable** parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second –

indeclinable words – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The logical-inflectional classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

A new approach to the problem was introduced in the XIX century by Henry Sweet. He took into account the peculiarities of the English language. This approach may be defined as **functional**. He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles. To **nominative** parts of speech belonged noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals – gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the group of **particles**. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

A **distributional** approach to the parts to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by Charles Fries. He wanted to avoid the traditional terminology and establish a classification of words based on distributive analysis, that is, the ability of words to combine with other words of different types. At the same time, the lexical meaning of words was not taken into account. According to Charles Fries, the words in such sentences as 1. Woggles uggged diggles; 2. Uggs woggled diggs; and 3. Woggs diggled uggles are quite evident structural signals, their position and combinability are enough to classify them into three word-classes. In this way, he introduced four major **classes of words** and 15 **form-classes**. Let us see how it worked. Three test frames formed the basis for his analysis:

Frame A - The concert was good (always);

Frame B - The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly);

Frame C – The team went there.

It turned out that his four classes of words were practically the same as traditional nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. What is really valuable in Charles Fries' classification is his investigation of 15 groups

of function words (form-classes) because he was the first linguist to pay attention to some of their peculiarities.

All the classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning or its form, or its function.

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated according to three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach may be defined as **complex**. The **semantic** criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The **formal** criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The **functional** criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features; c) its syntactic peculiarities.

The linguistic evidence drawn from our grammatical study makes it possible to divide all the words of the language into:

- a) those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. – words with the corresponding references in the objective reality – **notional** words;
- b) those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances – **function** words, or **grammatical** words.

It is commonly recognized that the notional parts of speech are nouns, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adjectives, adverbs; the functional parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions and modal words.

The division of language units into notion and function words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In notional words the lexical meaning is predominant. In function words the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and function words is not always clear cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to function words - e.g. semi notional words – *to turn, to get, etc.*

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock while function words constitute a smaller group of words. Although the number of function words is limited (there are only about 50 of them in Modern English), they are the most frequently used units.

Generally speaking, the problem of words' classification into parts of speech is far from being solved. Some words cannot find their proper place. The most striking example here is the class of adverbs. Some language analysts call it *a ragbag, a dustbin* (Frank Palmer), Russian academician V.V.Vinogradov defined the class of adverbs in the Russian language as *мусорная куча*. It can be explained by the fact that to the class of adverbs belong those words that cannot find their place anywhere else. At the same time, there are no grounds for grouping them together either. Compare: *perfectly* (*She speaks English **perfectly***) and *again* (*He is here **again***). Examples are numerous (all temporals). There are some words that do not belong anywhere - e.g. *after all*. Speaking about *after all* it should be mentioned that this unit is quite often used by native speakers, and practically never by our students. Some more striking examples: *anyway, actually, in fact*. The problem is that if these words belong nowhere, there is no place for them in the system of words, then how can we use them correctly? What makes things worse is the fact that these words are devoid of nominative power, and they have no direct equivalents in the Russian languages. Meanwhile, native speakers use these words subconsciously, without realizing how they work.

According to the classification suggested by the famous linguists Sherba and Ilyish part of speech is a grammatical distribution of words divided into several classes according to the following criteria: meaning, form, function.

According to the presence or absence of these criteria words are divided into:

- a) notional parts of speech
- b) structural parts of speech

If a word is characterized by these three criteria it belongs to the notional parts of speech, and if a word is characterized by two of them only, it belongs to the structural parts of speech.

Let's speak about these three main criteria separately.

By the meaning of a part of speech can't be pure grammatical. One and the same part of speech can have different grammatical meanings. The meaning of a part of speech can't be pure lexical either, because every lexeme has its own lexical meaning, for ex., boy, rose. So the meaning of a part of speech combines lexical and grammatical

meanings. So the example of lexico grammatical meaning of a part of speech is as follows: thingness, action and quality. ; ; •

By the term from Sherba means the most characteristic grammatical categories of a part of speech.

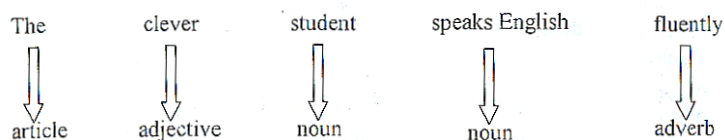
By the term function we understand the syntactic rule which is peculiar to a part of speech, for ex., verbs are mainly used as predicates in the sentence.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya added two more criteria to this classification:

1. Combinability 2. Stem-building elements.

1. Under combinability they understand the power of certain lexico-grammatical classes of words to form combinations of certain patterns with different parts of speech.

Combinability may be of 2 kinds: left hand and right hand.



Thus, nouns usually have numerous left hand connections with articles and adjectives. Verbs usually have left hand connections with nouns and personal pronouns (he writes, the boy runs) and numerous right hand combine ability with adverbs: write quickly.

2. Under stem-building elements Khaimovich and Rogovskaya understand such word-building elements which are specific only to different parts of speech separately, for ex -ment, -ism, -ness for nouns, -ful, -ous for adjectives, -ly for adverbs.

According to these points of classification all words in English are divided into the following parts of speech: noun, adjective, adverb, pronoun, modal verbs, category of stale, preposition, numerals, conjunctions, interjections, response words (yes, no), articles. Many authors speak about notional and functional parts of speech. Functional parts of speech differ from notional parts of speech, because they do not possess full lexical meaning, functional parts of speech include preposition, modal verbs, link verbs, particles.

Study questions:

1. What are approaches to the problem of parts of speech?
2. Who is the founder of functional approach?
3. Who is the founder of distributional approach?
4. What criteria are discriminated parts of speech in modern linguistics?
5. What does semantic criterion presuppose?

Test.

1. What are approaches to the problem of parts of speech?
 - a) classical, functional, distributional, complex
 - b) meaning, form, function
 - c) traditional, structural, transformational
 - d) transposition and neutralization
2. Classical approach distinguishes parts of speech into.....
 - a) declinable and indeclinable
 - b) functional and nominative
 - c) four major classes of words and 15 form-classes
 - d) semantic, formal, functional
3. Functional approach distinguishes parts of speech into.....
 - a) nominative and particles
 - b) declinable and indeclinable
 - c) four major classes of words and 15 form-classes
 - d) semantic, formal, functional
4. Who is the founder of functional approach?
 - a) Henry Sweet
 - b) Blokh
 - c) Charles Fries
 - d) Naom Chomsky
5. Distributional approach distinguishes parts of speech into.....
 - a) four major classes of words and 15 form-classes
 - b) declinable and indeclinable
 - c) nominative and particles
 - d) semantic, formal, functional
6. Who is the founder of distributional approach?
 - a) Charles Fries
 - b) Blokh
 - c) Henry Sweet

d) Naom Chomsky

7. What criteria are discriminated parts of speech in modern linguistics?

a) semantic, formal, functional

b) declinable and indeclinable

c) four major classes of words and 15 form-classes

d) nominative and particles

8. What does semantic criterion presuppose?

a) the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words

b) paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features

c) syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability

d) having no references of their own in the objective reality

6. THE FUNCTIONAL PARTS OF SPEECH

PLAN:

1. General review to the secondary parts of speech.

2. Preposition;

3. Conjunctions;

4. Articles;

5. Particles

Key words and expressions

1. Semi-notional parts of speech,

2. Similar distinctions.

3. Notional and semi-notional parts of speech.

4. Verbal substitute.

5. Weak lexical meanings.

6. Obligatory unilateral combinability.

7. Bilateral combinability.

8. Linking words.

9. Specifying words.

10. Local and temporal meanings.

11. Peculiar combinability.

12. Typical stem building.

13. Coordinating / subordinating.

14. Homogeneous elements.
15. Left-hand combinability.
16. Right-hand combinability.

The list of recommended literature.

1. B.S Khaimovich, B.I Rogovskaya A Course in English Grammar. Moscov,1967.
2. B A Ilyish. The structure of modern English. L., 1971.
3. M.Y. Blokh. A course in Theoretical English Grammar. M.,1983
4. N.F. Irtenyeva and others A Theoretical English Grammar (syntax).M.,1969
5. И. П. Иванова и др. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка.М., 1981

A similar distinction can be drawn between notional and semi-notional parts of speech. Notional parts of speech usually have substitutes. For ex: nouns, numerals and adverbs can be replaced by pronouns called as: pro-nouns — Tom-he, pro-numerals - ten books-many books, pro-adverbs - here, there, now.

Verbs can be replaced by verbal substitute - do. The lexical meaning of semi-notional parts of speech are usually so weak and general that these words can hardly be replaced by substitutes with still more general meanings.

Prepositions, conjunctions, articles and particles may be regarded as semi-notional parts of speech. The following features unite them as the semi-notional parts of speech:

1. their very weak general and comparatively weak lexical meanings
2. their isolability
3. their obligatory unilateral (articles, particles) or bilateral (prepositions, conjunctions) combinability
4. their functions of linking (prepositions, conjunctions) or specifying (articles, particles) words.

The prepositions.

The preposition as a part of speech is defined by the following features:

1. Its lexical meaning of relation (of substance): The book is on the

table.

2. Its bilateral combinability with right-hand noun and left-hand word, belonging to almost any part of speech: I am going to school. It's typical of modern literature.

3. Its function of a linking word: I am looking for my book.

Prepositions are not characterized by any grammatical categories or stem-building elements.

As to their structure prepositions fall into:

1. Simple: at, to, in, by etc.
2. Derivative: beside, along, below etc.
3. Compound: inside, into, throughout etc.
4. Composite: instead of, in front of, in accordance with etc.

The lexical meaning of prepositions is an abstraction from their individual lexical meanings. If we compare the following combination we can easily see that the preposition shows the relation of one noun to another, which reflects the relations of the corresponding substances in the word of reality. This meaning of relation is common to all prepositions

in their lexico-grammatical meaning:

The pen in the bag

The pen on the bag

The pen under the bag

The pen near the bag

It is difficult to define the lexical meaning of a preposition than that of a noun or an

adjective, because they usually have very general, abstract meanings.

According to the meaning prepositions may be classified into those of place, time,

direction etc. (Kaushanskaya, page 209, Barkhudarov, page 264).

When we speak about local and temporal meanings of a preposition we simply add the meanings of the neighboring words to those of the prepositions. For ex., the meaning of the preposition "in" may be local: in Tashkent, temporal: in July. abstract: in love etc.

Prepositions like on, in, at, by may be used with all kinds of nouns, so that the local, temporal, abstract, etc. meanings of the prepositional

construction do not depend on the preposition but on the noun, and they may be called general prepositions. But there are some other prepositions which might be used with nouns of certain meanings. For instance: " till " can be used with nouns midnight, time, but not with door, town etc. They may be called special prepositions.

The combinability of the preposition is rather peculiar. As a rule it is followed by a noun or its equivalents. But at the same time it is associated with some preceding notional word belonging to nearly any part of speech. The model V+ prep.+ N is of great interest. In such cases one and the same verb can be followed by different prepositions depending on the sense. For ex., look after, look for, look at. I am going to looking for my dog, I am looking at the blackboard, I am looking after my grandmother.

In other cases, verbs are regularly followed by a fixed preposition: listen to, depend on, rely on, explain to. In English there are words functioning as prepositions and materially they are adverbs. He was in the room (preposition). He came in (adverb). They walked up. (adverb).

Considering in¹- in², up¹- up² as homonyms is not right. Because between these words there is no great distinction. In both cases in and up express the same relation, in the above- mentioned examples these words express local relations. In the sentences He was in the room, and He walked up the hill, the words in and up. perform auxiliary functions, in the sentences He came in and He walked up. The words in and up perform notional function.

Besides, in and up in the above- mentioned examples can't be considered as homonyms, because homonyms are based on the casual phonetic coincidence, but the material coincidence of the preposition and the adverb is the regular phenomenon and it is widely spread.

The conjunctions.

This part of speech is characterized by the following features:

- 1.Its lexico-grammatical meaning: "relations" between substances, actions, properties, situations etc.
- 2.Its peculiar combinability: As a rule, a conjunction connects two similar units, words, of clauses.
- 3.Its function of a linking word.

Conjunctions are not characterized by any grammatical categories or typical stem-building elements. As to their stem-structure they are divided into simple (and, but, or, that) derivative (until, unless, because), compound (although, wherever), composite (as if, in order that, as soon as, either ... or, neither... nor).

The nature of the relation of conjunctions is usually divided into: coordinating: and, or, but, and subordinating: if, that as soon as. The combinability of coordinating conjunctions is bilateral. A conjunction connects homogenous elements: noun with a noun, verb with a verb, clause with a clause.

The combinability of subordinating conjunctions is different. Subordinating conjunctions mostly connect clauses not words.

The division of conjunctions into coordinating and subordinating is based on their lexical meanings and types.

Coordinating conjunctions are used to connect both words and clauses in compound

sentences. Subordinating conjunctions uniting clauses occur in complex sentences.

Subordinating conjunctions introduce subject, object, attribute and adverbial clauses.

The book which is lying on the table is mine.

The article

They are characterized by the following features:

- 1.the lexico-grammatical meaning
- 2.the right-hand combinability with nouns
- 3 it doesn't coincide with the notional words.

The lexical meaning of a (n) in modern English is very weak.

Its original meaning is "one" (OE= an/a came from "one")

The lexical meaning of "the" in modern English is the meaning of the demonstrative pronoun "that" (it came from OE). The common feature of the combinability of the articles is due to their belonging to the same part of speech. The difference in their combinability can be explained by the difference in their lexical meanings.

In modern English we have three cases: the definite article the, the indefinite article a(n) and the zero article, that is the absence of the article.

The indefinite article is used to denote the object which is considered as one of the representatives of the called class of objects and therefore it is a classifying article.

The lexical meaning of a(n) (one) explain why it is not used with uncountable nouns like show, water.

Abstract uncountable nouns can occur with indefinite article if it is used to denote kinds or varieties of some abstract concept, state, quality.

A/an is not used with proper nouns, because its meaning "one of many" does not go with the individualizing meaning of a proper noun. A Moscow is not correct. The definite article may be used with many nouns:

Abstract nouns: the terror

Material nouns: the air

Singular or plural nouns - the book/ the books.

The zero article denotes the absence of the article before some nouns. The absence of the article also expresses the definite semantic meaning. It expresses general meaning, the object in this case is considered as substance in general, for ex., snow as the definite state of water, beauty as the category of esthetics, light (in physics), a light, the light (fire), the snow is white, language (the means of communication), the language (some definite language).

The zero article must be differed from the technical or stylistic absence of the article or the absence of the article for technical and stylistic aims: in newspapers, in telegrams, in vocabularies and calendars.

The zero article is used when there is no classification, individualization or comparison of objects. The zero article explains the substance itself not taking into consideration its scale, number, border, form and alike features.

Concerning the proper nouns we can't say about the absence of classification or

generalization. The same interpretation of the zero article concerns the words Nurse,

Baby, Mother, Father which are used in the family circle.

The particle

The particle as a part of speech is characterized by:

1. Its lexico-grammatical meaning of emphatic specification

2. Its combinability with words of different classes, group of words even clauses

3. It expresses the attitude of the speaker towards the utterance. Particles underline some parts of the sentence, some moment of the utterance. Particles have no grammatical categories, no typical system-building elements.

As to their structure they may be simple (just, still, yet, even), derivative (merely, simple, above), compound (also).

Self-control questions:

1. How can we define notional words?
2. What are the semi- notional parts of speech?
3. What are the notional parts of speech?
4. What classes of words are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only?
5. What types of combinability do you know?
6. What are types of nouns according to lexical meaning?

Test.

1. How can we define notional words?

- a) those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. – words with the corresponding references in the objective reality
- b) paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features
- c) syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability
- d) those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances

2. What are the semi- notional parts of speech?

- a) article, particle, preposition, conjunction
- b) article, particle, link verbs
- c) interjections, prepositions, postposition
- d) preposition, conjunction

3. What classes of words are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only?

- a) articles, particles, prepositions
- b) adjectives and adverbs
- c) verbids

- d) nouns and pronouns
- 4.State the compound prepositions in the following.
- a) inside, within
- b) below, beside
- c) instead of , owing to
- d) by, with
- 5.What types of combinability do you know?
- a) left hand and right hand
- b) synthetic and analytic
- c) meaning and form
- d) structural, formal
- 6.According to lexical meaning the type of nouns:
- a) All of them
- b) concrete, mass
- c) abstract, collective
7. According to the type of nomination, nouns may be...
- a) proper and common
- b) human and non-human
- c) animate and inanimate
- d) countable and uncountable

7. THE NOUN

PLAN:

1. General characteristics.
2. The category of number
3. The category of case
4. The Problem of Gender in English

Key words and expressions

1. Grammatical category of number.
2. Grammatical category case.
3. The category of gender.
4. Substance, thingness.
5. Concrete nouns.
6. Mass nouns.
7. Abstract nouns.

8. Collective nouns.
9. Proper nouns.
10. Vowel alternation.
11. Borrowed allomorphs.
12. Phenomenon-phenomena.
13. Formula-formulae.
14. Common case.
15. Nominative case.
16. Possessive case.
17. Genitive case.
18. Subclass of declinable nouns.
19. Subclass of indeclinable nouns.
20. Lifeless objects.
21. Purely lexical or semantic category.
22. Pronominal substitution.
23. Human nouns/ non-human nouns.
24. Person nouns/ non-person nouns.

The list of recommended literature

- 1.B.S. Khaimovich, B.L. Rogovskaya. A Course in English grammar. Moscow, 1967.
- 2.B.A. Ilyish. the Structure of Modern English. L. 1983
- 3.MY Blokh. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 1983.
- 4.N.F. Irtenyeva and others. A Theoretical English Grammar. Syntax. M., 1969.

The noun is the central lexical unit of language. It is the main nominative unit of speech. As any other part of speech, the noun can be characterised by three criteria: **semantic** (the meaning), **morphological** (the form and grammatical categories) and **syntactical** (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the noun. The noun possesses the grammatical meaning of thingness, substantiality. According to different principles of classification nouns fall into several subclasses:

1. According to the type of nomination they may be **proper** and **common**;

2. According to the form of existence, they may be **animate** and **inanimate**. Animate nouns in their turn fall into **human** and **non-human**.
3. According to their quantitative structure, nouns can be **countable** and **uncountable**.

This set of subclasses cannot be put together into one table because of the different principles of classification.

Morphological features of the noun. In accordance with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: simple, derived (stem + affix, affix + stem – *thingness*); compound (stem+ stem – *armchair*) and composite (the Hague). The noun has morphological categories of number and case. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of gender.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in all syntactic functions but predicate. Speaking about noun combinability, we can say that it can go into right-hand and left-hand connections with practically all parts of speech. That is why practically all parts of speech but the verb can act as noun determiners. However, the most common noun determiners are considered to be articles, pronouns, numerals, adjectives and nouns themselves in the common and genitive case.

The grammatical category of number is the linguistic representation of the objective category of quantity. The number category is realized through the opposition of two form-classes: the plural form:: the singular form. The category of number in English is restricted in its realization because of the dependent implicit grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness. The number category is realized only within subclass of countable nouns.

The grammatical meaning of number may not coincide with the notional quantity: the noun in the singular does not necessarily denote one object while the plural form may be used to denote one object consisting of several parts. The singular form may denote:

- a) oneness (individual separate object – *a cat*);
- b) generalization (the meaning of the whole class – *The cat is a domestic animal*);
- c) Indiscreteness (нерасчлененность or uncountableness – *money, milk*).

The plural form may denote:

- a) the existence of several objects (*cats*);
- b) The inner discreteness (внутренняя расчлененность, pluralia tantum, *jeans*).

To sum it up, all nouns may be subdivided into three groups:

1. The nouns in which the opposition of explicit discreteness/indiscreteness is expressed : *cat::cats*;
2. The nouns in which this opposition is not expressed explicitly but is revealed by syntactical and lexical correlation in the context. There are two groups here:
 - A. Singularia tantum. It covers different groups of nouns: proper names, abstract nouns, material nouns, collective nouns;
 - B. Pluralia tantum. It covers the names of objects consisting of several parts (*jeans*), names of sciences (*mathematics*), names of diseases, games, etc.
3. The nouns with homogenous number forms. The number opposition here is not expressed formally but is revealed only lexically and syntactically in the context: e.g. *Look! A sheep is eating grass. Look! The sheep are eating grass.*

Case expresses the relation of a word to another word in the word-group or sentence (*my sister's coat*). The category of case correlates with the objective category of possession. The case category in English is realized through the opposition: The Common Case:: The Possessive Case (*sister :: sister's*). However, in modern linguistics the term “genitive case” is used instead of the “possessive case” because the meanings rendered by the “`s” sign are not only those of possession. The scope of meanings rendered by the Genitive Case is the following:

- a) Possessive Genitive : *Mary's father* – *Mary has a father*,
- b) Subjective Genitive: *The doctor's arrival* – *The doctor has arrived*,
- c) Objective Genitive : *The man's release* – *The man was released*,
- d) Adverbial Genitive : *Two hour's work* – *X worked for two hours*,
- e) Equation Genitive : *a mile's distance* – *the distance is a mile*,
- f) Genitive of destination: *children's books* – *books for children*,
- g) Mixed Group: *yesterday's paper*

Nick's school		cannot be reduced to one nucleus
John's word		

To avoid confusion with the plural, the marker of the genitive case is represented in written form with an apostrophe. This fact makes possible disengagement of -'s form from the noun to which it properly belongs. E.g.: *The man I saw yesterday's son*, where -'s is appended to the whole group (the so-called group genitive). It may even follow a word which normally does not possess such a formant, as in *somebody else's book*.

There is no universal point of view as to the case system in English. Different scholars stick to a different number of cases.

1. There are two cases. The Common one and The Genitive;
2. There are no cases at all, the form's is optional because the same relations may be expressed by the 'of-phrase': *the doctor's arrival* – *the arrival of the doctor*;
3. There are three cases: the Nominative, the Genitive, the Objective due to the existence of objective pronouns *me, him, whom*;
4. Case Grammar. Ch.Fillmore introduced syntactic-semantic classification of cases. They show relations in the so-called deep structure of the sentence. According to him, verbs may stand to different relations to nouns. There are 6 cases:
 - 1) Agentive Case (A) John opened the door;
 - 2) Instrumental case (I) The key opened the door; John used the key to open the door;
 - 3) Dative Case (D) John believed that he would win (the case of the animate being affected by the state of action identified by the verb);
 - 4) Factitive Case (F) The key was damaged (the result of the action or state identified by the verb);
 - 5) Locative Case (L) Chicago is windy;
 - 6) Objective case (O) John stole the book.

Gender plays a relatively minor part in the grammar of English by comparison with its role in many other languages. There is no gender concord, and the reference of the pronouns *he, she, it* is very largely determined by what is sometimes referred to as 'natural' gender for English, it depends upon the classification of persons and objects as male, female or inanimate. Thus, the recognition of gender as a

grammatical category is logically independent of any particular semantic association.

According to some language analysts (B.Ilyish, F.Palmer, and E.Morokhovskaya), nouns have no category of gender in Modern English. Prof.Ilyish states that not a single word in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to peculiarities of their lexical meaning. The difference between such nouns as *actor* and *actress* is a purely lexical one. In other words, the category of sex should not be confused with the category of gender, because sex is an objective biological category. It correlates with gender only when sex differences of living beings are manifested in the language grammatically (e.g. *tiger* – *tigress*). Still, other scholars (M.Blokh, John Lyons) admit the existence of the category of gender. Prof.Blokh states that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (*he, she, it*). Accordingly, there are three genders in English: the neuter (non-person) gender, the masculine gender, the feminine gender.

Self-control questions:

1. What are the most common noun determiners?
2. What are subdivisions of all nouns?
3. What does M. Blokh state according the category of gender?
4. What does Ilyish state according the category of gender?
5. What point does not exist concerning case category?
6. What does the case express?

Test:

- 1.What nouns are included into singularia tantum nouns?
 - a) nouns which have only singular forms
 - b) nouns which have only plural forms
 - c) nouns which have neither singular, nor plural forms
 - d) nouns which have both singular and plural
- 2.What nouns are included into pluralia tantum nouns?
 - a) nouns which have only plural forms
 - b) nouns which have only singular forms

- c) nouns which have neither singular, nor plural forms
 - d) nouns which have both singular and plural
3. What is the opinion of linguist Vorontsova according to the category of case?
- a) nouns have lost the category of case
 - b) nouns have more than two cases
 - c) nouns have only two case forms
 - d) nouns have only one case
4. The category of gender in English is...
- a) lexical category
 - b) grammatical category
 - c) lexico- grammatical category
 - d) it is not a category
5. According to the type of nomination nouns may be.....
- a) proper and common
 - b) human and non-human
 - c) animate and inanimate
 - d) countable and uncountable
6. According to the form of existence nouns may be.....
- a) animate and inanimate
 - b) human and non-human
 - c) countable and uncountable
 - d) proper and common
7. According to the quantitative structure nouns may be.....
- a) proper and common
 - b) human and non-human
 - c) animate and inanimate
 - d) countable and uncountable
8. What is the classification of nouns according to their structure?
- a) simple, derived, compound, composite
 - b) simple, derived, compound
 - c) simple, derived
 - d) compound and composite

8. THE ADJECTIVE and THE ADVERB

Plan:

1. The characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech
 - The types of adjectives
2. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison
 - The means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives
3. Substantivization of adjective

Key words and expressions

<i>Absolute</i>	<i>Non-comparable</i>
<i>Category of comparison</i>	<i>Combine</i>
<i>Combinability</i>	<i>Comparable</i>
<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Degrees of comparison</i>
<i>Inflections</i>	<i>Modify</i>
<i>Positive</i>	<i>Qualitative</i>
<i>Stem building</i>	<i>Substance</i>
<i>Superlative</i>	<i>Syllabic adjectives</i>
<i>Quantitative</i>	<i>Circumstantial</i>

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

1. Their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things/persons/;
2. From the morphological viewpoint they have the category of degrees of comparison;
3. 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.

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

5. 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 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:

- 1) Comparable adjectives
- 2) 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:

- 1) Positive degree
- 2) Comparative degree
- 3) 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 will 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

2) 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)

3) 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).

4) 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:

1. More and -er identical as to their meaning of “higher degree”;
2. 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. In addition, if it is a grammatical category, it cannot be formed by several means; therefore, we consider it 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.

5) 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/ that 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 partialsubstantivization. All the substantivized adjectives can be explained within the terms of nouns.

Adverb

The adverb is separated into a special part of speech because of the following facts:

1. Meaning: they express the degree of a property, property of an action, circumstances under which an action takes place.
2. Form: they have the degrees of comparison.
3. Stem-building elements: -ly, -ways, -wards, ...
4. Combinability: bilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks: e.g. He was hard asleep.
5. Function: Adverbial modifiers.

According to the meaning adverbs fall under three subclasses:

1. Qualitative
2. Quantitative
3. Circumstantial

Qualitative adverbs usually modify verbs.

Adverbs like: badly, quickly, slowly, steadily, comparatively may be referred **to** this type of adverbs.

They denote the quality of actions:

Ex: Clay collapsed on the sand beside Cathie, a wet arm playfully snatching her towel away.

I want to go home, she said determinedly.

The Qualitative adverbs are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix -ly. Like adjectives, the qualitative adverbs have distinctions of degree. These adverbs can both precede and follow the verbs. Quantitative adverbs show the degree, measure, quantity of an action and state. To the subclass adverbs like *very*, *rather*, *too*, *nearly*, *greatly*, *fully*, *hardly*, *quite*, *utterly* may be referred. Ex. She had told herself before that

it would be foolish to fall in love with Rob. Moreover, she had finally done it.

Her gaze trailed around the room again, stopping at the partially opened double doors that led into the parlour.

Some part of her was walking with him because of that strange, intimate look they had exchanged - a look that Cathie would rather forget, but warmth was too fresh. J. Daiby.

If the combinability of the qualitative adverbs is bound with verbs only the combinability of the quantitative adverbs are more extensive: they can modify verbs, the words of category of state, adjectives, adverbs, numerals and nouns.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote in most cases local and temporal circumstances attending an action.

Accordingly, they are divided into two groups:

a) adverbs of time and frequency /today, tomorrow, often, again, twice .../.

b) adverbs of place and direction: upstairs, behind, in front of, ... Ex.

They stood outside

the door, giving me directions. Now and then they deliberately refused to jump up and find himself something to do when the unpleasant sensations clutched at him.

c) She waited in front of the window and when he came down, he thrust a small dark blue box into her hands. L.Wright

Thus, circumstantial adverbs denote the time and place the action took place. Therefore, unlike the previous subclasses the circumstantial adverbs can occupy any position in the sentence.

Some circumstantial adverbs can have the degrees of comparison: often, late, near and so on.

Special attention should be given to the fact that some circumstantial adverbs may be preceded by prepositions: from now on, up to now, from there and so on.

Self-control questions:

1. What are subdivisions of adverb semantically?
2. What combinabilities do the adverbs have?

3. What do qualitative adverbs denote?
4. What is the semantical classification of adjectives?
5. What is the function of the adjective in the sentence?
6. What is the lexico-grammatical meaning of the adjectives?
7. What is the lexico-grammatical meaning of the adverb?

Test:

1. What is the classification of adjectives according to their structure?
 - a) simple, derived, compound
 - b) simple, derived
 - c) simple, derived, compound, composite
 - d) compound and composite
2. What is the semantical classification of adjectives?
 - a) relative and qualitative
 - b) human and non-human
 - c) animate and inanimate
 - d) proper and common
3. What combinabilities do the adverbs have?
 - a) verbs, adjectives
 - b) verbs, nouns
 - c) adjectives, nouns
 - d) predicatives
4. What is the lexico-grammatical meaning of the adjectives?
 - a) the quality of substance
 - b) the state of an action
 - c) the substance
 - d) the action
5. What grammatical category does the adjective have in English?
 - a) degrees of comparison
 - b) gender, degrees of comparison
 - c) number, case
 - d) Tense
6. What is the function of the adjective in the sentence?
 - a) predicative, attribute

- b) adverbial modifier, predicative
 - c) attribute, adverbial modifier
 - d) subject, object
7. What are the stem-building elements of the adjectives?
- a) –ous, -ful, -less, un-, in-, ir-
 - b) –er, -ment, -ness, re-
 - c) –en, -ize, -ous, dis-
 - d) –ly, -ing, -er
8. What do the adverbs denote?
- a) secondary property
 - b) substantival property
 - c) different states, mostly of temporary duration
 - d) substantiality
9. What are typical suffixes of adverbs?
- a) –wards, -wise, -ly
 - b) –er, -est
 - c) -en, -ify, -ize
 - d) –ful, -ous
10. What combinabilities do the adverbs have?
- a) verbs, adjectives
 - b) verbs, nouns
 - c) adjectives, nouns
 - d) predicatives

9. THE VERB.

Plan

1. General characteristics
2. Classifications of English verbs
3. The category of voice
4. The category of tense
5. The category of aspect

Key words and expressions

1. Conversion.

21. Auxiliary verbs.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 2. Back formation. | 22. Link verbs. |
| 3. Composition. | 23. Modal verbs. |
| 4. Compound verbs. | 24. Compound verbs |
| 5. Regular verbs. | 25. Composite verbs |
| 6. Irregular verbs. | 26. Standard/non-standard |
| verbs | |
| 7. Notional verbs. | 27. Inflexions |
| 8. Functional verbs. | 28. Root-change |
| 9. Weakened lexical meaning. | 29. Suppletive forms |
| 10. Speaker's attitude to the action. | 30. Complicated paradigm |
| 11. The category of voice. | 31. Syntactic functions |
| 12. The category of mood. | 32. Synthetic forms |
| 13. Reflexive voice. | 33. Analytic forms |
| 14. Middle voice. | 34. Affixation |
| 15. Passive voice. | 35. Positional elements |
| 16. Active voice. | 36. Productive/non- |
| productive | |
| 17. Reciprocal voice. | |
| 18. Disputable problem. | |
| 19. Reflexiveness. | |
| 20. Transitive/Intransitive. | |

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2. B.A. Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. L, 1983.
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Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. First, it performs the central role in realizing predication - connection between situation in the utterance and reality. That is why the verb is of primary informative significance in an utterance. Besides, the verb possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories. Furthermore, within the class of verb various subclass divisions based on different principles of classification can be found.

Semantic features of the verb. The verb possesses the grammatical meaning of verbality - the ability to denote a process developing in time. This meaning is inherent not only in the verbs denoting processes, but also in those denoting states, forms of existence, evaluations, etc.

Morphological features of the verb. The verb possesses the following grammatical categories: tense, aspect, voice, mood, person, number, finitude and phase. The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms. The formative elements expressing these categories are *grammatical affixes*, *inner inflexion* and *function words*. Some categories have only synthetical forms (*person, number*), others - only analytical (*voice*). There are also categories expressed by both synthetical and analytical forms (*mood, tense, aspect*).

Syntactic features. The most universal syntactic feature of verbs is their ability to be modified by adverbs. The second important syntactic criterion is the ability of the verb to perform the syntactic function of the predicate. However, this criterion is not absolute because only finite forms can perform this function while non-finite forms can be used in any function but predicate. Finally, any verb in the form of the infinitive can be combined with a modal verb.

According to different principles of classification, classifications can be morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.

A. **Morphological** classifications..

I. According to their stem-types all verbs fall into:

Simple (*to go*),

Sound-replacive (*food - to feed, blood - to bleed*),

Stress-replacive (*import -to im port, transport - to transport, expanded* (with the help of suffixes and prefixes): *cultivate, justify, overcome, composite* (correspond to composite nouns): *to blackmail*), phrasal: *to have a smoke, to give a smile* (they always have an ordinary verb as an equivalent).

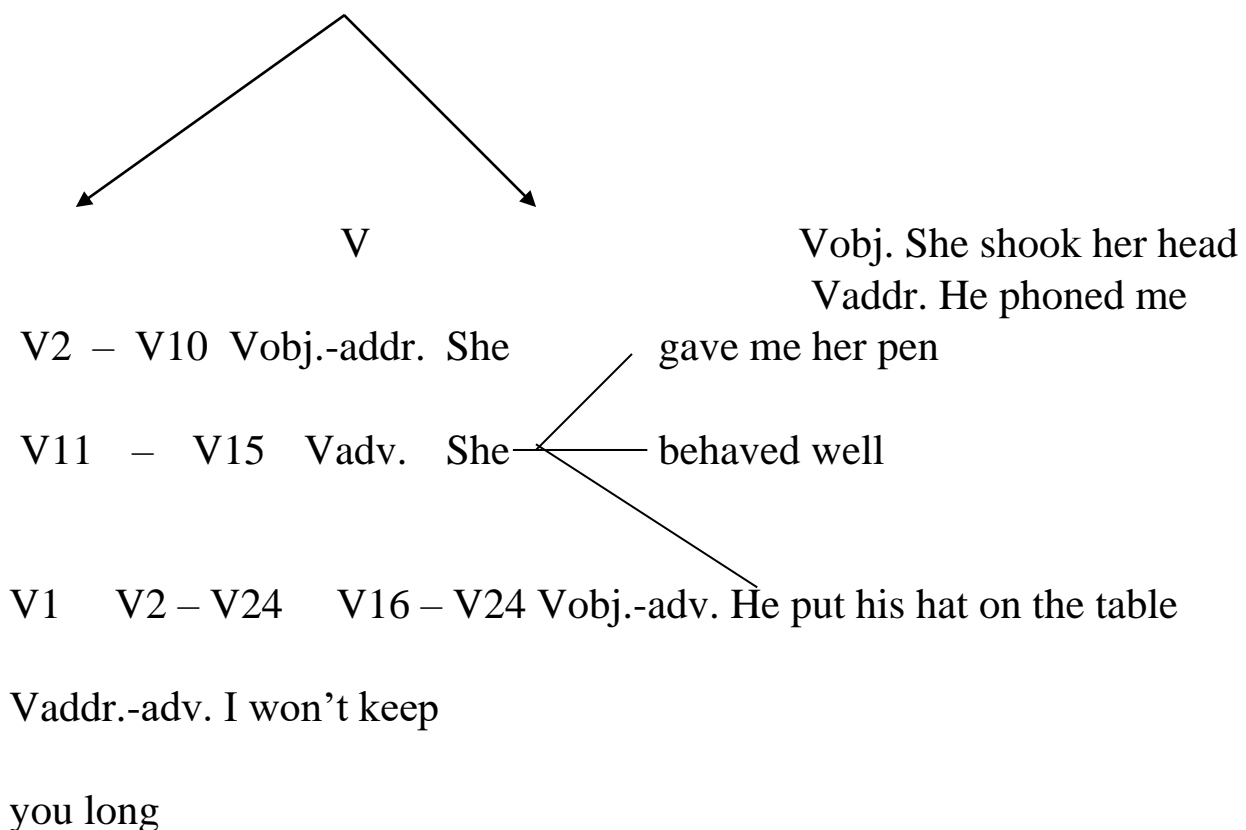
II. According to the way of forming past tenses and Participle II verbs can be regular and irregular.

B. **Lexical-morphological** classification is based on the implicit grammatical meanings of the verb. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity, verbs fall into

transitive and intransitive. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of stativeness/non-stativeness verbs fall into stative and dynamic. According to the implicit grammatical meaning of terminativeness/non-terminativeness verbs fall into terminative and durative. This classification is closely connected with the categories of Aspect and Phase.

C. Syntactic classifications. According to the nature of predication (primary and secondary), all verbs fall into finite and non-finite. According to syntagmatic properties, (valency) verbs can be of obligatory and optional valency, and thus they may have some directionality or be devoid of any directionality. In this way, verbs fall into the verbs of directed (*to see, to take, etc.*) and non-directed action (*to arrive, to drizzle, etc.*):

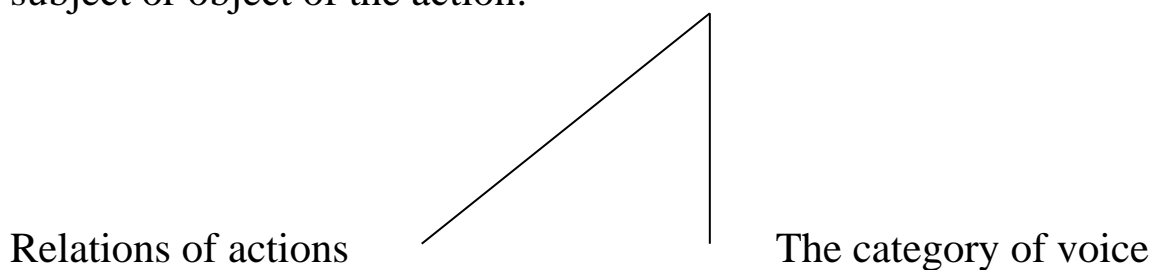
Syntagmatic classification of English verbs (according to prof.G.Pocheptsov)



D. Functional classification. According to their functional significance verbs can be notional (with the full lexical meaning), semi-notional (modal verbs, link-verbs), auxiliaries.

The form of the verb may show whether the agent expressed by the

subject is the doer of the action or the recipient of the action (*John broke the vase - the vase was broken*). The objective relations between the action and the subject or object of the action find their expression in language as the grammatical category of voice. Therefore, the category of voice reflects the objective relations between the action itself and the subject or object of the action:



The category of voice is realized through the opposition Active voice::Passive voice. The realization of the voice category is restricted because of the implicit grammatical meaning of transitivity/intransitivity. In accordance with this meaning, all English verbs should fall into transitive and intransitive. However, the classification turns out to be more complex and comprises 6 groups:

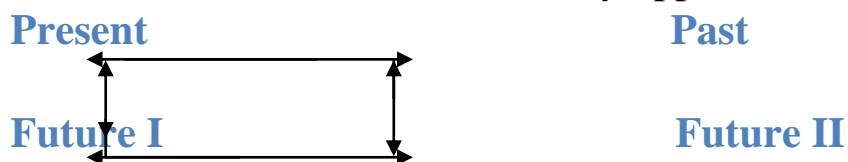
1. Verbs used only transitively: *to mark, to raise*;
2. Verbs with the main transitive meaning: *to see, to make, to build*;
3. Verbs of intransitive meaning and secondary transitive meaning. A lot of intransitive verbs may develop a secondary transitive meaning: *They laughed me into agreement; He danced the girl out of the room*;
4. Verbs of a double nature, neither of the meanings are the leading one, the verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively: *to drive home - to drive a car*;
5. Verbs that are never used in the Passive Voice: *to seem, to become*;
6. Verbs that realize their passive meaning only in special contexts: *to live, to sleep, to sit, to walk, to jump*.

Some scholars admit the existence of Middle, Reflexive and Reciprocal voices. "Middle Voice" - the verbs primarily transitive may develop an intransitive middle meaning: *That adds a lot; The door opened; The book sells easily; The dress washes well.* "Reflexive Voice": *He dressed; He washed* - the subject is both the agent and the recipient of the action at the same time. It is always possible to use a reflexive pronoun in this case: *He washed himself.* "Reciprocal voice": *They met; They kissed* - it is always possible to use a reciprocal

pronoun here: *They kissed each other.*

We cannot, however, speak of different voices, because all these meanings are not expressed morphologically.

The category of tense is a verbal category that reflects the objective category of time. The essential characteristic of the category of tense is that it relates the time of the action, event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of the utterance (the time of the utterance being 'now' or the present moment). The tense category is realized through the oppositions. The binary principle of oppositions remains the basic one in the correlation of the forms that represent the grammatical category of tense. The present moment is the main temporal plane of verbal actions. Therefore, the temporal dichotomy may be illustrated by the following graphic representation (the arrows show the binary opposition):



Generally speaking, the major tense-distinction in English is undoubtedly that which is traditionally described as an opposition of past::present. But this is best regarded as a contrast of past:: non-past. Quite a lot of scholars do not recognize the existence of future tenses, because what is described as the 'future' tense in English is realized by means of auxiliary verbs *will* and *shall*. Although it is undeniable that *will* and *shall* occur in many sentences that refer to the future, they also occur in sentences that do not. And they do not necessarily occur in sentences with a future time reference. That is why future tenses are often treated as partly modal.

The category of aspect is a linguistic representation of the objective category of Manner of Action. It is realized through the opposition Continuous::Non-Continuous (Progressive::Non-Progressive). The realization of the category of aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning of verbs.

There are some verbs in English that do not normally occur with progressive aspect, even in those contexts in which the majority of verbs necessarily take the progressive form. Among the so-called 'non-progressive' verbs are *think*, *understand*, *know*, *hate*, *love*, *see*, *taste*, *feel*, *possess*, *own*, etc. The most striking characteristic that they have in

common is the fact that they are 'stative' - they refer to a state of affairs, rather than to an action, event or process. It should be observed, however, that all the 'non-progressive' verbs take the progressive aspect under particular circumstances. As the result of internal transposition verbs of non-progressive nature can be found in the Continuous form: *Now I'm knowing you*. Generally speaking the Continuous form has at least two semantic features - **duration** (the action is always in progress) and **definiteness** (the action is always limited to a definite point or period of time). In other words, the purpose of the Continuous form is to serve as a frame which makes the process of the action more concrete and isolated

Study questions:

1. What does the grammatical category of voice express?
2. What categories of the verb have only analytical forms?
3. What principles of classifications of the verbs do you know?
4. What categories of the verb have only synthetical forms?
5. What does the verb denote?

Test:

1. What does the verb denote?
 - a) verbiality - the ability to denote a process developing in time
 - b) substantival property
 - c) secondary property
 - d) different states, mostly of temporary duration
2. What are common categories for finite and non-finite forms?
 - a) voice, aspect
 - b) voice, mood
 - c) tense, aspect
 - d) person, number
3. What categories of the verb have only synthetical forms?
 - a) person, number
 - b) voice, mood
 - c) voice, aspect
 - d) tense, aspect
4. What categories of the verb have only analytical forms?

- a) Voice
- b) Tense
- c) Aspect
- d) Mood

5. What categories of the verb have both synthetic and analytical forms?

- a) mood, tense, aspect
- b) voice, mood, aspect
- c) tense, aspect, voice
- d) person, number, tense

6. What principles of classifications of the verbs do you know?

- a) Morphological, lexical-morphological, syntactical and functional.
- b) functional and notional
- c) stative and dynamic
- d) terminative and durative

7. According to what classification do all verbs fall into: simple, sound-replacive, stress-replacive, expanded (with the help of suffixes and prefixes), composite, phrasal

- a) Morphological
- b) lexical-morphological
- c) syntactic
- d) functional

8. According to what classification do all verbs fall into: transitive and intransitive, stative and dynamic, terminative and durative.

- a) lexical-morphological
- b) morphological
- c) syntactic
- d) functional

9. According to what classification do all verbs fall into: directed (*to see, to take, etc.*) and non-directed action (*to arrive, to drizzle, etc.*)

- a) syntactic
- b) lexical-morphological
- c) morphological
- d) functional

10. According to what classification do all verbs fall into: notional (with the full lexical meaning), semi-notional (modal verbs, link-verbs), auxiliaries.

- a) functional
- b) lexical-morphological
- c) syntactic
- d) morphological

10. SYNTAX. BASIC SYNTACTIC NOTIONS

PLAN:

1. General characteristics of syntax
2. Kinds of syntactic theories
3. Basic syntactic notions.

Key words and expressions

1. Syntactic relations.
2. Coordination.
3. Subordination.
4. Predication
5. Independent elements.
6. Grammatical structure.
7. Extended phrases.
8. Adjective phrases.
9. Adverb phrases.
10. Verb phrases.
11. Absolute Participle Construction.
12. Government.
13. Adjoinment.
14. Agreement.
15. Syntactic ties.
16. Classification of phrases.
17. A simple (elementary) phrase.
18. A complex phrase.
19. Subordination.
20. Predication.
21. Coordination.

The list of recommended literature.

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4. N.F. Irtenyeva and others *A Theoretical English Grammar (syntax)*.M. 1969

The grammatical structure of language comprises two major parts – morphology and syntax. The two areas are obviously interdependent and together they constitute the study of grammar.

Morphology deals with paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphological units – morphemes and words. It is concerned with the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm. It studies morphological categories and their realization.

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts.

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly, different syntactic theories exist.

Transformational-Generative Grammar. The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zelling Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of ‘generating’ (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

(1) NV – *John sings*.

(2) NVAdj. – *John is happy*.

(3) NVN – *John is a man*.

(4) NVN – *John hit the man*.

(5) NVNN – *John gave the man a book.*

(6) NVPrep.N – *The book is on the table.*

It should be noted that (3) differs from (4) because the former admits no passive transformation.

Transformational method proves useful for analysing sentences from the point of their deep structure:

Flying planes can be dangerous.

This sentence is ambiguous, two senses can be distinguished: a) the action of flying planes can be dangerous, b) the planes that fly can be dangerous. Therefore it can be reduced to the following kernels:

a) *Planes can be dangerous*

b) *Planes can be dangerous*

X (people) fly planes

Planes fly

Constructional Syntax. Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Prof. G.Pocheptsov in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element *him* in the sentence *I saw him there yesterday* is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time the elements *there* and *yesterday* are constructionally insignificant – they can be omitted without destroying the whole structure.

Communicative Syntax. It is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis. Both the theme and the rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The theme is something that is known already while the rheme represents some new information. Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme:

Who is at home? - John is at home. Where is John? – John is at home.

Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units can briefly be described as the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals. **Speech Act Theory** was first introduced by John Austin. The notion of a speech act presupposes that an utterance can be said with different intentions or purposes and therefore can influence the speaker and situation in different ways:

window);
It's cold here

I just state the fact;
I want you to do something about it (close the
window);
I'm threatening you;
I'm seeking for an excuse for not doing something;
I want you to feel guilty of it;
Etc.

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Of special interest here is the problem of indirect speech acts: *Are you leaving already?* In our everyday activities we use indirect speech acts rather willingly because it is the best way to influence people, to get what we want and to be polite at the same time.

Textlinguistics studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis.

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: *syntactic unit, syntactic form, syntactic meaning, syntactic function, syntactic position, and syntactic relations*.

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

- a) they are hierarchical units – the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;
- b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

Syntactic unit $\equiv \equiv$ $\frac{\text{content side}}{\text{expression side}} \quad \frac{\text{syntactic meaning}}{\text{syntactic form}}$

- c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature – word-groups

and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts

are of communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences.

Green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning. **Syntactic form** may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). *John hits the ball* – N1 + V + N2.

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: in the word-group *a smart student* the word ‘smart’ is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: *his broad **back**, a **back** district, to go **back**, to **back** sm.*

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types – coordination, subordination and predication.

1. Syntactic relations.

The syntactic units can go into three types of syntactic relations.

1. **Coordination (SR1)** – syntagmatic relations of independence. SR1 can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements – *pens and pencils*. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SR1 may be copulative (*you and me*), disjunctive (*you or me*), adversative (*strict but just*) and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only).
2. **Subordination (SR2)** – syntagmatic relations of dependence. SR2 are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds – adverbial (*to speak slowly*), objective (*to see a house*) and attributive (*a beautiful flower*). Forms of subordination may also be different – agreement (*this book – these books*), government (*help us*), adjournment (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even, etc.*) and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all, etc.*).

3. **Predication (SR3)** – syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds – primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

Study questions:

1. How many kernels are commonly associated with the English language in defining sentences according the Transformational-Generative Grammar
2. What is the main point of the Constructional Syntax concerning syntactic units?
3. How many kernels are commonly associated with the English language in defining sentences according the Transformational-Generative Grammar?
4. What is the main point of the Communicative Syntax concerning syntactic units?

Test:

1. What does syntax deal with?
 - a) the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word-groups, sentences and texts
 - b) the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm
 - c) paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of phonological units
 - d) lexical categories and their realization
2. What is the main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar concerning syntactic units?
 - a) the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations and these kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes.
 - b) the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the

obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements

- c) the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis
- d) the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals

3. How many kernels are commonly associated with the English language in defining sentences according the Transformational-Generative Grammar

- a) 6
- b) 5
- c) 4
- d) 7

4. What is the main point of the Constructional Syntax concerning syntactic units?

- a) the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements
- b) the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis
- c) the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations and these kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes.
- d) the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals

5. What is constructionally significant element in the following sentence according Constructional Syntax: *I saw him there yesterday?*

- a) Him
- b) There
- c) Yesterday
- d) him and there

6. What are constructionally insignificant elements in the following sentence according Constructional Syntax: *I saw him there*

yesterday?

- a) there and yesterday
- b) him and there
- c) Yesterday
- d) saw and him

7. What is the main point of the Communicative Syntax concerning syntactic units?

- a) the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis
- b) the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements
- c) the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations and these kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes.
- d) the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals

8. What is theme in the sentence according communicative syntax?

- a) something that is known already
- b) different intention
- c) speech act
- d) some new information

9. What is rheme in the sentence according communicative syntax?

- a) some new information
- b) different intention
- c) something that is known already
- d) speech act

10. What is the main point of the Pragmatic Approach concerning syntactic units?

- a) the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals
- b) the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements
- c) the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a

finite number of kernels by means of transformations and these kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes.

- d) the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance – the theme and rheme analysis

11. THE WORD-GROUP THEORY

PLAN:

1. Definition and general characteristics of the word-group
2. Classification of word-groups.
3. Subordinate word-groups.
4. Noun phrases
5. Verb phrases

Key words and expressions

1. Subordinate phrase.
2. Coordinative phrase.
3. Predicative phrase
4. Noun phrases.
5. Verb phrases.
6. Adjective phrases.
7. Adverb phrases
8. Pronoun phrases.
9. Numeral phrases.
10. Modifiers.
11. Adjuncts.
12. Group genitive.
13. Idiomatic compounds,
14. A post-posed adjuncts.
15. A participial phrases.
16. A preposition pharese.
17. An infinitive phrasesese.

The list of recommended literature.

1. B. S. Khaimovich, B. I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar.

Moscow 1967.

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There are a lot of definitions concerning the word-group. The most adequate one seems to be the following: the word-group is a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected. According to some other scholars (the majority of Western scholars and professors B.Ilyish and V.Burlakova – in Russia), a combination of a notional word with a function word (*on the table*) may be treated as a word-group as well. The problem is disputable as the role of function words is to show some abstract relations and they are devoid of nominative power. On the other hand, such combinations are syntactically bound and they should belong somewhere.

General characteristics of the word-group are:

1) As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word-group corresponds to the number of different denotates: a black bird – чёрный петух (2), a blackbird – дроздь (1);

a loud speaker (2), a loudspeaker (1).

2) Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: *to see a house - to see houses*.

3) A word-group is a dependent syntactic unit, it is not a communicative unit and has no intonation of its own.

Word-groups can be classified on the basis of several principles:

a) According to the type of syntagmatic relations: **coordinate** (*you and me*), **subordinate** (*to see a house, a nice dress*), **predicative** (*him coming, for him to come*),

b) According to the structure: **simple** (all elements are obligatory), **expanded** (*to read and translate the text* – expanded elements are equal in rank), **extended** (a word takes a dependent element and this

dependent element becomes the head for another word: *a beautiful flower – a very beautiful flower*).

Subordinate word-groups are based on the relations of dependence between the constituents. This presupposes the existence of a governing Element which is called **the head** and the dependent element which is called **the adjunct** (in noun-phrases) or **the complement** (in verb-phrases).

According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into **noun-phrases** (NP) – *a cup of tea*, **verb-phrases** (VP) – *to run fast, to see a house*, **adjective phrases** (AP) – *good for you*, **adverbial phrases** (DP) – *so quickly*, **pronoun phrases** (IP) – *something strange, nothing to do*.

The formation of the subordinate word-group depends on the valency of its constituents. **Valency** is a potential ability of words to combine. Actual realization of valency in speech is called combinability.

The noun-phrase (NP).

Noun word-groups are widely spread in English. This may be explained

by a potential ability of the noun to go into combinations with practically all parts of speech. The NP consists of a noun-head and an adjunct or adjuncts with relations of modification between them. Three types of modification are distinguished here:

- a) **Premodification** that comprises all the units placed before the head: *two smart hard-working students*. Adjuncts used in pre-head position are called **pre-posed** adjuncts.
- b) **Postmodification** that comprises all the units all the units placed after the head: *students from Boston*. Adjuncts used in post-head position are called **post-posed** adjuncts.
- c) **Mixed modification** that comprises all the units in both pre-head and post-head position: *two smart hard-working students from Boston*.

Pre-posed adjuncts

Post-posed adjuncts

Pronoun		Adj.
Adj.		Ven
N2		Ving
N's		prep.N2
Ven		prepVing
Ving		D
Num		Num
D		wh-clause, that-clause

Noun-phrases with pre-posed adjuncts.

In noun-phrases with pre-posed modifiers we generally find adjectives, pronouns, numerals, participles, gerunds, nouns, nouns in the genitive case (see the table). According to their position all pre-posed adjuncts may be divided into **pre-adjectivals** and **adjectivals**. The position of adjectivals is usually right before the noun-head. Pre-adjectivals occupy the position before adjectivals. They fall into two groups: a) **limiters** (to this group belong mostly particles): *just, only, even, etc.* and b) **determiners** (articles, possessive pronouns, quantifiers – *the first, the last*).

Premodification of nouns by nouns (N+N) is one of the most striking features about the grammatical organization of English. It is one of devices to make our speech both laconic and expressive at the same time. Noun-adjunct groups result from different kinds of transformational shifts. NPs with pre-posed adjuncts can signal a striking variety of meanings:

world peace – peace all over the world

silver box – a box made of silver

table lamp – lamp for tables

table legs – the legs of the table

river sand – sand from the river

school child – a child who goes to school

The grammatical relations observed in NPs with pre-posed adjuncts may convey the following meanings:

1) subject-predicate relations: *weather change*;

- 2) object relations: *health service, women hater*;
 3) adverbial relations: a) of time: *morning star*,
 b) place: *world peace, country house*,
 c) comparison: *button eyes*,
 d) purpose: *tooth brush*.

It is important to remember that the noun-adjunct is usually marked by a stronger stress than the head.

Of special interest is a kind of ‘grammatical idiom’ where the modifier is reinterpreted into the head: *a devil of a man, an angel of a girl*.

Noun-phrases with post-posed adjuncts.

NPs with post-posed may be classified according to the way of connection into **prepositionless** and **prepositional**. The basic prepositionless NPs with post-posed adjuncts are: Nadj. – *tea strong*, NVen – *the shape unknown*, NVing – *the girl smiling*, ND – *the mandownstairs*, NVinf – *a book to read*, NNum – *room ten*.

The pattern of basic prepositional NPs is N1 prep. N2. The most common preposition here is ‘of’ – *a cup of tea, a man of courage*. It may have quite different meanings: **qualitative** – *a woman of sense*, **predicative** – *the pleasure of the company*, **objective** – *the reading of the newspaper*, **partitive** – *the roof of the house*.

The verb-phrase.

The VP is a definite kind of the subordinate phrase with the verb as the head. The verb is considered to be the semantic and structural centre not only of the VP but of the whole sentence as the verb plays an important role in making up primary predication that serves the basis for the sentence. VPs are more complex than NPs as there are a lot of ways in which verbs may be combined in actual usage. Valent properties of different verbs and their semantics make it possible to divide all the verbs into several groups depending on the nature of their complements (see the table ‘Syntagmatic properties of verbs’, Lecture 6).

Classification of verb-phrases.

VPs can be classified according to the nature of their complements – verb complements may be nominal (*to see a house*) and adverbial (*to behave well*). Consequently, we distinguish **nominal**, **adverbial** and **mixed** complementation.

Nominal complementation takes place when one or more nominal complements (nouns or pronouns) are obligatory for the realization of potential valency of the verb: *to give smth. to smb.*, *to phone smb.*, *to hear smth.(smb.)*, etc.

Adverbial complementation occurs when the verb takes one or more adverbial elements obligatory for the realization of its potential valency: *He behaved well*, *I live ...in Kyiv (here)*.

Mixed complementation – both nominal and adverbial elements are obligatory: *He put his hat on he table* (nominal-adverbial).

According to the **structure** VPs may be **basic** or **simple** (*to take a book*) – all elements are obligatory; **expanded** (*to read and translate the text, to read books and newspapers*) and **extended** (*to read an English book*).

Predicative word-groups.

Predicative word combinations are distinguished on the basis of secondary predication. Like sentences, predicative word-groups are binary in their structure but actually differ essentially in their organization. The sentence is an independent communicative unit based on primary predication while the predicative word-group is a dependent syntactic unit that makes up a part of the sentence. The predicative word-group consists of a nominal element (noun, pronoun) and a non-finite form of the verb: N + Vnon-fin. There are Gerundial, Infinitive and Participial word-groups (complexes) in the English language: *his reading*, *for me to know*, *the boy running*, etc.)

Study questions:

1. What are classifications of Verb phrases according to the structure?
2. What are classifications of word-group according to the structure?
3. The most adequate definition to the word-group is ...?

4. According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into...?
5. What are classifications of Verb phrases according to the nature of their complements?
6. What are classifications of word-group according to the type of syntagmatic relations?

Test:

1. The most adequate definition to the word-group is..
 - a) combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected
 - b) separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences
 - c) distributional formula of the unit (pattern)
 - d) a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit
2. What are classifications of word-group according to the type of syntagmatic relations?
 - a) coordinate, subordinate, predicative
 - b) the head and the adjunct
 - c) simple, expanded, extended
 - d) noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, pronoun phrase
3. What are classifications of Verb phrases according to the structure?
 - a) simple, expanded, extended
 - b) the head and the adjunct
 - c) nominal, adverbial and mixed
 - d) coordinate, subordinate, predicative
4. What are classifications of word-group according to the structure?
 - a) simple, expanded, extended
 - b) the head and the adjunct
 - c) noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, pronoun phrase
 - d) coordinate, subordinate, predicative
5. According to the nature of their heads, subordinate word-groups fall into.....
 - a) noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase,

pronoun phrase

- b) the head and the adjunct
- c) simple, expanded, extended
- d) coordinate, subordinate, predicative

6. What are classifications of Verb phrases according to the nature of their complements?

- a) nominal, adverbial and mixed
- b) the head and the adjunct
- c) simple, expanded, extended
- d) coordinate, subordinate, predicative

7. What are classifications of Verb phrases according to the structure?

- a) simple, expanded, extended
- b) the head and the adjunct
- c) nominal, adverbial and mixed
- d) coordinate, subordinate, predicative

12. THE SENTENCE AND THE UTTERANCE

PLAN:

1. The sentence
2. Different approaches to the study of the sentence.
3. The utterance. Informative structure of the utterance.
4. Functional typology of utterances.

Key words and expressions

1. Simple sentences.
2. Logical judgement.
3. Communicative unit.
4. Complete thought.
5. Semantic viewpoint.
6. Utterance.
7. Subject-predicate structure.
8. Declarative sentences.
9. Imperative sentences.
10. Interrogative sentences.
11. Exclamatory sentences.

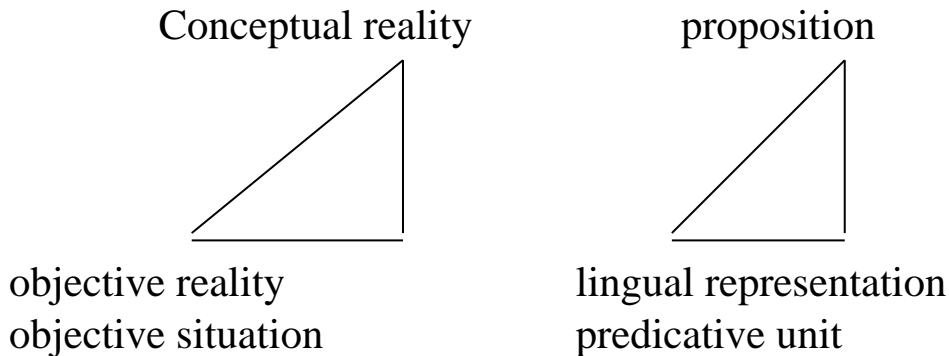
12. 12. Imperative mood.
13. Composite sentences.
14. Traditional simple sentences.
15. Mono-predicative sentences.
16. Predicative unit.
17. Polypredicative sentences.
18. Elliptical sentences.
19. One-member sentences.
20. Two-member sentences.
21. Communicative/non-communicative sentences.
22. Conversational signals.
23. Oral response.
24. Action response.

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1. B. S. Khaimovich, B. I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar. Moscow 1967.
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4. N.F. Irtenyeva and others A Theoretical English Grammar (syntax).M. 1969

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician G.Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality:



We may define the proposition as the main predicative form of thought. Basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb that is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence (primary predication).

To sum it up, the sentence is a syntactic level unit, it is a predicative language unit which is a lingual representation of predicative thought (proposition).

Different approaches to the study of the sentence.

- a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.
- b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis.

To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is **immediate constituents**.

Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning:

become larger (8 kernels), e.g. N1 V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*,
N1 V N2: *I see a house*.

The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences

Syntactic processes may be **internal** and **external**. Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence (subject, etc.). External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence.

The internal syntactic processes are:

ExpansionCompression

The phone was ringing and ringing *They were laughing and singing*

ComplicationContamination

(a synt. unit becomes complicated) (two parts of the sentence are joined together – e.g. double predicate)

I have seen it – I could have seen it
The moon rose red

Replacement – the use of the words that have a generalized meaning: *one, do, etc, I'd like to take this one.*

Representation – a part of the syntactic unit represents the whole syntactic unit: *Would you like to come along? I'd love to.*

Ellipsis – *Where are you going? To the movies.*

The external syntactic processes are:

Extension - *a nice dress – a nice cotton dress.*

Ajoinment - the use of specifying words, most often particles: *He did it – Only he did it.*

Enclosure – inserting modal words and other discourse markers: *after all, anyway, naturally, etc.*

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be **the theme** and **the rheme**. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) – actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term “sentence” but actually they mean “utterance”).

In English, there is a “standard” word order of Subject + Verb + Object: *The cat ate the rat* – here we have a standard structure (N1 + V + N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

1. *The rat was eaten by the cat.*
2. *It was the cat that ate the rat.*
3. *It was the rat that the cat ate.*
4. *What the cat did was ate the rat.*
5. *The cat, it ate the rat.*

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as **given** information or **the theme**. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as **new** information or **the rheme**.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule, new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate **the rat**.*
2. Intonation.
3. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): *A **gentleman** is waiting for you.*
4. The use of ‘there is’, ‘there are’. *There is **a cat** in the room.*
5. The use of special devices, like ‘as for’, ‘but for’, etc.: *As for **him**, I don’t know.*
6. Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun.*
7. The use of emphatic constructions: *It was **the cat** that ate the rat.*

However, sometimes the most important information is not expressed formally: *The cat ate the rat after all.* The rheme here is ‘the rat’. At the same time there is very important information which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or – it was hard for the cat to catch the rat, or – the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on the context or situation). In other words, we may say that this

sentence contains two informative centres, or two rhemes – explicit and implicit.

Functional typology of utterances.

Actional utterance: N + Vact. + Complement – actional predicate

Performative utterance: I + Vperf./Vsay – performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N + Vbe + A/Q – characterizing predicate

(See the book by E.Morokhovskaya ‘Fundamentals of Theoretical English Grammar’, pp.254-268)

Self-control questions:

1. How do you denote elliptical sentences?
2. How can external syntactic process be?
3. What is rheme in the sentence according communicative syntax?
4. What is theme in the sentence according communicative syntax?
5. What is utterance?
6. What are the main categories of utterance?

Test:

1. How can internal syntactic process be?

- a) no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence
- b) those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence
- c) inserting modal words and other discourse markers
- d) the use of specifying words, most often particles

2.How can external syntactic process be?

- a) those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence
- b) no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence
- c) inserting modal words and other discourse markers
- d) the use of specifying words, most often particles

3.What is theme in the sentence according communicative syntax?

- a) something that is known already
- b) different intention
- c) speech act
- d) some new information

4.What is rheme in the sentence according communicative syntax?

- a) some new information

- b) different intention
- c) something that is known already
- d) speech act

5. What are the main categories of utterance?

- a) theme and rheme
- b) subject and object
- c) subject and predicate
- d) explicit and implicit

6. What is utterance?

- a) a unit of speech
- b) the smallest meaningful unit
- c) a unit of language
- d) the smallest communicative unit

7. How do you denote elliptical sentences?

- a) The main sphere of them is dialogue where the part of the sentence that is left out can be either supplied from the preceding sentence (pronounced by another speaker) or may be easily dispensed with
- b) contain one or more than one predicative lines (axes)
- c) only one of the principal parts is present in the sentence
- d) one or more of their parts left out

13. THEORIES OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE IN MODERN LINGUISTICS

PLAN:

1. The notion of the elementary simple sentence.
2. Parts of the sentence
3. The IC model of the sentence.
4. The paradigmatic study of the simple sentence.

Key words and expressions

1. Intonation contour
2. sentence stress
3. predication
4. modality
5. chunk
6. subject

7. object
8. attribute
9. adverbial modifier
10. declarative
11. interrogative
12. imperative

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There exist more than 300 definitions of the sentence. M. Blokh defines it in the following way: “The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually The sentence is characterized by an intonation contour, sentence stress, predication, modality, and a relatively complete meaning. These characteristics distinguish the sentence as a communicative unit from the word and the word-group as nominative language units.

A sentence may consist of just one word (Morning. Here. Go.), but possessing predication, it does not only name some referents of the extra-lingual reality but presents them as making up some situational event. Predication establishes the relation of the denoted event to objective reality. The centre of predication in the sentences of the verbal type (which is the dominant type in English) is a finite verb which expresses predicative meanings of tense, aspect, mood, etc. Through grammatical forms. The process denoted by the verb is connected with the agent (the doer of the action), the object and various circumstances of realization of the process. Thus predication is realized not only through the axis “subject – predicate”, but also through the secondary parts of the sentence. Unlike the word the sentence does not exist in the language system as a readymade unit. With the exception of a limited number of utterances of phraseological character it is created

by the speaker in the course of communication. It is not a unit of language proper, but a chunk of text built up as a result of a speech generating process. Being a unit of speech the sentence is intonationally delimited and participates in rendering essential communicative-predicative meanings (modality of the sentence), e.g. interrogative vs. declarative meanings.

Sentences are classified according to different criteria: their structure, the purpose of communication, the type of subject and predicate, etc. Structurally sentences are divided into simple and composite; one-member and two-member; complete and elliptical. Sentences are differentiated into simple and composite depending on whether they contain one or more than one predicative lines (axes). Sentences with both a subject and a predicate are called two-member (binary)sentences. Binary sentence structures predominate in modern English. The basic structure is the S – P which can be extended through complementation to S –P – O,S –P –O –D, S–P –O –D –D, etc. If only one of the principal parts is present the sentence is one-member: nominal (Fire!) or verbal (Come on!). Nominal sentence simply the action, verbal sentences imply the agent: (It is) fire! (You) come on!

One-member sentences should be differentiated from elliptical sentences, i.e. sentences with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context. The main sphere of elliptical sentences is dialogue where the part of the sentence that is left out can be either supplied from the preceding sentence (pronounced by another speaker) or may be easily dispensed with, e.g. Where are you going to? –The movies. – Who with? –David.

According to the purpose of communication, sentences fall into declarative, interrogative and imperative. The semantic classification of the simple sentence is based on the following principles:

1) subject categorical meaning:

personal sentences
human

(e) impersonal sentences
non-human

(a) definite (b) indefinite (c) animate (d) inanimate

(a) He came early. (b)He who does not work neither shall he eat.

(c) It (the dog) ran up to me. (d) It (my watch) is fast.

(e) It is never late to learn.

2) predicate categorial meaning:

verbal sentences

nominal sentences

(a) actional

(b) statal

(c) factual

(d) perceptual

(a) The window is opening. (b) The window is glistening.

(c) It rains. (d) It smells of hay.

3) subject-predicate relations:

subjective sentences (John lives in London); objective sentences (John is reading a book); neutral, or potentially objective sentences (John is reading).

The sentence is both a communicative and nominative unit. The nominative division of the sentence is the traditional division into parts of the sentence. The principal parts of the sentence are the subject and the predicate. The subject denotes the agent or the recipient of the action in active and passive constructions correspondingly. Structurally it may be simple, phrasal or clausal. Semantically it may be notional or formal. The notional subject is expressed by the noun or any other part of speech equivalent to the noun in the sentence: personal or indefinite pronoun, numeral, substantivized adjective, infinitive or gerund, e.g. Seeing is believing. The formal subject is a structural element of the sentence filling the position of the subject and expressed by it (introductory, impersonal or emphatic: It's no use crying over spilt milk. It never rains but pours. It was then that he noticed something strange going on.) or there. Sentences with the formal there are called existential. Their predicates may be the verbs be, live, come, lie, hang, stand and some others, e.g. There comes my daughter. Once upon a time there lived a king. In English the subject generally precedes the predicate; it is direct word order. Inverted word order in the declarative sentence is found (a) in conditional clauses starting with had, e.g. Had I known you better I would have entrusted the letter to you; (b) in sentences starting with words of negative or restrictive meaning such as never, nor, neither, nowhere else, scarcely, hardly, seldom, not only and the conjunction so, e.g. Neither came he to see her off. Hardly had he come from France he set up his own tourist business.

The predicate denotes the action performed or experiences by the subject. Structurally it may be simple or compound; semantically, verbal or nominal. The simple verbal predicate is classified into synthetic (come, comes, came) and analytical (will come, has come,

etc.). The compound verbal predicate is divided into the compound verbal aspect predicate (aspect verb+infinitive /gerund, e.g. start to think/thinking) and the compound verbal modal predicate (modal verb+ infinitive, e.g. should help); there may be two modal verbs in the predicate, e.g. He may have to return.

The compound nominal predicate is made up by a link-verb (be, seem, sound, look, etc.) and a predicative expressed a noun, an adjective, a pronoun or a numeral, e.g. It sounds incredible. But it is true. The simple nominal predicate is but rarely used. It is made up by a predicative expressed by a noun, an adjective or an infinitive. Sentences with such a predicate imply a negation, are emphatic and stylistically coloured, e.g. He a gentleman! Nick, dishonest! She to say a lie!

Mixed types of the compound predicate are:

- The compound modal nominal predicate, e.g. She can't be happy.
- The compound aspect nominal predicate, e.g. He began to feel rather ashamed.
- The compound modal aspect predicate, e.g. You ought to start thinking before speaking.
- The compound nominal predicate of double orientation, e.g. She is said to be very ill.
- The compound verbal predicate of double orientation, e.g. No one appeared to have noticed his escape. (Traditionally this and the previous constructions are called Complex subject with the infinitive.)
- The compound nominal double predicate, e.g. The sun rose red. The sun was shining cold and bright.

Secondary parts are dependent sentence elements and serve to modify the subject or the predicate. The theory of secondary parts of the sentence is one of the least developed sections of linguistics. Secondary parts of the sentence are not clearly defined, which gives rise to the “problem of secondary parts”. The same word or word-group in the sentence may be interpreted differently by different grammarians, e.g. to the window in the sentence He came up to the window is understood as an adverbial modifier or an object. Likewise of my brother in the sentence I've just met a friend of my brother may be treated as an attribute or an object depending on the arbitrary tradition of a grammar school, “personal opinion or predilection” (B.Ilyish).

The object is the constituent of the sentence which denotes a thing that the action passes on. Structurally it may be simple, phrasal, complex or clausal. It may be expressed by nouns, pronouns, infinitives, gerunds. Semantically the object may be direct, indirect (prepositional and non-prepositional) and cognate. The latter is formally and/or semantically similar to the predicate of the sentence, e.g. to live a happy life, to die a heroic death, to fight a fight (a battle), to run a race, to dream a dream.

The attribute is the part of the sentence which modifies a noun or a noun equivalent and characterizes it as to its quality or property. Structurally the attribute may be simple, phrasal or clausal. Semantically attributes fall into descriptive, restrictive or appositive.

The adverbial modifier is the most diversified part of the sentence and denotes different circumstances of the action: time, place, purpose, consequence, manner, attendant circumstances, etc. Structurally the adverbial modifier may be simple, phrasal, complex or clausal. It may refer to the predicate verb, to the predicate group or to the whole of the sentence. The position of adverbial modifiers is the least rigid in the sentence structure. However, adverbial modifiers of time and place are normally found in the end of the sentence. If both of them are found in the same sentence the adverbial modifier of place precedes that of time, e.g. Let's meet at the theatre at 6 o'clock. Adverbial modifiers of frequency (e.g. always, usually, often, seldom, never) or of the indefinite time (just, already, ever) generally precede the notional verb but follow the verb to be, e.g. He has already come. He is never late.

Independent elements of the sentence are not grammatically dependent on any particular part of the sentence, but as a rule refer to the sentence as a whole. They may occur in different positions in the sentence. They are direct address and parenthesis. The latter may be expressed by a modal word or phrase (e.g. perhaps, evidently, in fact), interjection (oh, dear me, Good heavens), conjunct (an adverb with the function of a connector, e.g. Finally, besides, moreover), a prepositional phrase (in my opinion, in short), an infinitival or participial phrase (to tell the truth, so to say, frankly speaking), a clause (e.g. As it was, Nell departed with surprising docility).

3. To know how the sentence is constructed it is necessary to determine how the separate units of the sentence are grouped together.

noun in this analysis is a Class 1 word (a noun proper or a word of any other part of speech which can substitute a noun in the sentence frame). To make the IC model analysis more vivid different graphs are used: the analytical IC diagramme, the IC derivational tree, the candelabra graph, etc. In addition to the graphs, rewriting rules are employed. Rewriting rules are the steps to form a sentence, e.g. the above sentence, The old lady looked at the stranger closely:

After this analysis other nouns (or noun equivalents), verbs, determiners, etc. can be used to build up new sentences according to the same rewriting rules. A drawback of the IC model is that occasionally the same formal scheme corresponds to semantically different sentences, e.g. He is eager to please. He is easy to please. Besides if the sentence is structurally complicated, the rewriting rules become too numerous.

3. The paradigmatic study of the sentence means the study of the sentence model with its functional variants. Paradigmatic relations are expressed through oppositions. Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns. Traditional grammar studies the sentence from the point of view of its syntagmatic structure: as a string of certain parts fulfilling the corresponding syntactic functions. Transformational generative grammar (T-grammar) which appeared in the 1950s in the descriptive school of American linguistics has proposed to investigate paradigmatic relations between sentence structures. The first propounders of the theory were Zellig Harris and Noam Chomsky. The rise to paradigmatic approach to the sentence study and to T-grammar was given by observations of young children's speech. Linguists and psychologists were amazed at children's ability to learn their native language at an early age and with no formal tuition, in spite of diversity of sentence structures. "If there is any explanation at all", wrote Paul Roberts, "it must be that language structure is not really as complicated as it looks at first. There must be some system to it simple enough to be grasped and held by any human mind, however ordinary". It means that the system of any language contains a rather small number of kernel sentences and other language forms (phonemes and morphemes), and all other forms and sentences of different structure are derived or generated from these kernel elements

by certain derivation rules, which are not very numerous or difficult. The terms “transform” and “transformation” were introduced by N. Chomsky in his book “Syntactic Structures” (1957) and further developed by other representatives of generative grammar. Transforms are “syntactic patterns that closely parallel other syntactic patterns from which they are conventionally considered to derive, but which are distinct in form and use” (R. Long). According to Z. Harris every sentence can be divided into the centre plus zero or more constructions; the centre is the predication (S+P), all other words are added to it according to their combinability, e.g. Boys play.

□ The three noisy boys play boisterously upstairs. Transformation (syntactic derivation) is a body of rules to generate (i.e. Construct) an infinite set of grammatically correct sentences from a finite vocabulary, transitions from one pattern of certain notional parts to another pattern of the same notional parts. Some of the sentence patterns are regarded as kernel (nuclear, base), others as their transforms.

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Study questions:

1. According to the purpose of communication, sentences fall into...
2. According to the structure, sentences are divided.....
3. Depending on whether they contain one or more than one predicative lines, sentences are differentiated into.....
4. The semantic classification of the simple sentence is based on the which principles:
5. How do we call the relations with other units of the same level it occurs with?

Test:

1. What is the predicate categorical meaning of the following sentence: *The window is opening*?
 - a) verbal actional
 - b) verbal statal
 - c) nominal factual
 - d) nominal perceptual
2. What is the predicate categorical meaning of the following sentence: *The window is glistening*?
 - a) verbal statal
 - b) verbal actional
 - c) nominal factual

d) nominal perceptual

3. What is the predicate categorical meaning of the following sentence:

It rains ?

a) nominal factual

b) verbal statal

c) verbal actional

d) nominal perceptual

4. What is the predicate categorical meaning of the following sentence:

It smells of hay ?

a) nominal perceptual

b) verbal statal

c) nominal factual

d) verbal actional

5. What is the subject categorical meaning of the following sentence:

He came early?

a) personal, human, definite

b) personal, human, indefinite

c) personal, non-human, animate

d) personal non-human, inanimate

6. What is the subject categorical meaning of the following sentence:

He who does not work neither shall he eat?

a) personal, human, indefinite

b) personal, human, definite

c) personal, non-human, animate

d) personal non-human, inanimate

7. What is the subject categorical meaning of the following sentence: *It*

(the dog) ran up to me?

a) personal, non-human, animate

b) personal, human, indefinite

c) personal, human, definite

d) personal non-human, inanimate

8. What is the subject categorical meaning of the following sentence: *It*

(my watch) is fast?

a) personal non-human, inanimate

b) personal, human, indefinite

c) personal, non-human, animate

d) personal, human, definite

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**THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

COURSEBOOK ON THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

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