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УНИВЕРСИТЕТ

Кафедра английской филологии

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика английского языка»

для специальности 050303 «Иностранный язык»

Махачкала - 2009

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Содержание

Пояснительная записка

Курс "Теоретическая грамматика английского языка" как одна из дисциплин частного языкознания изучается по окончании нормативного курса практической грамматики. Цель курса – дать студентам систематические и углубленные знания о грамматическом строе современного английского языка и раскрыть наиболее важные и сложные проблемы, возникающие при его изучении, учитывая достижения отечественного из зарубежного языкознания. Исходя из этого, основными задачами курса теоретической грамматики английского языка являются следующие:

♦ изложение и закрепление теоретических основ грамматики английского языка с учетом новейших исследований в данной области, систематизация на теоретической основе нормативных знаний по грамматике английского языка, приобретенных студентами в предшествующие годы на практических занятиях;

♦ формирование у студентов научного представления о формальной и смысловой структуре единиц и средств, образующих грамматический строй английского языка, об их функционировании в тексте;

♦ знакомство студентов с наиболее крупными работами отечественных и зарубежных лингвистов по отдельным вопросам теории грамматики английского языка; развитие умения студентов самостоятельно перерабатывать текущую научную информацию;

♦ изучение новейших методов лингвистического анализа, связанных с рассмотрением явлений языка в рамках различных современных лингвистических учений, таких как теория речевых актов, прагматика, когнитивистика и т.д.

♦ развить у студентов научное мышление, привить умение самостоятельно искать и перерабатывать научную информацию в области грамматики и смежных областях языкознания, осуществлять наблюдения над практическим языковым материалом, делать обобщения, выводы, в том числе в сопоставлении с русским языком;

♦ формирование профессиональных навыков студентов как будущих филологов-германистов.

♦ развить у студентов умение применять теоретические знания по грамматике при практическом анализе речевого материала, а также в процессе преподавания английского языка на разных уровнях обучения.

Курс теоретической грамматики предполагает большую самостоятельную работу студентов по освоению не только лекционного и семинарского материала, но и отдельных частных проблем, не включенных в эти разделы обучения.

В курсе "Теоретическая грамматика английского языка" нашли отражение особенности современного состояния науки о языке, стремление ученых предложить новые методы изучения языковых явлений, необходимость увязать язык и речь с потребностями общения на языке. Особое место отводится рассмотрению грамматических категорий, их семантико-функциональной значимости, особенностей отражения в грамматической семантики единиц морфологического уровня восприятия реальности и человеческого опыта. В центре внимания, поэтому оказывается человек и его мировосприятие, отношение к месту, времени и пространству, к тому, что и как говорящим утверждается, отрицается или подвергается сомнению.

Курс состоит из лекционных и семинарских занятий и проводится на английском языке. Курс рассчитан на 32 часа и проводится в восьмом семестре на четвертом курсе отделения английского языка. На лекциях освещаются наиболее важные проблемы грамматической теории и поясняются наиболее сложные явления. На семинарах обсуждаются отдельные вопросы теоретической

грамматики английского языка, выполняются упражнения по определенным разделам, студенты выступают с рефератами, докладами, проводят анализ отрывков из художественного текста. При подготовке к семинарскому занятию студенты работают над лекционным материалом, читают литературу на английском языке (работы отечественных и зарубежных лингвистов), учебники и учебные пособия по теоретической грамматике английского языка. Ряд тем отводится для самостоятельной проработки.

На лекционных и практических занятиях, а так же во время самостоятельной работы по теоретической грамматике студенты получают углубленные знания о грамматическом строе современного английского языка, грамматических категориях и формах, о взаимодействии различных уровней языка, о коммуникативной направленности высказывания, о взаимодействии единиц, образующих текст и т.п.

Лекции и практические занятия направлены на то, чтобы не только дать студентам определенный объем информации, но и развить у них творческое научное мышление и критический подход к существующим концепциям, научить их извлекать из научной литературы необходимую информацию и самостоятельно делать выводы и обобщения.

Помимо указанной в программе литературы рекомендуется использовать статьи и монографии, связанные с изучаемой темой, а также новейшие исследования в теории грамматики, отражающие основные направления в области изучения грамматического строя современного английского языка. Дисциплина обеспечивает теоретические и практические знания в области теоретической грамматики английского языка. Отбор материала основывается на необходимости сформировать необходимую систему знаний в области теоретической грамматики как объекта научных исследований и как предмета обучения.

Содержательное наполнение дисциплины обусловлено как задачами дисциплины, так и взаимодействием ее с другими лингвистическими

дисциплинами. Предлагаемая дисциплина строится на основе коммуникативно-прагматического подхода в обучении.

При изучении теоретической грамматики английского языка студенты должны научиться:

- читать рекомендуемую научную литературу на английском языке, выделять основные теоретические положения,

- критически оценивать различные научные концепции, сопоставлять точки зрения ученых по проблемным вопросам теоретической грамматики,

- выбирать из текстов художественной литературы примеры, подтверждающие те или иные теоретические положения,

- раскрывать сущность рассматриваемого грамматического явления, четко обосновывать свою точку зрения,

- применять на практике полученные теоретические знания и методы грамматического анализа,

- применять полученные знания при лингвостилистическом анализе художественного текста.

7. Контроль

В соответствии с учебным планом предусмотрен экзамен (в 8 семестре) в результате изучения студентами курса «Теоретическая грамматика английского языка».

Формы контроля: текущий контроль, промежуточный контроль, итоговый контроль.

Качество усвоения знаний проверяется как в письменной, так и в устной форме. Проведение разных по форме и по объему письменных работ (письменные опросы по материалам лекций) дисциплинирует студента и дает основания для объективной оценки знаний каждого студента, позволяет самому студенту представить реальный уровень своих знаний, стимулирует подготовку к итоговой аттестации.

Промежуточный контроль освоения учебного материала проводится в форме тестирования и аргументирования ответов на вопросы.

Итоговой формой проверки знаний студентов по изученному материалу является экзамен. На экзамене студент должен продемонстрировать умение проблемно изложить теоретический вопрос по программе курса, дать дефиницию одного из базовых понятий курса и выполнить практическое задание (грамматический анализ).

ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНЫЙ СТАНДАРТ
ВЫСШЕГО ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ

Специальность   033200 \ 050303 Иностранный язык

Квалификация   учитель иностранного языка

« … ДПП.Ф.05 Теоретическая грамматика

Предмет грамматики как науки. Грамматический строй языка. Грамматическая форма и грамматическое значение, грамматические категории. Морфология и синтаксис, их основные единицы. Виды морфем. Морфемный состав слова. Части речи и их морфологические категории. Предложение в его отношении к языку и речи. Типы предложений. Структура предложений. Члены предложения. Порядок слов. Грамматика текста. Теория актуализации. Понятие ядра и периферии в языке. Методы грамматического анализа. Этапы развития теоретической грамматики.

Требования   к   обязательному   минимуму   содержания образовательной дисциплины

При изучении курса студенты должны прослушать лекции, подготовиться к семинарским занятиям, а также проделать необходимую самостоятельную работу. Для подготовки к семинарским занятиям рекомендуется использовать список использованной литературы и ряд дополнительных пособий, включающее краткое изложение лекций, планы семинаров, вопросы и практические задания, тексты и образцы анализа и перевода текстов всех периодов истории английского языка, а также ключи к практическим заданиям и глоссарий. При подготовке теоретического материала студенты должны внимательно изучить план и вопросы для подготовки к семинарскому занятию и проработать литературу, руководствуясь вопросами и заданиями, раскрывающими и уточняющими отдельные пункты плана. Периодизация грамматического описания иностранного языка. Донормативные и нормативные грамматики. Традиционная грамматика иностранного языка. Проблема классификации современного иностранного языка

по грамматическому типу. Классификационный признак. Классификации частей речи (формальные, синтаксические, семантические и др.). Выделение классов слов по коммуникатианой функции, Части речи иностранного языка и их г□амматШческие категории. Стртктурные типы предложений. Типщ предложений. Соврембный подход Ъ модели членов предложения. Порядок слов, грамматика текста. Теория актуализации. Понэтие ядра и периферии в языке. Коммуникативно-прагматический аспект в синтаксичеЁком анализе предложения.

1 Содержание учебной програмы

Часть 1 *Морфология современного английского языка*

Раздел 1 *Введение в теоретичеЁкое изухение грамматикШ английского ызыка*. Место грамматики в системном подходе к изучению языка, история врамматических ухений. История развития граммаЂических учений. Морфология и синтаксис. Основные единицы морфологии: слово и морфема Трудности определения слова. Типология морфем. Понятий к корне и орнмве. Способы словоизменениы/форммобразоаания в современном английском языке: аналитический и синтетический, вклюхающий аффиксацию, чередование звуков и супплетивЭость. ФункционалЌная грамматика: современный взгляд. Грамматические катебории в свете функционально-коммуникативного подхода. Способы словоизменения в английском языке.

Проблемы грамматического значения и форм его выражения. Проблема грамматического значения и форм его выражения. Взаимосвязь грамматического и лексического значений Основные признаки грамматического значения. Определение грамматической формы. Соотношение синтетизма и аналитизма в английском языке Возможность противопоставления синтетических и аналитических форм слова в единой системе форм - парадигме. Грамматическая категория как объединение двух или более грамматических форм, противопоставленных по грамматическому значению. Понятие об оппозиции. Принцип построения грамматических категорий английского языка на основе оппозиции "немаркированная форма - маркированная форма". Формальные, функционально- смысловые различия между немаркированной и маркированной формами, различная частотность употребления этих форм. Общая характеристика грамматического строя современного английского языка как аналитического языка с некоторыми элементами синтетической морфологии.

Раздел 2 *Части речи*. Система частей речи в современном английском языке. Форма и содержание. Различные подходы к проблеме частей речи. Критерии разграничения различных частей речи в английском языке. Три принципа выделения частей речи в классической грамматике: форма, значение, функция. Позиция слова в предложении как основа выделения классов слов в структурной лингвистике. Грамматические классы слов. Части речи и члены предложения. Знаменательные и служебные части речи.

Раздел 3 *Имя существительное*. Грамматическое значение имени существительного. Словообразование существительного. Семантико-грамматические группы существительных. Категории имени существительного и синтаксические функции. Семантика детерминантов. Артикль.

Раздел 4 *Имя прилагательное*. Словообразовательные признаки. Качественные и относительные прилагательные. Степени сравнения прилагательных. Субстантивация прилагательных. Проблема «категории состояния» в английском языке. Синтаксические функции прилагательного.

Раздел 5 *Местоимение и числительное.* Грамматические категории и семантика местоимения. Классы местоимений: личные, притяжательные, указательные, вопросительные, возвратные, относительные, неопределенные и отрицательные местоимения. Имя числительное. Проблема статуса числительного как слова местоименной природы.

Раздел 6 *Глагол.* Грамматические категории и семантика глагола. Семантико-грамматические группы глаголов. Вспомогательные глаголы и особенности их формообразования. Модальные глаголы как результат исторического развития. Личные формы глагола. Грамматические категории личной формы глагола: категории лица и числа, система видовременных форм, наклонение и залог. Соотношение личных и неличных форм глагола. Неличные формы глагола: инфинитив, герундий, причастие. Временная отнесенность неличных форм глагола. Вторичная предикация. Параллельные конструкции с

неличными формами глагола.

Раздел 7 *Наречие.* Морфологические признаки наречия. Грамматическое значение и синтаксические функции наречия. Семантико-грамматические группы наречий. Интенсификаторы. Степени сравнения наречий и их соотнесение с именами прилагательными. Омонимия наречий и прилагательных.

Раздел 8 *Служебные части речи.* Предлоги: отношения, передаваемые предлогами. Предлоги как слова присубстантивной подчинительно-связующей функции. Лексическое и грамматическое значение предлогов. Предлоги, постпозитивы и наречия. Союзы: значение союзов, их отличие от предлогов. Междометия и модальные слова как средство выражения оценки высказывания. Частицы как слова зависимого субъективно-оценочного значения. Подклассы частиц.

Часть 2 Синтаксис простого и сложного предложения современного английского языка

Раздел 9   *Введение в изучение синтаксиса.* Словосочетание и предложение. Словосочетание как единица номинации. Связь слов в предложении и словосочетании. Понятие валентности. Факультативная и обязательная сочетаемость. Типы синтаксических связей в словосочетании: сочинение, подчинение. Предикативные словосочетания. Принципы классификации словосочетаний. Соотношение синтаксических и семантических связей в словосочетании.

Раздел 10 *Предложение: общая характеристика.* Предложение как центральная единица синтаксиса. Предикативность и другие свойства предложения. Классификация предложений. Предложение и высказывание.

Раздел 11 *Простое предложение.* Структурно-семантическая классификация простого предложения: двусоставные и односоставные предложения. Проблема главных и второстепенных членов предложения. Статус подлежащего и сказуемого. Второстепенные члены предложения. Обязательность

и факультативность в синтаксисе. Теория актуального членения предложения. Компоненты актуального членения предложения: тема и рема. Коммуникативные типы высказывания в аспекте актуального членения. Основные коммуникативные типы предложения. Проблема восклицательного предложения. Смешанные (промежуточные) коммуникативные типы высказываний.

Раздел 12 *Сложное предложение.* Сложное предложение как полипредикативная структура. Классификация сложных предложений: сложносочиненные и сложноподчиненные предложения. Понятие подчинительной полипредикации. Типы придаточных предложений и принципы их классификации. Союзное и бессоюзное подчинение. Классификация сложноподчиненных предложений по типам придаточных. Предложения вторичной предикации. Проблема вводных предложений.

Раздел 13 *Предложение и текст.* Понятие сверхфразового единства. Средства связи внутри сверхфразового единства. Сверхфразовое единство и абзац. Предложение как единица текста. Понятие предложения и высказывания. Тема-рематическая организация высказывания и текста. Пресуппозиция. Эмотивность и имплицитность высказывания. Парцелляция. Текст и контекст.

Раздел 14 *Прагматика высказывания.* Понятие прагматики. Коммуникативный синтаксис. Организация сообщения. Коммуникативная интенция. Способы передачи сообщения. Взаимодействие: говорящий – слушающий.

2 Учебно-тематический план

лекционные занятия

Тема занятия	Содержание занятия	Трудоемкость	Лекции	Семинарские	КСР
1 Grammar in the systematic conception of language. History of the development of English Grammar	**1 The three constituent parts of language system and their corresponding linguistic disciplines.** **2 The aim of theoretical grammar.** **3 Early (prenormative) and prescriptive grammars.** **4 Classical Scientific grammar and Historical comparative method.** **5 Grammar of the first half of the 20th century. Schools of Structural linguistics.**	**6**	**2**	**2**	**2**
2 Parts of speech	**1 The problem of the parts of speech in English.** **2 Viewpoints on discriminating parts of speech in English:** **3 Notional and functional parts of speech and their characteristics.**	**6**	**2**	**2**	**2**
3 Noun: characteristic features, functional properties and grammatical categories.	**1 General characteristics of nouns as a part of speech.** **2 Lexico-grammatical classes of nouns.** **3 The two-case system. Common case and genitive case.** **4 The categories of number and gender in English.**	**6**	**2**	**2**	**2**

	5 Syntactic properties of nouns; functions and combinability.				
4 Adjective: grammatical features. Adverb	1 General characteristics of adjectives as a part of speech: forms, functions, combinability, semantics. Classification. 2 Degrees of comparison. 3The problem of the 'category of state'. 4 General characteristics of adverbs as a part of speech: forms, functions, combinability, semantics. 5 Adverbs and adjectives compared.	4	2		2
5 Verb: the finite forms	1 General characteristics of the verb as a part of speech (semantic, morphological, syntactical). 2 Various classes of verbs. Verb building devices and their grammatical relevance. 3 Finite forms: the categories	6	2	2	2
6 Verb: the non-finite forms	1 Verbals opposed to finite forms of the verb. 2 The infinitive as the 'head form'of the English verbals. Forms and functions of the infinitive. 3 The participle and the gerund. Forms and functions. The problem of the half-gerund. 4 Correlation of verbals.	6	2	2	2
7 Syntax: a phrase and a sentence	1 Word-groups (Phrases). Classification of word-groups.	6	2	2	2

	2 Characteristics of parts of the sentence. **3 Scholars on the syntagmatic relations of words.** **4 Sentence. The main difference between a phrase and a sentence. Definitions of a sentence.**				
8 Syntax: simple sentence	**1 Constituent structure of a simple sentence.** **2 Classification of simple sentences. One-member sentences.** **3 Actual division of a sentence.** **4 Communicative types of sentences: the main and intermediary communicative types.**	6	2	2	2
9Syntax: composite sentence. **Syntax: sentence in the text.**	**1 Composite sentence as a polypredicative construction.** **2 Compound and complex sentences.** **3 Semi-compound and semi-complex constructions.** **4 Sentence as the main text unit.** **5 The problems of communicative grammar and pragmatics.**	4	2		2
Всего:		64	18	14	32

Семинарские занятия

Семинар № 1

Тема: «History of the development of English Grammar»

1   Early (prenormative) grammars.

2   The 18th century Universal Grammar and its principles.

3   Classical Scientific grammar. H. Sweet's *New English Grammar, logical and historical.*

4   A historical comparative method of the 19th century.

5   Grammar of the first half of the 20th century. The systematic conception of language. Ideas of Ferdinand de Saussure, the founder of a new linguistic theory.

6   Schools of Structural linguistics.

7   Prescriptive grammar in the Modern period.

8   Classical Scientific grammar in the Modern period.

9   Structural grammar. Ch. Fries' Frames. Transformational grammar.

10   Recent developments in the concept of grammar. Pragmatics and Communicative Grammar.

Literature:

1 Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000, - Chapter 1,– Р.6-17.

2   Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971, – Introduction, – Р.7-13.

3   Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л.: 1981. – Р. 5-40.

4   Crystal D. Who Cares about English Usage? – London, 1985//Хрестоматия по английской филологии. /Составитель проф. Александрова О.В. – М., 1991.

Further reading:

5   Irtenyeva N.F., Barsova O.M., Blokh M.Y., Shapkin A.P. A Theoretical English Grammar. — Moscow, 1969, pp. 5-73.

6   Ф. де Соссюр Труды по языкознанию. – М.: «Прогресс», 1977.

Семинар № 2

Тема: "Parts of Speech"

1 The traditional classification of words.

2 Notional and functional parts of speech and their characteristics.

3 Viewpoints on discriminating parts of speech in English:

♦ Henry Sweet and the morphological approach to the problem of parts of speech;

♦ The three-rank theory by Otto Jesperson.

♦ Charles Fries's classification of form-classes.

Literature:

1 Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapter 4: "Classes of words".

2 Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. − С. 79 −108.

3 Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 2: "Parts of speech" - P.29-38.

4 Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981. - P. 42-57.

Further reading:

5 Irtenyeva N.F., Barsova O.M., Blokh M.Y., Shapkin A.P. A Theoretical English Grammar. ― Moscow, 1969, pp. 55-59.

6 Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – М., 1981.

Семинар № 3

Тема: "The Noun and the Article"

1 Definition. General characteristics of the noun as a part of speech (semantic, morphological, syntactical).

2 Subclassification of nouns; different criteria for noun classification. Lexico-grammatical classes of nouns.

3 The category of case. Views of the number and kinds of cases in English. The problem of analytical cases. The two-case system. Common case. Genetive case, different meanings rendered by the genitive case-form.

4 The category of number. Grammatical plural and implied plurality. Number in correlation with other linguistic ways of rendering quantity. Pluralia and singularia tantum. The "s" morpheme and the meanings it can signify.

5 The problem of gender in English. Sex and gender. Linguistic ways of expressing sex differences (lexical, morphological and syntactical) in English.

6 Syntactic properties of nouns, their functions and combinability.

7 Article determination.

Literature:

1 Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapter 4: "Classes of words".

2 Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – M.: «Высшая школа», 2004. – C. 109 –139.

3 Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 2: "Parts of speech" - P.29-38.

4 Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981. - P. 42-57.

Further reading:

1 Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – C.118-120.

2   Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.

Семинар № 4

Тема: "Adjectives, Adverbs and Pronouns "

1 General characteristics of adjectives as a part of speech. Adjectives: forms, functions, combinability, semantics.

2   Semantic classes of adjectives: qualitative and relative adjectives. Specificative and evaluative adjectives. Substantivisation of adjectives.

3   Degrees of comparison.

4   The problem of the 'category of state'.

5   Adverbs. Classification of adverbs.

6   Pronouns: the diversity of pronouns.

Literature:

1 Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapter 4: "Classes of words".

2   Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. − С. 217 − 244.

3   Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 2: "Parts of speech" - Р.29-38.

4   Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981. - Р. 42-57.

Further reading:

1 Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.118-120.

2   Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.

Семинар № 5

Тема: "The Verb: General characteristics. Classification. The categories.

General characteristics of the verb as a part of speech (semantic, morphological, syntactical).

Various classes of verbs. Verb building devices and their grammatical relevance. Principles used to distinguish verb-classes.

1 Finite forms. The categories of person and number. The categories of Aspect and Voice . Time and tense. The category of 'time-correlation'. The category of voice. Mood.

2   Non-finite forms opposed to finite forms of the verb. Correlation of non-finites.

a) The infinitive as the 'head form' of verbals. Forms and functions of the infinitive. The usage of the unmarked infinitive.

b) The gerund. Forms and functions. The problem of the half-gerund

c) The participle

Literature:

1 Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapters 10, 12, 13, 14.

2   Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. − С. 166− 216.

3   Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 9.

4   Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981. Pp. 68-74.

5   Иванова И.П. Вид и время в современном английском языке. – Л.: Изд-во Ленингр. ун-та, 1961.

Further reading:

1   Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.118-120.

2   Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.

3   Bache C. The Study of Aspect, Tense and Action. – Peter Lang GmbH, 1997. Ch. 7, pp. 244-257.

Семинар № 6

Тема: «Syntax: A Simple Sentence»

1. Word-groups (Phrases)

a). Classification of word-groups.

b). Characteristics of parts of the sentence.

c). Scholars on the syntagmatic relations of words.

2. Sentence.

a). The main difference between a phrase and a sentence. Definitions of a sentence.

b). Constituent structure of a simple sentence. Sentence pattern. The fixed word order of English sentences.

c). Classification of simple sentences. One-nucleus and double-nucleus sentences and the principle of their distinction.

3. Actual division of a sentence.

4 Communicative types of sentences: the main communicative types;

the intermediary communicative types.

Literature:

1   Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000, - Chapters 20-25.

2   Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. − С. 245 − 336.

3   Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971, -Chapters 23 - 31.

4   Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981, Chapters 6, 7.

Further reading:

5   Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.200 - 224.

6   Слюсарева Н.А. Проблемы функционального синтаксиса современного английского языка. – М., 1986.

7   Смирницкий А.И. Синтаксис английского языка. – М., 1957.

Семинар № 7

Тема: «Syntax: Composite Sentences»

1 Compound sentence as a polypredicative construction.

2   Complex sentence. Types of subordinate clauses:

a)   subject and predicative clauses;

b)   object, attributive clauses and adverbial clauses;

c)   parenthetical clauses.

3   Semi-complex and semi-compound sentences.

4   Sentence in the text.

Literature:

1 Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000, - Chapters 26-31.

2   Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. − С. 359 − 420.

3   Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971, -Chapters 33 - 38.

4	Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981, Chapters.

Further reading:

5	Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.249 - 288.

6	Вейхман Г.А. Новое в английской грамматике. М.: «Высшая школа», 1990 - С.112-118.

7	Слюсарева Н.А. Проблемы функционального синткаксиса современного английского языка. – М., 1986.

3 Организация самостоятельной работы

3.1 Содержание самостоятельной работы

Виды учебной деятельности:	количество часов
1 Подготовка к семинарским занятиям	16
2 Написание рефератов	16
Всего:	**32**

Темы семинарских занятий

Цели и задачи предмета теоретической грамматики, ее место в ряду других лингвистических дисциплин. История грамматических учений.

Части речи и члены предложения. Знаменательные и служебные части речи

в английском языке. Принципы классификации частей речи.

Имя существительное: категории и семантико-грамматические классы существительных. Детерминанты.

Имя прилагательное и наречие. Морфологические признаки прилагательных и наречий, их семантико-грамматические классы. Степени сравнения.

Глагол: общая характеристика, категории глагола, семантико-грамматические группы глагола.

Глагол: видовременная характеристика. Время реальное и время грамматическое. Категория временной отнесенности.

Глагол: наклонение. Проблема сослагательного наклонения в английском языке.

Неличные формы глагола: инфинитивы, причастие, герундий.

Синтаксис: словосочетание и предложение. Связь слов в предложении и словосочетании.

Проблемы простого предложения. Теория актуального членения предложения. Коммуникативные типы высказывания.

Сложносочиненное и сложноподчиненное предложение.

Предложение и текст. Задачи коммуникативного синтаксиса.

3.2 Примерная тематика рефератов

1 Многозначность форм родительного падежа.
2 Статус категории рода.
3 Типы артиклей в английском языке, их свойства.
4 Проблема «категории состояния» в английском и русском языках.
5 Формы выражения будущего времени в английском языке.
6 Категория временной отнесенности.
7 Фразовые глаголы. Особенности употребления.

8 Стилистическое использование грамматических форм в поэзии.

9 Местоимения: категория определенности/ неопределенности.

10 Соотношение форм страдательного залога и составного именного сказуемого.

12 Различные подходы к классификации форм страдательного залога. Проблема: форма vs семантика.

13 Неличные формы глагола: инфинитив и герундий. Способы перевода.

14 Функции герундия и причастия.

15 Предлоги и постпозитивные наречия.

16 Семантика союзов.

17 Статус частиц и модальных слов.

18 Принципы классификации словосочетаний.

19 Односоставные и эллиптические предложения.

20 Традиционная модель деления предложения на главные и второстепенные члены, ее достоинства и недостатки.

21 Проблема классификации бессоюзных сложных предложений.

22 Предложение и высказывание. Проблемы коммуникативной грамматики.

23 Информативность высказывания. Функциональная перспектива предложения.

24 Предложение как единица предикации.

25 Коммуникативные типы высказывания.

26 Прагматика. Теория иллокутивных актов.

27 Понятие синтагмы и построение текста. Способы грамматической организации текста.

28 Понятие ремы и способы ее выражения в английском языке.

29 Роль просодии и пунктуации в организации текста. Парцелляция.

30 Сверхфразовое единство и абзац. Коммуникативно−динамическое членение речи.

31 Текстообразующая функция языковых единиц.

3.3 Содержание курсовых и дипломных работ

Методические рекомендации по выполнению курсовых работ

Подготовка и написание курсовой и дипломной работы должны обеспечить углубление и расширение теоретических знаний в области определенной проблемы, практических умений, совершенствование навыков самостоятельной работы студентов. Написание курсовых и дипломных работ должно способствовать повышению научной эрудиции студентов, развитию познавательных интересов, совершенствованию теоретической подготовки.

По учебному плану курсовая работа выполняется на четвертом курсе, и ее основная задача - привлечение студентов к самостоятельному научному исследованию.

Выполнение студентами курсовой работы предполагает:

- самостоятельный подбор и изучение литературы по теме исследования;

- определение круга вопросов, которые необходимо осветить в работе, составление плана работы;

- формулировку цели и задач курсовой работы;

- составление примерного плана изучения необходимой психолого-педагоги-ческой, методической и лингвистической литературы по теме литературы по теме;

В процессе выполнения курсовой работы у студентов формируются важные умения и навыки педагогической и исследовательской деятельности:

1) самостоятельно работать, творчески применять методы изучения педагогических явлений и фактов;

2) связывать теоретические знания с практикой обучения английскому языку в школе;

3) формулировать задачи курсовой работы, определять гипотезу исследования, намечать пути ее доказательства;

4) овладевать приемами работы с научными источниками, анализировать и сравнивать разные точки зрения, критически оценивать изучаемый материал, самостоятельно делать выводы и обобщения;

5) проводить методический эксперимент, анализировать и обрабатывать полученный материал, делать соответствующие выводы и обобщения;

Структура курсовой работы

Курсовая и дипломная работа состоит из следующих разделов:

Введение.

Теоретическая часть.

Исследовательская (практическая) часть.

Выводы (заключение).

Список использованной литературы и источников исследования.

Аннотация на английском языке

Введение содержит краткое и четкое обоснование выбора темы курсовой работы. Во введении обосновывается актуальность исследуемой проблемы, формулируются гипотеза, объект, предмет исследования, конкретные исследовательские задачи, указываются методы исследования.

В основной (теоретической) части излагаются история вопроса, теоретические основы изучаемой проблемы, сопоставляются взгляды различных лингвистов по данному вопросу, высказывается собственной мнение студента о различных точках зрения на проблему.

В исследовательской части описываются полученные результаты, дается всесторонний анализ собранного языкового материала, делаются обобщения.

Заключение содержит итоги работы, те выводы, к которым пришел автор. В заключении кратко описываются результаты проведенной работы и указываются проблемы, требующие своего дальнейшего решения.

Приводимый в конце работы список литературы свидетельствует об объеме использованных научных и литературных источников, проанализированных в курсовой работе.

Примерная тематика курсовых и дипломных работ

Видовременные формы в английском сложноподчиненном предложении.

Время грамматическое и время художественное.

Глагольно-именные сочетания нефразеологического характера.

Значение неопределенности субъекта действия.

Интенциональность употребления грамматических форм в художественном тексте.

Категория интенсивности.

Категория определенности / неопределенности в английском языке.

Качественные и относительные прилагательные.

Коммуникативные типы высказываний.

Контаминация грамматических категорий.

Лексико-грамматические способы выражения завершенности действия в современном английском языке.

Назывное предложение.

О значении длительного вида в английском языке.

Оппозиция: разговорная речь – письменная речь.

Особенности употребления категории числа с неисчисляемыми существительными.

Особенности употребления форм сослагательного наклонения в современном английском языке.

Прагматика английских вопросительных предложений.

Препозитивные и постпозитивные определения.

Проблемы номинализации и имплицитной предикативности.

Проблемы экспрессивного синтаксиса.

Реализация коммуникативного задания в сообщении.

Речевой этикет. (прагматика высказывания).

Семантика предлогов.

Семантика союзов.

Синонимия синтаксических конструкций: параллельные герундиальные, причастные и инфинитивные конструкции.

Синтаксис диалогической речи.

Синтаксическая оппозиция: полноструктурность/неполноструктурность.

Слова категории состояния в английском языке.

Способы выражения интенции говорящего.

Способы выражения рода имени существительного.

Структура и семантика односоставных номинативных предложений.

Тема-рематическая организация высказывания.

Усилительные глагольные и именные словосочетания в английском языке.

Функции герундия и инфинитива.

Функционально-семантические категории императивности.

Функционально-семантические категории модальности.

Функционально-семантические категории персональности.

Экспрессивная функция вводных членов предложения.

Экспрессивная функция отрицания.

Языковая и речевая норма.

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4.2 Содержание контроля знаний студентов
Образец текущих тестовых заданий

Тема: The categories of aspect and voice

1   What are the factors influencing the realisation of the category of aspect in English?

2   What is the interrelation between the tense and aspect in English and in Russian?

3   Explain the use of the Continuous aspect with statal verbs in the examples below:

'Oh? What plans are those?'

'I believe she **was wanting** us all to go to the deer park. But I'm sure that can be done another time.' (K.Ishiguro)

'But what particularly did you have in mind?'

'Forgive me, I **was referring** particularly to the investigations.'

'Well, of course we'll be as thorough as necessary. We'll hire the same detective as last year. He was very reliable, you may remember.'

Setsuko carefully repositioned a stem. 'Forgive me, I am no doubt expressing myself unclearly. I **was, in fact, referring** to their investigations.'

'I am sorry, I'm not sure I follow you. I was not aware we had anything to hide.'

Setsuko gave a nervous laugh. 'Father must forgive me. As you know, I've never had a gift for conversation. Suichi **is forever scolding** me for expressing myself badly…'(K.Ishiguro)

He reached his office, kicked the door shut behind him and dialled.

'George. These photographs are of Garmony'

'I'm saying nothing until you get here.'(Ian McEwan)

'It won't take long. It's important, really important.'

'Well look, **I'm seeing** George Lane tonight. I suppose I could call in on my way.'(Ian McEwan**)**

Clive kept on. 'You were once an apologist for the sexual revolution. You stood up for gays.'

'I don't believe **I'm hearing** this.' (Ian McEwan)

These benign thoughts brought him at last to the ridge where he had a view of the long descent towards Sty Head, and what he saw made him cry out in irritation…

In a matter of minutes, it seemed, he **was standing** on top of the crag, regaining his breath and congratulating himself on his change of plan. (Ian McEwan)

In interview, when he made his statement, the two detectives realised, so they assured him, just how hard it must have been to write a symphony to order with a looming deadline, and what a dilemma he **had been** in when he **was crouching** behind that rock. **(**Ian McEwan**)**

Clive half turned away, but the critic was drunk and looking to have fun.

'**I've been hearing** about your latest. Is it really called the Millennial Symphony?'

'No. The press called it that,' Clive said stiffly.

'**I've been hearing** all about it. They say you've ripped off Bethoven something rotten.' (Ian McEwan)

When I politely declined on the grounds that my present case was demanding all my time and attention, he said:

'Shame. Sarah Hemmings is coming along, and **she's so wanting** to have a good chat with you.'

'Miss Hemmings?'

'Remember he, don't you? She certainly remembers you. Said you got to know each other a bit a few years ago. She'**s always complaining** how you're no longer to be found.' (K.Ishiguro)

'So you 're no longer determined to be ridiculous. I'm glad you'**re seeing** more sense.' (K.Ishiguro)

I' think **I'm beginning** to understand what Pitt was trying to tell me at that moment. I'm beginning to see where the leads come from". (L.Sanders)

"There must have been others through the years who found the story interesting."

"No, you are the first since the other."

"You have a razor-sharp memory and **I'm loving** it." (C. Cussler)

Then I **was believing** he was quite a nice chap. (L.Sanders)

She pulls away, gasping. "You'll call me tonight, Jack?" she asks.

"Don't I always? That ear of yours still giving you trouble?"

"It's better. The drops are helping."

"**I'm seeing**." (L.Sanders)

«**We're going** after buff in the morning», he told her.

«**I'm coming**», she said.

«No, **you're not**».

«Oh, yes**, I am**. Mayn't I, Francis?»

«We'll put on another show for you tomorrow», Francis Macomber said.

«You **are not coming**»,   Wilson said (E. Hemingway).

Indeed, I remember I was initially more puzzled then anything by the alarm that **would seize** Akira **whenever** the servant came within our vicinity. If for instance Ling Tien **was passing** in the corridor, my friend **would break** off what ever we **were doing** to stand rigidly in a part of the room not visible to the old man and not move again until the danger had passed. (K.Ishiguro)

'…You must keep praying to God and remain hopeful. I hope you **are remembering** your prayers, aren't you, Puffin?' (K.Ishiguro)

"Perhaps it's months. I don't know. But today … all day it's been strange. I mean, **I've been seeing** strangely, as if for the first time. Everything has looked different – too sharp, too real." (I.McEwan)

4   *The use of the Present Perfect is often determined by the importance of the preceding event. Comment on this meaning in the following extracts:*

•   "It's a new client, Mandy, the Perevell Press. I'**ve looked** them up in the publishers' directory. They're one of the oldest- perhaps the oldest- publishing firms in the country, founded in 1792. Their place is on the river. The Peverell Press, Innocent House, Innocent Walk, Wapping. You must have seen Innocent House if you'**ve taken** a boat trip to Greenwich. Looks like a bloody great Venetian palace." (P.D. James "Original sin")

- "**Have** you **had** any previous experience of working in a publishing house?"

"Only about three times during the last two years. I'**ve listed** the names of the firms I'**ve worked** for on page three of my CV."

Miss Etienne read on, looked up the bright luminous eyes under the curved brows studying Mandy with more interest than she had previously shown.

She said: "You seem to have done very well at school, but you'**ve had** an extraordinary variety of jobs since. You **haven't stuck** to any of them for more than a few weeks." (P.D. James "Original sin")

5   Comment on the retrospective function of the Past Perfect in the extracts below:

- She **had been** to Rome once… such a long time ago. Not all that long after the war really. Grace, she remembered, **had taken her first steps** while they **had been away**. She also remembered the slight pain of not having been there to see that miracle happening. A tattered-looking city it **had been**, full of tattered people; grey and tired she **had found** it. A sharp, cold wind **had blown** dust constantly in her eyes. They **had had an audience** with the Pope. The Holy Father as Benjamin **had insisted** on calling him.

That was when Benjamin **had been locked** into religion as he **had** later **become locked** into alcohol.

She couldn't remember which **had been** the more tiresome, Benjamin holy, or Benjamin pickled.

Benjamin **had taken** her to a shop near the Spanish Steps and **bought** her some rosary beads that looked as if they were made of coffee beans and silver and she **had held** them out for the Pope to bless. She **had closed** her eyes as ha **had approached** their small group and **held** the beads out in her cupped hands. She remembered composing her face into what she **had hoped** was an attitude of beatific humility, as

seen in medieval Italian paintings. She **had hoped** that he didn't have x-ray eyes. .
(J.Johnson "Two moons")

- She was lying on top of the tartan rug but **had taken** the single pillow from beneath it to rest her head as needing this final comfort even in the last moments of consciousness. By the bed stood a chair holding an empty wine bottle, a stained tumbler and a large screw-top jar. Beneath it a pair of brown-laced shoes **had been** neatly **laid** side by side. Perhaps, thought Mandy, she **had taken** them **off** because she **hadn't wanted** to soil the rug. (P.D. James "Original sin")

6. The so-called prospective function of the Past Perfect enables to forsee the course of events, to 'anticipate' them. Comment on the meaning of the Past Perfect in the extracts below:

- He found himself smiling, almost laughing, and was suddenly seized with a madness he **hadn't felt** since he was twenty-one, the urge to rush down the wide staircase, sweep her into his arms and dance with her across the marble floor, out through the front door and to the rim of the glittering river. (P.D. James "Original sin")

- She **had finished** her slow turn and followed Miss Blacket across the hall. (P.D. James "Original sin")

- The lamb **had arrived,** pink and succulent and tender enough to be eaten with a spoon. (P.D. James "Original sin")

7 Comment on the introductory function of the Past Perfect at the beginning of the text in the initial position and its generalizing function in the final position. Analyse the texts given below:

- I **had hardly** ever **seen** the countryside before. I **had** only **glimpsed** it from trains and hospital windows.

I **had been** sick for most of my childhood. No sooner was I pronounced to be cured of one illness than another, more severe, replaced it. Now, striding across the Downs alongside my aunt, I was blissfully certain that I would never be unwell again. (Paul Bailey "Gabriel's lament")

- NEXT day Mr Prendergast's self-confidence **had evaporated.**

'Head hurting?' asked Grimes.

'Well, as a matter of fact, it is rather.'

'Eyes tired? Thirsty?'

'Yes, a little.'

'Poor old Prendy! Don't I know? Still, it was worth it, wasn't it?'

'I don't remember very clearly all that happened, but I walked back to the Castle with Philbrick, and he told me all about his life. It appears he is really a rich man and not a butler at all.'

(E. Waugh)

8 Analyse implicit voice meanings of the verbs below. Group them accordingly. Give Russian equivalents and explain why there are more than on in some cases:

to fill, to open, to read, to sell, to shave, to change, to resume, to hide, to quarrel, to meet, to relate, to dress.

4.3 Итоговый семестровый контроль

Примерный перечень вопросов к экзамену по теоретической грамматике английского языка

1   What is Language?

2   Periods of the development of English grammar.

3   The early periods of the development of English grammar.

4   Prescriptive and Universal Grammars of the 18th century.

5   Modern English grammars.

6   Grammar in the systematic conception of Language.

7   Parts of speech. Various approaches to the problem. General features of the parts of speech

8. Noun. Classes of Noun. The categories of number and case

9 Noun: the problem of gender in English.

10 Semi-notional parts of speech. (the preposition, the conjunction, the particle)

11 Adjectives: classes of adjectives. Degrees of comparison. Synthetic and analytical forms of adjectives.

12 The problem of the category of 'state'.

13 Adverb as a part of speech.

14 Adjectives and adverbs compared. The phenomena of polysemy, synonymy and homonymy.

15 Pronouns and numerals. Types of pronouns.

16 Verb: forms and semantic classes of the verb.

17 Transitivity and intransitivity of the English verbs.

18 The Verb: the categories of person and number.

19 Grammatical categories of the verb.

20 The stylistic functioning of tense forms.

21 Mood: the controversy of the problem in English.

22 Oblique moods. What is Subjunctive?

23 The problem of the future tense. Various means of expressing the future.

24 Lexical expression of time.

25 The categories of tense and aspect.

26 The category of voice. Various approaches to the problem.

27 The category of 'time correlation'.

28 Non-finite forms and their place in the verbal paradigm.

29 The infinitive as the 'head-form' of the verb.

30 The infinitive and the gerund compared.

31 The participle and its place among the verbals.

32 Formal and communicative approach to syntax.

33 Classification of phrases.

34 Sentence as a language unit. A word and a sentence.

35 Parts of the sentence and parts of speech.

36 Problems of a simple sentence.

37 One-nucleus and double-nucleus structures. Elliptical sentences.

38 Functional sentence perspective.

39 Communicative types of sentences.

40 Composite sentence as a polypredicative construction.

41 The notion of a clause. Syndetic and asyndetic connection.

42 Semi-compound and semi-complex sentences.

43 Sentence in the text.

44 Principles of pragmatics. Communicative approach to the study of Language.

45 Actual division of sentences

5.Методические указания
для самостоятельной работы студентов по курсу
"Теоретическая грамматика английского языка".

Содержание

1. Содержание лекционных занятий.

2. Содержание практических занятий.

3. Темы для самостоятельной работы студентов.

4. Вопросы для контроля знаний студентов.

1. <u>Содержание лекционных занятий.</u>

1. Грамматика в системе языка. Основная задача теоретической грамматики - изучение грамматического строя английского языка как совокупности закономерностей, определяющих способы изменения слов и способы их соединения в словосочетании предложения. Основные этапы развития грамматической традиции английского языка:

- Период донаучных нормативных грамматик (16-1966)

- Период донаучных грамматик

- Структурная грамматика, которая описывала только форму, полностью исключая семантику из лингвистического анализа ();

- Трансформационная / генеративная / порождающая грамматика, создателем которых был Н. Хомский, пытавшийся найти механизмы порождения многообразных предложений на базе ограниченного количества так называемых "ядерных предложений";

- функциональная грамматика, отправной точкой которой является описание функций языковых единиц;

- коммуникативная грамматика имеет опору на ситуацию употребления той или иной формы.

Разделы грамматики – морфология и синтаксисы. Основные единицы морфологии: слово и морфема. Трудности определения слова. Типология морфем: словообразовательные - словоизменительные, корневые – аффиксальные (префиксальные и суффиксальные), свободные – связанные, омонимичные, нулевые, прерывистые морфемы. Понятие о корне и основе.

2. Способы словоизменения / форматирования в современном английском языке: аналитический и синтетический, включающий аффиксацию, чередование звуков,

3. Проблема грамматического значения и форм его выражения. Взаимосвязь грамматического и лексического значения. Основные признаки грамматического значения: несамостоятельность, формальность, служебность, обобщенность, а также то, что оно не называется в слове (И.Н. Иванова). Соотношение синтетизма и аналитизма в английском языке. Возможность противопоставления синтетических и аналитических форм слова в единой системе форм – парадигме. Грамматическая категория как объединение двух или более грамматических форм, противопоставленных по значению. Понятие об оппозиции. Принцип построения грамматических категорий английского языка на основе оппозиции "немаркированная форма – маркированная форма". Формальные, функционально –смысловые различия между немаркированной и маркированной формами, различная частотность употребления этих форм. Общая характеристика грамматического строя современного английского языка как аналитического языка с некоторыми элементами синтетической морфологии (флексис множественного числа в системе существительного: boys, флексис степени сравнения в системе прилагательного: big-bigges -biggest).

4. Части речи. Критерии разграничения различных частей речи в английском языке. Три принципа выделения частей речи в классической грамматике: форма, значение, функция. Позиция слова в предложении как основа выделения классов слов в структурной лингвистике. Система частей речи в английском языке. Знаменательные и служебные части речи. Полевая структура частей речи.

5. Существительное. Общая характеристика существительного как знаменательной части речи, имеющей значение предметности. Классификация существительных по структуре (простые, производные, сложные) и по значению (имена собственные и имена нарицательные). Подклассы имен собственных (антропонимы – имена людей и топонимы – географические названия) и имен нарицательных (конкретные, абстрактные, вещественные, собирательные).

Категория числа. Проблема категорий падежа. Варианты падежных систем в английской грамматике (3 падежа – уайтхол, 4 падежа – Суит, Керм, 5 падежей - Несфилд). Отрицание категорий падежа в работах Воронцовой, Мухина, Ивановой. Двухпадежная система как противопоставление общего падежа (Сотток Case) и притяжательного (родительного падежа (Genitive Case). Способы выражения рода в английском языке.

6. Прилагательное. Классификация прилагательных по структуре (простые, производные, сложные) по значению (качественные, относительные), по позиции в предложении (синтаксической функции (атрибутивные, предикативные)). Проблема слов категории состояния. Способы выражения сравнения в английском языке. Проблема интерпритации сочетаний прилагательных со словами more, most (так называемые аналитические формы сравнения). Субстантивация

прилагательных как процесс перехода прилагательных в разряд существительных. Полная и частичная субстантивация. Полная структура прилагательного.

7. Глагол. Общая характеристика глагола по семантическому, морфологическому, синтетическому признакам. Система глагольных категорий. Принципы классификации глаголов: морфологическая классификация (правильные – неправильные глаголы), функциональная (знаменательные-служебные), синтаксическая (интенциональные-безинтенциональные), семантическая (активные-стативные, нульместные-одноместные-двухместные, конверсивы, перформативы, фактивные-нефактивные), переходные-непереходные, субъектные-объектные, предельные-непредельные, катенативные глаголы.

8. Видовременная система английского глагола. Взаимосвязь категорий вида и времени в английском языке. Структурные показатели и видовое значение каждого видо-временного разряда. Проблема будущего времени. Перфект и категория временной отнесенности. Категория залога. Соотношение залога и переходности глаголов в английском языке. Проблема возвратного залога. Проблема разграничения страдательного залога и составного именного сказуемого.

9. Категория наклонения как морфологическое средство выражения модальности. Количество наклонений в английском языке.

10. Неличные формы глагола. Номенклатура неличных форм английского глагола. Грамматические категории неличных форм. Синтаксические конструкции с неличными формами.

11. Служебные части речи. Состав служебных частей речи. Проблема их семантики и функции. Омонимия частей речи в английском языке.

12. Синтаксис как раздел теоретической грамматики. Основные единицы синтаксиса: словосочетание и предложение. Учение о словосочетании в

отечественной лингвистике. Узкое понимание словосочетания как подчинительной структуры, состоящей не менее чем из двух знаменательных слов. Учение о словосочетании в зарубежной лингвистике. Широкое понимание словосочетания как любой синтаксически организованной группы. Классификация словосочетаний по структуре (ядерные – безъядерные, нераспространенные - распространенные), морфологической принадлежности ведущего компонента (ядра словосочетания (Субстантивные, глагольные, адъективные, адвербиальные, местоименные), типу синтаксической связи между членами словосочетания (атрибутивные, объективные, обстоятельственные, предикативные)).

13. Предложение как центральная синтаксическая единица. Основные признаки предложения: коммуникативная направленность, предикативность, структурная законченность (синтаксическая автономность), интонационная оформленность. Традиционные классификации предложений по структуре, цели высказывания, эмоциональной окраске, составу, характеру подлежащего. Структурные классификации (классификации ядерных предложений). Различное количество ядерных предложений, выделяемых разными авторами – от семи моделей (Хэррис) до 39 моделей (Почепцов).

14. Типология членов предложения. Определение члена предложения как базисной синтаксической единицы. Главные и второстепенные члены предложения.

15. Сложное предложение. Сложносочиненное и сложноподчиненное предложение. Классификация придаточных предложений. Средства связи главного и придаточного предложения.

3 Темы для самостоятельной работы студентов.

1. **Артикль. Статус артикля в языке. Количество артиклей в английском языке. Основные значения неопределенного и определенного артиклей.**

2. Наречие. Классификация наречий. Морфологические и синтаксические особенности наречий.   Проблема интерпритации лингвистической сущности элементов типа dovn, off. Критерии разграничения наречий и модальных слов. Полевая структура наречия. Омонимия наречий и других частей речи в английском языке.

3. Местоимение. Разряды местоимений.

4. Числительное. Количественные и порядковые числительные.

5. Междометие. Место междометий в системе частей речи английского языка.   Синтаксический   статус   междометий.   Классификация междометий.

6. Актуальное членение предложения. Тема и рома как основные понятия актуального членения.

4 Вопросы для контроля знаний студентов.

1. Основные единицы морфологии.

2. Типология морфем.

3. Способы словоизменения в современном английском языке.

4. Основные грамматические понятия: грамматическое   значение, грамматическая форма, грамматическая категория.

5. Части речи.

6. Имя существительное (общая характеристика).

7. Категория падежа в системе существительного.

8. Имя прилагательное (семантическая, морфологическая, синтаксическая характеристика).

9. Глагол (общая характеристика).

10. Принципы классификации глаголов в английском языке.

11. Видовременная система английского глагола.

12. Категория залога.

13. Категория наклонения.

14. Трактовка словосочетания в отечественной зарубежной лингвистике.

15. Принципы классификации словосочетаний.

16. Предложение. Основные признаки предложения.

17. Классификация предложений.

18. Типология членов предложения.

19. Сложное предложение.

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Приложение 1. Список грамматических терминов
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Parts of Speech

Noun: Prober (ann, Moscow) – Common: class nouns (desk), abstract nouns of materiel (silk), collective nouns (family)

Adjective: qualitative (large, blue) – relative (Asian, wooden)

Verb: finite – non – finite forms /verbals/ verbids (speaks – to speak, speaking, spoken)

Adverb: qualitative (slowly, quickly) – circumstantial (here, these, today)

Modal words: certainly, surely, of course, perhaps, maybe, probably, luckily

Numeral: cardinal (one, two, three) – ordinal (first, second)

Interjection: emotional (ah, oh, alas, dear me) – imperative (hush, here, come, now)

Pronoun: personal (I, he, she, we) – possessive (my, our, your) – reflexive (myself, himself) – reciprocal (each other, one another) – demonstrative (this, that, such, same) – indefinite (some, any, somebody, anything) – negative (no, none, neither, nobody) – interrogative (who, whose, what, which) – conjunctive (who, whose, what, which) – defining (each, every, one, all, both, other)

Words of the category of state/stativer: afraid, asleep, ashamed, awake, alive

Preposition: in, on, behind, below, inside, without, because of, in front of

Conjunction: and, or, but, but, till, after, if, that, when, before, in case,   both ... and, either … or, neither … nor, not only … but

Particle: only, just, but, alone, still, yet, quite, even, too, also, not, merely.

Article: indefinite (a/an) – definite (the)

Notional parbs of speech (boy, speak, big) –
Functional (Senu – notional/structural/Formal parts of speech (on, and, just).

Grammatical Categories

Number: Singular (boy) – plural (boys)

Case — Common (boy) – possessive / genitive (boy's)

Nominative (I, he) – Objective (me, him)

Degrees of Comparison: positive (big) – Comparative (bigger) Superlative
    (biggest)
Tense: present (speak) – past (spoke) – Future (will speak)
Aspect: Continuous (am speaking) – Non – Continuous (speak)
Voice: Active (speaks) – passive (is spoken)
Mood: Indicative (speak) – Impera tive (speak!) – Subjunctive (would speak)

Members of the Sentence

Personal: <u>she</u> is a student

Subject — **Impersonal: <u>it</u> is cold**

Indefinite – personal: <u>One</u> / <u>You</u> can't do it

Simple: She <u>is speaking</u>

Compound Nominal: She <u>is a student</u>

Predicate — **Compound Verbal Modal: You <u>must speak</u>**

Compound Verbal Aspect: She <u>began to speak</u>
Phraseological: He <u>gave a gasp</u>

Direct: She read <u>the book</u>
Indirect: She gave <u>him</u> an interesting book

Object — *Prepositional: I'm unlasy <u>about it</u>*

Complex: I saw <u>her crying</u>

Prepositional / in preposition: the <u>bright</u> sun

Attribute — Postpositional / in postposition: nothing <u>of interest</u>, hope
<div align="right"><u>for the best</u></div>

Adverbial — Modifier of
- time: I'll do it <u>tomorrow</u>
- place: <u>Outside</u> it was getting dark
- manner: She walked <u>briskly</u>
- degree and measure: It's <u>rather</u> good

- cause: I flushed simply <u>from being spoken to</u>
- purpose: She strained her ears <u>to catch the words</u>
- condition: <u>In case of your absence</u> I'll leave you
- result: She is too fond of the child <u>to leave it</u>
- concession: <u>Though frightened</u> he carried it off very well
- comparison: John plays the piano better <u>than Mary</u>
- attendant
- circumstances: He passed my table <u>without stopping</u>
- frequency: They <u>often</u> bothered him

Types of Sentences

Sentence (It is winter) – Clause (If you come to me….)

Sentence
- Simple: She didn't answer at once
- Compound: It was cold <u>and</u> we had to return home
- Declarative: He came in
- Interrogative: Does he speak English well?
- Imperative: Don't prompt
- Neutral: The weather is fine today
- Exclamatory: What fine weather we are having today!
- Two – member: He entered the room
- One – member: Night. Early winter morning. Come here. Only to think of it.
- Complete: He lives in London
- Incomplete / Elliptical: ("what makes you think so?") "Facts".
- Unextended: He is a student. Birds fly
- Principal: we'll be glad
- Subordinate: if you com to us

Приложение 2. Схема анализа предложения

_____

Анализ предложения должен включать следующие этапы:

I. Структура предложения (the structure of the sentence)
1. простое – сложносочиненное – сложноподчиненное (simple – compound – complex);
2. односоставное – двусоставное (one – member – two – member);
3. полное – неполное (complete – incomplete / elliptical);
4. распространенное – нераспространенное (extended – unextended)

II. Цель высказывания (the purpose of the utterance)
1. повествовательные (declarative);
2. вопросительные (interrogative);
3. повелительные (imperative);

III. Эмоциональная окраска (emotional coloring)
1. нейтральные (neutral);
2. восклицательные (exclamatory)

IV. Характер подлежащего (the character of the subject)
1. личные (personal);
2. безличные (impersonal);
3. неопределенно-личные (indefinite-personal).

V. Идентификация главного и придаточного предложений, определение типа придаточного предложение и связующего средства.

VI. Анализ по членам предложения и частям речи.
1. тип члена предложения
2. класс части речи
3. грамматические категории.

Приложение 3. Образец анализа предложения

_____

When people realize how bad it is they cannot do anything because they go crazy.

The sentence contains four finite forms of the verb (realize, is, can, go), therefore it consists of four clause (1. When people realize; 2.how bad it is; 3.they cannot do anything; 4.bacause they go crazy).

According to the structure of the sentence it is complex, two-number, complete, clauses 1 and 4 are unexpended, clauses 2 and 3 are extended.

According to the purpose of the utterance it's declarative. According to the emotional coloring it's neutral. According to the character of the subject it's personal. This complex sentence consists of a principal clause (they cannot do anything) and three subordinate clauses. The first subordinate clause (when people realize) is an adverbial clause of time introduced by the conjunction when. The second subordinate clause (how bad it is) is an object clause which is connected with the first subordinate clause by the adverb how. The last subordinate clause (because they go crazy) is an adverbial clause of cause which is connected with the principal cause by means of the conjunction because.

The subject of the principal clause is they. It's a personal subject expressed by the personal pronoun in the nominative case. The predicate is cannot do. It's a compound verbal modal predicate expressed by the modal verb can and the indefinite infinitive active of the verb do anything is a direct object expressed by the indefinite pronoun.

The subject of the first subordinate clause is people. It's a personal subject expressed by the collective noun in the common case. The predicate realize is a simple verbal predicate expressed by the finite form of the verb in the present Tense, non-continuous, non-perfect, active voice, indicate Mood

The subject of the second subordinate clause is it. It's an impersonal subject expressed by the personal pronoun. The predicate is bad is a compound nominal part (predicative) bad expressed by an adjective in the positive degree. The peculiarity of this predicate is an inverted position of its predicative placed before the link verb. How is an adverbial modifier of degree expressed by an adverb.

The subject of the last subordinate clause is they. It's a personal subject expressed by the person al pronoun in the nominative case. The predicate is go crazy. It's a compound nominal predicate consisting of the link verb go in the present tense, non-continuous, non-perfect, active voice, indicative mood.

Приложение 4.
Теоретическая грамматика английского языка в таблицах

Классификация словосочетаний.

Критерии классификации	Разряды словосочетаний	Примеры
По структуре	1. ядерные — безъядерные	a book of stories brother and sister
	2. распространенные –	the reception of the delegation by the president
	нераспространенные	a good job
По морфологической принадлежности ведущего компонента	1. субстантивные 2. адъективные 3. глагольные 4. адвербиальные 5. местоименные	the roof of the house very new to read a book very quickly none of us
По типу синтаксической связи	1. определительные 2. объективные 3. обстоятельственные	a sharp needle picking flowers to laugh heartily

Классификация предложений

Критерии классификации	Типы предложений	Примеры
according to the structure	simple	**The door classed**
	compound	It was a nice place and they were proud of it
	complex	I forgot to post the letter which I wrote yesterday
according to	two – members	**He entered the room**

composition	one - members	A beautiful day, quite warm
according to the presence or absence of secondary members	complete	He lives in London
	incomplete	And how is dear Irene?
	elliptical	"Pretty well", he said
according to the presence or absence of secondary members	extended	Two young girls in red came by.
	unexpended	He is a student
according to the type of communication/ according to the purpose of the utterance	declarative	**He came in**
	interrogative	Do you know English
	imperative	Read the text

Таблица № 3

Типология придаточных предложений.

Тип придаточного предложения	Средства связи	*Пример*
1. Subject	that, what, who, why, etc	<u>What is done</u> can't be Undone
2. Predicative	that, what, who, why, etc	Our attitude simply is <u>that facts are facts</u>
3. Object	that, what, who, when, where, how, etc	I don't know <u>what you are talking about</u>
4. Attributive	who, which, that, whose	In this room which was newer used, a light was burning
5. adverbial clause of:		
time	when, while, as, till, since, after, before, etc	We must strike <u>while the iron's hot</u>
place	where , wherever	I am quite comfortable <u>where I am</u>

cause	as, because, since, etc.	I don't see how she could be ill, <u>since I saw her yesterday</u>
purpose	that, in order that, so that, list, etc.	I crouched against the wall of the gallery <u>so that I should not be seen</u>
condition	if, unless, in case, etc.	<u>If</u> he is not here by the end of the week, I shall go after him
result	so...that	He is <u>so</u> weak physically <u>that</u> he can hardly move
manner	as	She did exactly <u>as he told her</u>
comparison	than, as, not so...as, etc.	He was white and jaded <u>as if he had not slept for many nights</u>
concession	though, although, however, etc	I enjoyed that day, <u>though it was cold</u>
6. Parenthetical		You're not complaining, **I hope**

Таблица № 4

Средства связи в сложноподчиненном предложении

Союзы (не выполняют функции членов предложения	*Союзные слова* (выполняют функции членов предложения)	
that, it, as, when, where, till, because, after, before, as soon as	наречия	местоимения
	when where why how	who what which whose that

Таблица № 5

Соотнесенность членов предложения и частей речи.

Member of the sentence	Part of speech
Subject	Noun / Pronoun
Predicate	Verb
Attribute	Adjective
Object	Noun / Pronoun
Adverbial modifier	Adverb

Таблица № 6

Типология сказуемого

тип сказуемого			пример
simple			read, will read, have been reading
compound	nominal		is young
	verbal	modal	can read
		aspect	began to read

Таблица № 7

Классификация союзов

Критерии классификации	разряды	примеры
according to meaning	copulative adversative disjunctive causative – consecutive	and, as well as, both...and but, yet or, either...or so, for
according to structure	simple derivative compound composite	and, or, but, till until, unless however, whereas, whenever, wherever as well as, in case,

		as long as, for fear

Грамматические категории частей речи.

часть речи	грамматическая категория	категориальная аппозиция
Noun	number case	singular – plural common – possessive
Pronoun	case	common – possessive nominative – objective
Verb (finite forms)	Tense aspect voice mood	present – past – future continuous – non – continuous perfect – non – perfect active – passive indicative – imperative – subjunctive
Adjective	Degrees of comparison	positive – comparative – superlative
Adverb	Degrees of comparison	positive – comparative – superlative

Приложение 1. Список грамматических терминов
_____

Parts of Speech

Noun: Prober (ann, Moscow) – Common: class nouns (desk), abstract nouns of materiel (silk), collective nouns (family)
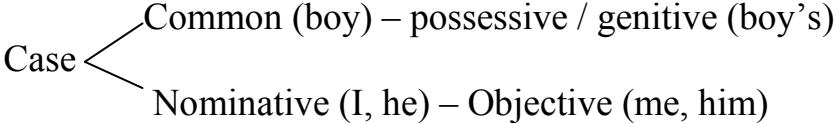
Adjective: qualitative (large, blue) – relative (Asian, wooden)

Verb: finite – non – finite forms /verbals/ verbids (speaks – to speak, speaking, spoken)

Adverb: qualitative (slowly, quickly) – circumstantial (here, these, today)

Modal words: certainly, surely, of course, perhaps, maybe, probably, luckily
Numeral: cardinal (one, two, three) – ordinal (first, second)
Interjection: emotional (ah, oh, alas, dear me) – imperative (hush, here, come, now)
Pronoun: personal (I, he, she, we) – possessive (my, our, your) – reflexive (myself, himself) – reciprocal (each other, one another) – demonstrative (this, that, such, same) – indefinite (some, any, somebody, anything) – negative (no, none, neither, nobody) – interrogative (who, whose, what, which) – conjunctive (who, whose, what, which) – defining (each, every, one, all, both, other)
Words of the category of state/stativer: afraid, asleep, ashamed, awake, alive
Preposition: in, on, behind, below, inside, without, because of, in front of
Conjunction: and, or, but, but, till, after, if, that, when, before, in case,   both ... and, either … or, neither … nor, not only … but
Particle: only, just, but, alone, still, yet, quite, even, too, also, not, merely.
Article: indefinite (a/an) – definite (the)
Notional parbs of speech (boy, speak, big) –
Functional (Senu – notional/structural/Formal parts of speech (on, and, just).

Grammatical Categories

Number: Singular (boy) – plural (boys)

Case
— Common (boy) – possessive / genitive (boy's)
— Nominative (I, he) – Objective (me, him)

Degrees of Comparison: positive (big) – Comparative (bigger) Superlative (biggest)
Tense: present (speak) – past (spoke) – Future (will speak)
Aspect: Continuous (am speaking) – Non – Continuous (speak)
Voice: Active (speaks) – passive (is spoken)
Mood: Indicative (speak) – Impera tive (speak!) – Subjunctive (would speak)

Members of the Sentence

Personal: she is a student

Subject — **Impersonal: <u>it</u> is cold**

Indefinite – personal: <u>One</u> / <u>You</u> can't do it

Simple: She <u>is speaking</u>

Compound Nominal: She <u>is a student</u>

Predicate   **Compound Verbal Modal: You <u>must speak</u>**
Compound Verbal Aspect: She <u>began to speak</u>
Phraseological: He <u>gave a gasp</u>

Direct: She read <u>the book</u>
Indirect: She gave <u>him</u> an interesting book

Object   *Prepositional: I'm unlasy <u>about it</u>*
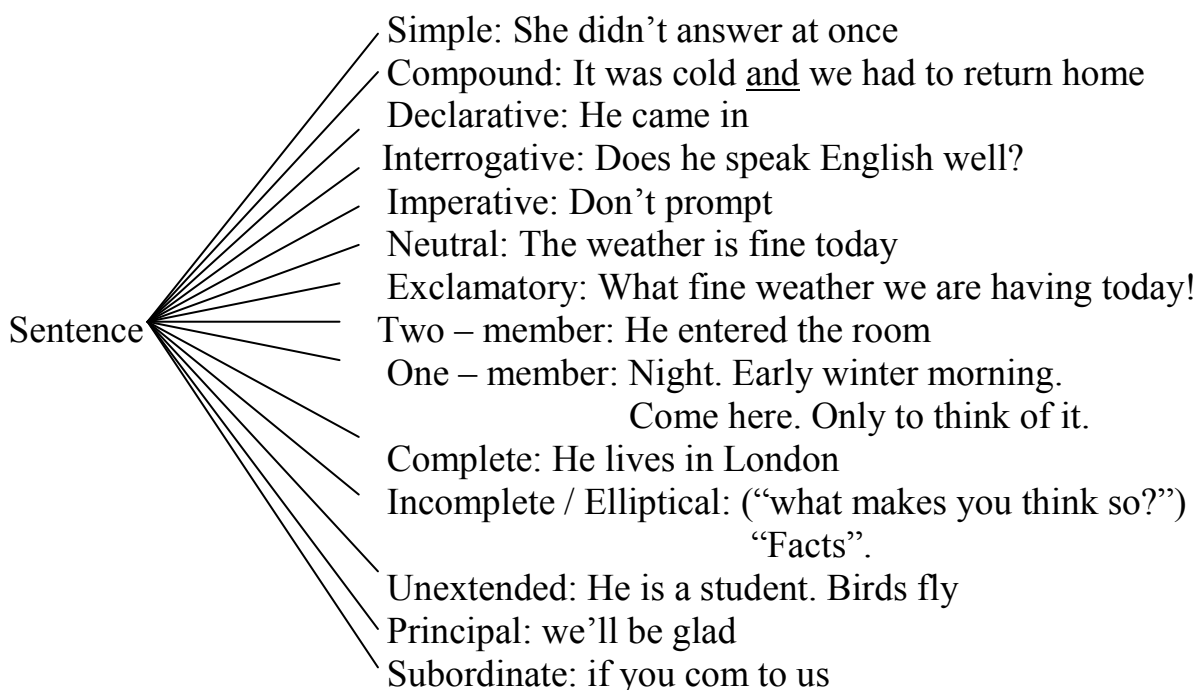Complex: I saw <u>her crying</u>

Prepositional / in preposition: the <u>bright</u> sun

Attribute

Postpositional / in postposition: nothing <u>of interest</u>, hope
<u>for the best</u>

time: I'll do it <u>tomorrow</u>
Adverbial   place: <u>Outside</u> it was getting dark
Modifier of   manner: She walked <u>briskly</u>
degree and measure: It's <u>rather</u> good

cause: I flushed simply <u>from being spoken to</u>
purpose: She strained her ears <u>to catch the words</u>
condition: <u>In case of your absence</u> I'll leave you
result: She is too fond of the child <u>to leave it</u>
concession: <u>Though frightened</u> he carried it off very well
comparison: John plays the piano better <u>than Mary</u>
attendant
circumstances: He passed my table <u>without stopping</u>
frequency: They <u>often</u> bothered him

Types of Sentences

Sentence (It is winter) – Clause (If you come to me….)

Sentence

- Simple: She didn't answer at once
- Compound: It was cold <u>and</u> we had to return home
- Declarative: He came in
- Interrogative: Does he speak English well?
- Imperative: Don't prompt
- Neutral: The weather is fine today
- Exclamatory: What fine weather we are having today!
- Two – member: He entered the room
- One – member: Night. Early winter morning. Come here. Only to think of it.
- Complete: He lives in London
- Incomplete / Elliptical: ("what makes you think so?") "Facts".
- Unextended: He is a student. Birds fly
- Principal: we'll be glad
- Subordinate: if you com to us

Приложение 2. Схема анализа предложения

_____

Анализ предложения должен включать следующие этапы:

I. Структура предложения (the structure of the sentence)
  1. простое – сложносочиненное – сложноподчиненное (simple – compound – complex);
  2. односоставное – двусоставное (one – member – two – member);
  3. полное – неполное (complete – incomplete / elliptical);
  4. распространенное – нераспространенное (extended – unextended)

II. Цель высказывания (the purpose of the utterance)
  4. повествовательные (declarative);
  5. вопросительные (interrogative);
  6. повелительные (imperative);

III. Эмоциональная окраска (emotional coloring)
  3. нейтральные (neutral);
  4. восклицательные (exclamatory)

IV. Характер подлежащего (the character of the subject)
  4. личные (personal);
  5. безличные (impersonal);

6. неопределенно-личные (indefinite-personal).

V. Идентификация главного и придаточного предложений, определение типа придаточного предложение и связующего средства.

VI. Анализ по членам предложения и частям речи.

4. тип члена предложения
5. класс части речи
6. грамматические категории.

Приложение 3. Образец анализа предложения

_____

When people realize how bad it is they cannot do anything because they go crazy.

The sentence contains four finite forms of the verb (realize, is, can, go), therefore it consists of four clause (1. When people realize; 2.how bad it is; 3.they cannot do anything; 4.bacause they go crazy).

According to the structure of the sentence it is complex, two-number, complete, clauses 1 and 4 are unexpended, clauses 2 and 3 are extended.

According to the purpose of the utterance it's declarative. According to the emotional coloring it's neutral. According to the character of the subject it's personal. This complex sentence consists of a principal clause (they cannot do anything) and three subordinate clauses. The first subordinate clause (when people realize) is an adverbial clause of time introduced by the conjunction when. The second subordinate clause (how bad it is) is an object clause which is connected with the first subordinate clause by the adverb how. The last subordinate clause (because they go crazy) is an adverbial clause of cause which is connected with the principal cause by means of the conjunction because.

The subject of the principal clause is they. It's a personal subject expressed by the personal pronoun in the nominative case. The predicate is cannot do. It's a compound verbal modal predicate expressed by the modal verb can and the indefinite infinitive active of the verb do anything is a direct object expressed by the indefinite pronoun.

The subject of the first subordinate clause is people. It's a personal subject expressed by the collective noun in the common case. The predicate realize is a simple verbal predicate expressed by the finite form of the verb in the present Tense, non-continuous, non-perfect, active voice, indicate Mood

The subject of the second subordinate clause is it. It's an impersonal subject expressed by the personal pronoun. The predicate is bad is a compound nominal part (predicative) bad expressed by an adjective in the positive degree. The peculiarity of this predicate is an inverted position of its predicative placed before the link verb. How is an adverbial modifier of degree expressed by an adverb.

The subject of the last subordinate clause is they. It's a personal subject expressed by the person al pronoun in the nominative case. The predicate is go crazy. It's a compound nominal predicate consisting of the link werb go in the present tense, non-continuous, non-perfect, active voice, indicative mood.

Приложение 4.
Теоретическая грамматика английского языка в таблицах

Классификация словосочетаний.

Критерии классификации	Разряды словосочетаний	Примеры
По структуре	3. ядерные – безъядерные	a book of stories brother and sister
	4. распространенные –	the reception of the delegation by the president
	нераспространенные	a good job
По морфологической принадлежности ведущего компонента	6. субстантивные 7. адъективные 8. глагольные 9. адвербиальные 10. местоименные	the roof of the house very new to read a book very quickly none of us
По типу синтаксической связи	4. определительные 5. объективные 6. обстоятельственные	a sharp needle picking flowers to laugh heartily

Классификация предложений

Критерии классификации	Типы предложений	Примеры
according to the structure	simple	**The door classed**
	compound	It was a nice place and they were proud of it
	complex	I forgot to post the letter which I wrote yesterday
according to composition	two – members	**He entered the room**
	one - members	A beautiful day, quite warm
according to the presence or absence of secondary members	complete	He lives in London
	incomplete	And how is dear Irene?
	elliptical	"Pretty well", he said
according to the presence or absence of secondary members	extended	Two young girls in red came by.
	unexpended	He is a student
according to the type of communication/ according to the purpose of the utterance	declarative	**He came in**
	interrogative	Do you know English
	imperative	Read the text

Типология придаточных предложений.

Тип придаточного предложения	Средства связи	*Пример*
1. Subject	that, what, who, why, etc	<u>What is done</u> can't be Undone
2. Predicative	that, what, who, why, etc	Our attitude simply is <u>that facts are facts</u>
3. Object	that, what, who, when, where, how, etc	I don't know <u>what you are talking about</u>
4. Attributive	who, which, that, whose	In this room which was newer used, a light was burning
5. adverbial clause of:		
time	when, while, as, till, since, after, before, etc	We must strike <u>while the iron's hot</u>
place	where , wherever	I am quite comfortable <u>where I am</u>
cause	as, because, since, etc.	I don't see how she could be ill, <u>since I saw her yesterday</u>
purpose	that, in order that, so that, list, etc.	I crouched against the wall of the gallery <u>so that I should not be seen</u>
condition	if, unless, in case, etc.	<u>If he is not here</u> by the end of the week, I shall go after him

result	so...that	He is <u>so</u> weak physically <u>that</u> he can hardly move
manner	as	She did exactly <u>as he told her</u>
comparison	than, as, not so...as, etc.	He was white and jaded <u>as if he had not slept for many nights</u>
concession	though, although, however, etc	I enjoyed that day, <u>though it was cold</u>
6. Parenthetical		You're not complaining, **I hope**

<p align="right">*Таблица № 4*</p>

Средства связи в сложноподчиненном предложении

Союзы (не выполняют функции членов предложения	*Союзные слова* (выполняют функции членов предложения)	
that, it, as, when, where, till, because, after, before, as soon as	наречия	местоимения
	when where why how	who what which whose that

<p align="right">Таблица № 5</p>

Соотнесенность членов предложения и частей речи.

Member of the sentence	Part of speech
Subject	Noun / Pronoun
Predicate	Verb
Attribute	Adjective
Object	Noun / Pronoun
Adverbial modifier	Adverb

Типология сказуемого

тип сказуемого			пример
simple			read, will read, have been reading
compound	nominal		is young
	verbal	modal	can read
		aspect	began to read

Классификация союзов

Критерии классификации	разряды	примеры
according to meaning	copulative adversative disjunctive causative – consecutive	and, as well as, both...and but, yet or, either...or so, for
according to structure	simple derivative compound composite	and, or, but, till until, unless however, whereas, whenever, wherever as well as, in case, as long as, for fear

Грамматические категории частей речи.

часть речи	грамматическая категория	категориальная аппозиция
Noun	number case	singular – plural common – possessive
Pronoun	case	common – possessive nominative – objective
Verb (finite forms)	Tense aspect voice mood	present – past – future continuous – non – continuous perfect – non – perfect active – passive indicative – imperative – subjunctive
Adjective	Degrees of comparison	positive – comparative – superlative
Adverb	Degrees of comparison	positive – comparative – superlative

Теоретическая грамматика Лекционный курс

Language is a means of human communication. It is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users; it grows and develops together with the development of society.

Language consists of three constituent parts: the phonological system, the lexical system, the grammatical system. Each of the three parts of language is studied by a particular linguistic discipline.

Phonetics is a science which studies the phonic system of the language (sounds, intonation, etc.)

Lexicology is a science which studies the word-stock of the language, its building material (words, phrases, etc.)

Grammar is a science which studies the structure of the language. The two parts of English Grammar are: **Morphology** and **Syntax**. The structure, classification and combinability of words are the object of morphology. Morphology deals with parts of speech and their inflexion, i.e. the forms of number and case of nouns and pronouns, the forms of tense, mood, etc. of verbs, the forms of degrees of comparison of adjectives. Syntax studies the structure, classification and combinability of sentences, different types of sentences and their meanings, the rules according to which words are connected in the sentence. Hence, the aim of theoretical grammar of a language is to present a theoretical description of its grammatical system, i.e. to scientifically analyze and define its grammatical categories and study the mechanisms of grammatical formations of utterances out of words in the process of speech making.

On the History of English Grammars

English grammatical theory is represented in modern times by several types of grammatical description. The most influential and widely spread grammatical systems reflected in textbooks of English are: classical   scientific grammar, the founder of which was Henry Sweet, American structural (descriptive) linguistics and transformational grammar.

There does not exist a generally accepted periodization of the history of English grammars, so we shall roughly divide it into two periods of unequal length, according to the general aims of the grammars appearing within these periods.

I. The first is **the age of prescientific grammar** beginning with the end of the 16th century and lasting till about 1900. It includes two types of grammars which succeeded each other:

1. **The early prenormative grammars** of English, beginning with William Bullokar's *Bref Grammar for English* (1585).

2. **The prescriptive (normative) grammars**, which stated strict rules of grammatical usage of English.

By the end of the 19th century, when the prescriptive grammar had reached its highest level of development, the appearance of new grammar, the scientific grammar, became possible.

II. The second period is **the age of the scientific grammars** beginning with the appearance of Sweet's grammar in the last decade of the 19th century. It includes three new types of grammar.

3. **Classical scientific grammar** (the third type of grammar). In contrast with prescriptive grammars, was both descriptive and explanatory. During the first half of the 20th century an intensive development of this grammar has taken place. Classical

scientific grammar has accepted the traditional grammatical system of prescriptive grammar.

The new types of English grammars, which appeared since the fifties are:

4. The fourth type of grammar – **structural or descriptive grammar**

5. The fifth type of grammar – **the transformational generative grammar**. The linguistic theory represented by the last mentioned type of grammar is considered by many modern linguists to be the most fruitful approach to the description and explanation of the grammatical system of English, especially in the field of syntax.

Thus we see that during the first period there was only one kind of grammar in use at a time, whereas in the 20th century there were at first two types of grammars current (the second and the third) and at present there exist at least four types of grammatical description, which must be taken into consideration by a student of English grammatical theory.

Thus the coexistence and a certain interaction of four types of grammar is a typical feature of the last two decades of the 20th century.

The first period
English grammars before 1900

1. Early (Prenormative) Grammars

Until the 17th century the term "grammar" in English was applied only to the study of Latin. This usage was a result of the fact that Latin grammar was the only grammar learned in schools ("grammar" schools) and until the end of the 16th century there were no grammars of English. In the earliest English grammars the arrangements of the material was similar to that of Latin grammar. But in spite of this adherence to the structure of Latin grammar, even early grammarians noticed some typical features which made the structure of English different from that of Latin. Anyway, the grammarians who desired to break with Latin grammatical tradition were not always consistent and still followed the Latin pattern in some of the chapters of their grammars.

2. Prescriptive (normative) Grammars

The age of prescriptive grammars begins in the second half of the 18th century. The aim of prescriptive grammars was to reduce the English language to rules and to set up a standard of correct usage. The rise of prescriptive grammar met the demand for setting usage and for codifying and systematizing grammar.

It was in the second half of the 19th century that the development of the grammatical scheme of the prescriptive grammar was completed. The grammarians arrived at a system now familiar, because it has since been adopted by a long succession of grammarians of the 19th and 20th centuries. The best prescriptive grammars of the period, like C.P.Mason's *English Grammar* (London, 1858) and A. Bain's *Higher English Grammar* (London, 1863), paved the way for the first scientific grammar of English.

The description of the morphological system in the grammars in the second half of the 19th century changed very little as compared with that of grammars of the first half of the 20th century, but the explanation of grammatical forms became more detailed. Some important changes, however, took place in the description of the syntactic system, though the definition of the sentence remained logical, as a combination of words expressing a complete thought. But the concept of the parts of the sentence differs greatly from that of the grammars of the first half of the 19th century. The changes and innovations concerned both the principal and the secondary parts of the sentence. The number of the principal parts of the sentence was reduced to two – the subject and the predicate, which retained their logical definitions. In this period the grammarians make an attempt to differentiate logical and grammatical subjects and predicates.

3. The Rise of Classical Scientific Grammar

By the end of the 19th century, after the description of the grammatical system, especially that of syntax had been completed, prescriptive grammar had reached the peak of its development. H. Sweet's *New English Grammar, Logical and Historical* (1891) was a grammar of a higher type, which could give a scientific explanation of the grammatical phenomena. Scientific grammar was understood by its authors to be a combination of both descriptive and explanatory grammar. The same views on the purpose and methods of scientific grammar were held by 20th-century linguists. English scientific grammar inherited the grammatical system evolved by the prescriptive grammarians.

The second period
English grammar in the 20th century

The modern period may be divided into two chronologically unequal parts, the first from the beginning of the 20th century till the 1940's, when there were only two types of grammars in use – the prescriptive and the classical scientific, the second from the 1940's, during which time structural grammar, and then transformational have been added.

We shall now briefly dwell on some specific features of each of the types of grammars current in the modern period.

1. Prescriptive Grammars in the Modern Period

Some 19th-century grammars continued to be printed, with hardly any changes, e.g. Lenny's *Principles of English Grammar*, Mason's *Junior, Intermediate, and Senior Grammars*.

Among the 20th-century prescriptive grammars J.C. Nesfield's grammar should be mentioned. In Nesfield's grammatical scheme the number of cases of the noun was increased to five, while classical scientific grammars, for instance, those of Sweet and Jespersen, favoured the two-case system. Two new terms, "double" and "multiple" sentences, were substituted for the term "compound" sentence. The new terms became very popular in prescriptive grammar and influenced some scientific grammars.

2. Classical Scientific English Grammar in the Modern Period

The founders of this type of grammar in this period of its intensive development either specialize in syntax or deal with the problem of both morphology and syntax. Among the authors who specialize in syntax are L.G. Kimball (*Structure of the English Sentence, New York, 1900*), C.T. Onions (*Advanced English Syntax, London, 1904*) and H.R. Stokoe (*Understanding of Syntax, London, 1937*). Among the authors of the 20th-century scientific grammars of the classical type are: Poutsma (*A Grammar of Late Modern English*, 1926), Kruisinga (*A Handbook of Present-Day English*, 1931), Zandvoort (*Handbook of English Grammar*, 1945), Jespersen (*Philosophy of Grammar*, 1924). Of all the authors of scientific grammars O. Jespersen is the most original. He was the only one who, like Sweet, elaborated such general concepts of grammatical theory as the correspondence of grammatical and logical categories and the definition and delimitation of morphology and syntax.

Structural and Transformational Grammars

Structural grammarians begin treating the problems of the structure of English with criticism of traditional, or conventional grammar, lumping together prescriptive and scholarly grammars. According to the point of view of structural linguists, both these types of grammar belong to a "prescientific era". Fries's classification (*The Structure of English, New York*, 1956) of the parts of speech is most popular among structural linguists. He classifies words into four "form-classes", designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of "function words", designated by letters. The form-classes correspond to what most grammarians call nouns and pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The group of function words contains prepositions and conjunctions, a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs.

Another descriptive works on grammar should be mentioned: An outline of English Structure by G.L. Trager and H.L. Smith (1951). The two books (that of Fries and the *Outline*) supplement each other.

The decade before Fries's *The Structure of English* appeared was one of intensive development of American linguists which became known as Bloomfieldian linguistics. American linguists (among them were K.L. Pike, R. Wells, E.Nida, Z.S.Harris and others) concentrated their attention on formal operations, the so called grammar discovery procedures, their aim being to discover and describe the features and arrangement of two fundamental linguistic units (the phoneme and the morpheme as the minimal unit of grammatical structure).

Sentence structure was represented in terms of immediate constituent (IC) analysis. The binary cutting of sentences and their phrasal constituents into IC's, the first and the most important cut being between the group of the subject and the group of the predicate, was implicit in the "parsing" and analysis of traditional grammar. The generally favoured method of linguistic description became that of distribution. Two methods, distributional analysis and substitution were not new ideas in the history of English grammars.

But the difference between the traditional and structural approaches consists in that the former did not rely upon this method as part of an explicitly formulated theory, whereas modern linguistics has given recognition to the distributional principle. The same is true of substitution (such as *man = good boy*). The method of substitution has been used in English grammars since the 1950's. It is the principal method of the arrangement of the material also in a well-known 20th-century grammar of a scholarly character (Palmer, *A Grammar of Spoken English on a Strictly Phonetic Basis*, Cambridge, 1924).

The method developed by N. Chomsky has now become widely known as **Transformational Generative Grammar**. According to this theory sentences have a surface structure and a deep structure. Of these, the surface structure is the more complicated, based on one or more underlying abstract simple structures. In certain very simple sentences the difference between the surface structure and the deep structure is minimal. A Transformational Grammar is organized in three basic parts. The first part – its syntactic component (which includes a lexicon, i.e. a list of words) includes description both of deep and surface structure. The second is the semantic component, which provides a semantic interpretation of the deep structure. The third, the phonological component provides a phonetic interpretation of the surface structure of the sentence.

"To generate sentences" according to this theory does not mean "to produce sentences", but "to determine" the rules for forming all of the infinite number of sentences, some of them never heard before.

Of great interest for clarifying the theoretical and philosophical sources of transformational generative grammar are the two books by Chomsky: *Cartesian Linguistics* and *Language and mind*.

Thus we see that in the process of the development of English grammatical theory, despite the great divergence of the types, aims, objectives and approaches of English grammars, a certain continuity may be observed in establishing and keeping up the English grammatical tradition. The foundations of the English grammatical system were laid already in the first part of the first, prescientific, period, in early prenormative grammar. The most important type of grammar, in our opinion, is the second, the prescriptive or normative grammar, which has the longest tradition and still dominates classroom instruction. Both modern schools of grammar show a marked tendency towards morphological labeling of syntactic units, which may be viewed as a revival of the grammatical notions of the earliest grammars when the syntactic system was practically non-existent.

Modern linguists lay a special stress on the systemic character of language and all its constituent parts. It accentuates the idea that language is a system of signs (meaningful units) which are closely connected and interdependent. The system of language includes, on the one hand, the body of material units – sounds, morphemes,

words, word-groups; on the other hand, the regularities or "rules" of the use of these units. Speech comprises both the act of producing utterance, and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text. Language and speech are inseparable, they form an organic unity. Thus, language is analyzed by linguists into two different aspects – the system of signs (language proper) and the use of signs (speech proper).

Units of language are divided into segmental and supra-segmental. Segmental units consist of phonemes; they form phonemic strings of various status (syllables, morphemes, words etc.). Supra-segmental units do not exist by themselves, but are realized together with segmental units (intonation, accent, pause, word-order).

The segmental units of language form a hierarchy of levels. Thus morphemes are decomposed into phonemes, words are decomposed into morphemes, phrases are decomposed into words etc.

The lowest level of lingual segments is phonemic: it is formed by phonemes as the material elements of the higher-level segments. The phoneme has no meaning; its function is to differentiate morphemes and words as material bodies. Units of all the higher levels of language are meaningful.

The level located above the phonemic one is the morphemic level. The morpheme is the elementary meaningful part of the word. It is built up by phonemes, so that the shortest morphemes include only one phoneme. (*ros-y, come-s*). the morpheme expresses abstract, "significative" meanings which are used as constituent parts for the formation of more concrete, "nominative" meanings of words.

The third level in the segmental hierarchy is the level of words, or lexemic level. The word, as different from the morpheme, is a directly naming (nominative) unit of language: it names things and their relations. Since words are built up by morphemes, the shortest words consist of one morpheme only (*man, will, but*).

The next higher level is the level of phrases (word-groups), or phrasemic level. Phrases (combinations of two or more notional words) have a nominative function. But this kind of nomination can be called "polynomination" as different from "mononomination" effected by separate words.

Notional phrases may be of a stable type and of a free type. The stable phrases (phraseological units) form the phraseological part of the lexicon, and are studied by phraseology. Free phrases are built up in the process of speech and are studied in the lower division of syntax.

Above the phrasemic level lies the level of sentences, or "proposemic" level. The peculiar character of the sentence ("proposeme") consists in the fact that, naming a certain situation, it expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. Namely, it shows whether this event is real or unreal, desirable or obligatory, stated as a truth or asked about, etc. In this sense, as different from the word and the phrase, the sentence is a predicative unit. (Cf. to receive – to receive a letter – Early in June I received a letter from Peter Melrose).

The highest unit of language in the hierarchy of levels is the level of sentence-groups, "supra-sentential constructions". The supra-sentential construction is a

combination of separate sentences forming a textual unity. In the typed text it commonly coincides with the paragraph.

As it has mentioned above, the morpheme and the word are the object of morphology.

There exist many definitions of the term *word* and none of them is generally accepted. But in the majority of cases people experience no difficulty in separating one word from another.

Linguistics point out as most characteristic features of words their isolatability (a word may become a sentence: Boys! Certainly), uninterruptibility (a word is not easily interrupted), a certain looseness in reference to the place in a sequence.

Some difficulty is caused by different applications of the term *word*. Linguists often apply it to a whole group like *write, writes, will write, has written*, etc. all this group is then regarded as one word. But when speaking about every word being separated from its neighbours in speech, we mean individual members of such a group, not the group as a whole. The whole group is never used as a unit of speech. Thus we must distinguish the word as a unit of language and the word as a unit of speech, or we have to choose a unit common to both language and speech. Here we consider a unit like *write* to be a word with regard to both language and speech. The group *write, writes, wrote*, etc. is not a word, but a *lexeme*, a group of words united by some common features.

The Structure of Words

One of the main properties of a word is its double nature. It is material because it can be heard or seen, and it is immaterial as far as its meaning is concerned. We shall regard the material aspect of the word as its **form**, and its meaning as its **content.**

The word *books* can be broken up into two parts: *book-* and *–s*. The content of the first part can be rendered by the Russian книг- and the meaning of the second part is 'plurality'.

So each of the two parts of the word *book* has both form and content. Such meaningful parts of a word are called **morphemes**. There is an important difference between the morpheme *book-* and the word *book* besides that of a part and the whole. The word *book* contains the meaning of "singular number", which the morpheme does not. The meaning of "singularity" is acquired by the word *book* because there exists the word *books* with the morpheme of "plurality" -*s*. So the absence of *–s* in *books* is interpreted as "singular number". Thus we may say that the word *book* contains the morpheme *book-* plus a **zero morpheme** with the meaning of "singular number".

The morphemes *book-* and *–s* differ essentially. The meanings of the morphemes -*s, -ed,* relative, dependent and only indirectly reflecting reality, are grammatical meanings of grammatical morphemes. Morphemes of the *book-* type and their meanings are called lexical.

Let us now compare the two units: *works* and *will work*. They contain the same lexical morpheme *work-* and different grammatical morphemes *–s* and *will*. The

grammatical morpheme *–s* is a **bound** morpheme: it is rigidly connected with the lexical morpheme. The grammatical morpheme *will* is a **free** morpheme or a **word-morpheme**: it is loosely connected with the lexical morpheme.

Units like *works*, with bound grammatical morphemes, are called **synthetic** words. They are words both in form and in content. Units like *will work*, with free grammatical morphemes, are called **analytical** words. They are words in content only. In form they are combinations of words. Thus we may speak of **synthetic** and **analytical** forms. Analytical forms are much more characteristic of English than of Russian. Especially rich in analytical forms is the English verb. English is often spoken of as an analytical language, and Russian, Latin and Greek as synthetic languages.

Besides lexical and grammatical morphemes there exists some intermediate type – **lexico-grammatical** morphemes (E.g. *de-, for-, -er, -less*. Such morphemes, like grammatical ones, are attached only to certain classes of lexical morphemes. Like lexical morphemes they determine the lexical meaning of words – *part - depart; give - forgive*). English possesses both bound (*de-, for-, -er, -less*) and free lexico-grammatical morphemes (*stand **up**, give **in**, find **out***).

A word has at least one lexical morpheme. It may also have grammatical and lexico-grammatical morphemes. The lexical morpheme is regarded as the **root** of the word, all the other bound morphemes as **affixes**: **prefixes**, **suffixes** and **infixes**.

Suffixes play a much greater role in the grammatical structure of the language. They include grammatical morphemes besides lexico-grammatical ones, whereas prefixes are only lexico-grammatical. Words without their grammatical morphemes (mostly suffixes, often called endings or inflexions) are known as stems. A stem may consist of the root alone (e.g. *boy, rooms, moved*), or it may be more complicated (e.g. *boyish, remove, improvement*): affixation (the stem *boyish-* has been derived from the stem *boy-*) and vowel change (the stem of the noun *strength* has been derived from the stem of the adjective *strong* by vowel change). We have to count stress change among the stem-building elements (the verb stem transpórt- has been derived from the noun stem tránsport-).

In accordance with their structure the following four types of stems are distinguished:
1. Simple, containing only the root (e.g. *day, dogs, write, wanted*);
2. Derivative, containing affixes or other stem-building elements (e.g. *rewrite, boyhood, speech, transport*);
3. Compound, containing two or more roots (*white-wash, apple-tree, motor-car, brother-in-law*);
4. Composite, containing free lexico-grammatical morphemes or otherwise having the form of a combination of words (*give up, two hundred and twenty-five, at last, in spite of*).

The classification of words

A morpheme usually has more than one meaning. The morpheme *run-* in the word *runs* has the following meanings: 1) move with quick steps; 2) flow; 3) become (*to run dry*); 4) manage (*to run a business*); 5) cause to move (*run a car*), and others. The meanings of the *–s* morpheme are as follows: 1) present tense; 2) indicative mood; 3) third person 4) singular number; 5) non-continuous aspect, and others.

All the lexical meanings of the word *runs*, inherent in the morpheme *run-*, unite this word with *to run, running, will run, has run, is running, was running*, etc. into one group called a **lexeme**.

All the grammatical meanings of the word *runs*, inherent in the morpheme *–s*, unite this word with *walks, stands, sleeps, skates, lives*, etc. into a group called a **grammeme**.

In the word *girl* the meanings of lexeme (*girl, girl's, girls, girls'*) are: female, child, daughter, maid servant, etc.; the meanings of grammeme are: common case, singular number (*girl*), possessive case, singular (*girl's*), common case, plural (*girls*), possessive case, plural (*girls'*).

As we see, each word of a lexeme represents a certain grammeme, and each word of a grammeme represents a certain lexeme. The set of grammemes represented by all the words of a lexeme is its **paradigm (**e.g. the paradigm of the lexeme *want, wants, wanted, shall want*, etc).

Supposing we want to single out the meaning of 'non-continuous aspect' in the word *runs*. We have to find another word which has all the meanings of the word *runs* but that of 'non-continuous aspect'. The only word that meets these requirements is the analytical word *is running*. *Run* and *is running* belong to the same lexeme, and their lexical meanings are identical. As to the grammatical meanings the two words do not differ in tense (present), number (sing), person (third), mood (indicative), etc. They differ only in aspect (non-continuous and continuous).

When opposed, the two words, *runs – is running*, form a peculiar language unit. All their meanings but those of aspect are the same. Only the two **particular** meanings of 'non-continuous' and 'continuous' aspect united by the general meaning of 'aspect' are revealed in this opposition or **opposeme**. The general meaning of this opposeme is in the two particular meanings of the **opposite members (opposites)**.

Each opposeme represents the category. All the aspect opposemes make up a system which is called **the category of aspect**. The category of tense is the system of tense opposemes in a given language. A tense opposeme in English consists not of two but of three members (*writes –wrote – will write; is writing – was writing – will be writing*) because the general meaning of 'tense' manifests itself in three particular meanings: 'present', 'past' and 'future'. In general, an opposeme of any grammatical category consists of as many members (or opposites) as there are particular manifestations of the general meaning. Thus, a morphological opposeme is a minimum set of words revealing (by the difference in their forms) the particular manifestations of some general grammatical meaning. Any morphological category is the system of such

opposemes whose members differ in form to express the particular manifestations of the general meaning of the category.

The structure of a lexeme is defined by the opposeme it contains. The lexeme represented by the word *long*, for instance, contains the opposeme of but one category, the 'degrees of comparison'. Its structure, therefore, is of one dimension (*long – longer – the longest*). The lexeme represented by the word *boy* contains opposemes of two categories, 'number' and 'case'. As a result, its structure is a two-dimension one (*boy-boys; boy's-boys'*).

Each category is represented here by two opposemes. In English there are no lexemes of three-dimension structure. The structure of an English verb lexeme contains opposemes of seven categories (number, mood, person, tense, aspect, voice, time correlation).

All the words of a lexeme, both synthetic and analytical, are united by the same lexical meaning.

Historically the analytical words have developed from combinations of two (or more) words. But the lexical meaning of only one word has been preserved, so that the combination functions as a word of one lexeme.

Analytical words are closely connected with synthetic ones. Analytical words comprise synthetic words. Thus, the analytical form *has prepared* consists of two synthetic forms: *has* and *prepared*.

The means employed in English to distinguish the words of a lexeme are similar to those used to distinguish the stems of different lexemes. The chief of them are: affixation, sound interchange and suppletivity.

The word *boy* differs from the word *boys* in having the suffix *–s*, added to the stem of the lexeme. The stems *speak-* and *speaker-* are also related by affixation.

The words *foot* and *feet* are related by sound interchange, i.e. vowel interchange. The stems *full- and fill-* are also related by vowel interchange. The stems *speech- and speak-* are related by consonant interchange. Different stems may contain the same root (*compose, dispose, oppose, propose*). But it is unusual for words of the same lexeme to have different roots (*I – me, go – went, good – better, am - is*). This phenomenon is called **suppletivity**. Words derived from different roots may be recognized as suppletive: 1) when they are identical as to their lexical meaning; 2) when they mutually complement one another, having no parallel opposemes.

We have already spoken about lexico-grammatical morphemes and their functions as stem-building elements. The words of a lexeme are united not only by a lexical morpheme functioning as its root, but also by its lexico-grammatical morphemes functioning as its stem-building elements (*realize, realizes, realized, will realize, has realized, is realized*). In short, it is the stem that unites words into a lexeme. So, *a lexeme is a group of words united by the same lexical and lexico-grammatical meanings*. Though the words person, personal, personality, personify, personification have the same lexical morpheme, they belong to different lexemes owing to their lexico-grammatical morphemes.

Lexico-grammatical morphemes unite lexemes into groups possessing common lexico-grammatical properties. Comp.:

1	2	3	4
teach	teacher	real	realize
work	worker	national	nationalize
lead	leader	natural	naturalize
write	writer	individual	individualize

The words in column 1 and column 2 belong to different classes of lexemes. The same is true of the words of the last two columns. These classes differ not only on their lexico-grammatical meanings (morphemes), but in some grammatical properties as well: different opposemes, paradigms, etc. such classes of lexemes are called **parts of speech**. Parts of speech are the largest word-classes that may contain endless numbers of word-groups such as lexemes or grammemes.

It is certainly easier to survey a limited number of parts of speech than an ocean of lexemes and grammemes. Therefore it has been a long-standing tradition to study the properties of words within the framework of parts of speech.

Parts of speech

What really lies at the bottom of the division of lexemes into parts of speech is the connection within the world of material reality. The bulk of the class denoting 'substances' is made up of words denoting material objects (*table, window, milk*, etc.); the kernel of the class of lexemes naming 'processes' is constituted by lexemes denoting concrete actions (*writing, reading, speaking*, etc.).

The lexemes of a part of speech are first of all united by their content, i.e. by their meaning.

The lexemes of a part of speech are first of all united by their content, i.e. by their meaning. This general meaning of a part of speech cannot be grammatical because the members of one lexeme have different grammatical meanings. Cf. boy's (singular number, possessive case), boys (plural number, common case).

The general meaning of a part of speech cannot be lexical either. It is always an abstraction from the lexical meanings of its constituent lexemes.

Thus the general meaning of a part of speech is neither lexical nor grammatical, but it is connected with both, and we call it **lexico-grammatical**.

Lexemes united by the general lexico-grammatical meaning of "substance", are called **nouns**. Those having the general lexico-grammatical meaning of "action" are called **verbs**.

The general lexico-grammatical meaning is the intrinsic property of a part of speech. Lexico-grammatical morphemes are one of these properties. The stems of noun

lexemes often include the morphemes –er, -ist, -ness, -ship, -ment. The stems of verb lexemes include the morphemes –ize, -ify, be-, en-, -en. Adjective stems often have the suffixes –ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive. Thus, the presence of a certain lexico-grammatical morpheme in the stem of a lexeme often stamps it as belonging to a definite part of speech. Many of these morphemes are regularly used to form lexemes of one class from those of another class (suffix –*ness* often forms noun stems from adjective stems, eg. *dark - darkness*).

Other stem-building elements are of comparatively little significance as distinctive features of parts of speech. For example, vowel interchange is not systematic (*full – fill, food – feed, blood - bleed*) and is also found within a lexeme (*foot -feet*).

A part of speech is characterized by its grammatical categories manifested in the opposemes and paradigms of its lexemes. Nouns have the categories of number and case. Verbs possess the categories of tense, voice, mood, etc. Adjectives have the category of the degrees of comparison. That is why the paradigms of lexemes belonging to different parts of speech are different. The paradigm of a verb is long: *write, writes, wrote, shall write, will write, am writing, is writing, was writing, were writing*, etc. the paradigm of a noun lexeme is much shorter: *sister, sister's, sisters, sisters'*. The paradigm of an adjective lexeme is still shorter: *cold, colder, coldest*. The paradigm of an adverb like *always* is the shortest as the lexeme consists of one word.

Thus, the paradigm of a lexeme shows to what part of speech the lexeme belongs.

Not all the lexemes of a part of speech have the same paradigms. Some noun lexemes have only one opposeme – that of number (*book - books*). Some lexemes are outside both categories: they have neither number noк case (*information, milk*).

Another important feature of a part of speech is its combinability, i.e. the ability to form certain combinations of words. We distinguish lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical combinability. The combinability of a word, its connections in speech help to show to what part of speech it belongs. So, a characteristic feature of articles is their right-hand combinability with nouns.

Parts of speech are characterized also by their function in the sentence. A noun is mostly used as a subject or an object, a verb usually functions as a predicate, an adjective – as an attribute, etc.

Thus, **a part of speech is a class of lexemes characterized by 1) its lexico-grammatical meaning, 2) its lexico-grammatical morphemes (stem-building elements), 3) its grammatical categories or its paradigm, 4) its combinability and 5) its functions in a sentence.**

In accordance with the principles described above it is possible to distinguish the following parts of speech in English:
1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs

6. Adverbs
7. Modal words
8. Prepositions
9. Conjunctions
10. Particles
11. Interjections
12. Articles.

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of the three criteria: "semantic", "formal", and "functional". The **semantic** criterion presupposes the evaluation of the generalized meaning, which is characteristic of all the subsets of words constituting a given part of speech. This meaning is understood as the "categorical meaning of the part of speech". The **formal** criterion provides for the exposition of the specific inflexional and derivational (word-building) features of all the lexemic subsets of a part of speech. The **functional** criterion concerns the syntactic role of words in the sentence typical of a part of speech. The three factors of categorical characterization of words are referred to as, respectively, "meaning", "form", and "function".

In accord with the described criteria, words are divided into **notional** and **functional** (**semi-notional**), which reflects their division in the earlier grammatical tradition into changeable and unchangeable.

To the notional parts of speech of the English language belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb.

The features of the noun within the triad "meaning – form - function" are, correspondingly the following: 1) the categorial meaning of substance ("thingness"); 2) the changeable forms of number and case; 3) the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, substantival predicative); prepositional connections; modification by an adjective.

The features of the adjective: 1) the categorial meaning of property (qualitative and relative); 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison (for qualitative adjectives); the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative).

The features of the numeral: 1) the categorical meaning of number (cardinal and ordinal); 2) the narrow set of simple numerals; the specific forms of composition for compound numerals; the specific suffixal forms of derivation for ordinal numerals; 3) the functions of numerical attribute and numerical substantive.

The features of the pronoun: 1) the categorical meaning of indication (deixis); 2) the narrow set of various status with the corresponding formal properties of categorical changeability and word-building; 3) the substantival and adjectival functions for different sets.

The features of the verb: 1) the categorical meaning of process; 2) the forms of the verbal categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood; the opposition of the finite and non-finite forms; 3) the function of the finite predicate for the finite verb; the mixes verbal – other than verbal functions for the non-finite verb.

The features of the adverb: 1) the categorical meaning of the secondary property, i.e. the property of process or another property; 2) the forms of the degrees of comparison for qualitative adverbs; the specific suffixal forms of derivation; 3) the functions of various adverbial modifiers.

Contrasted against the notional parts of speech are words of incomplete nominative meaning and non-self-dependent, mediatory functions in the sentence. These are functional parts of speech.

To the basic functional series of words in English belong the article, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal word, the interjection. According to V.L. Kaushanskaya the interjection is a notional part of speech.

The *article* expresses the specific the specific limitation of the substantive functions.

The *preposition* expresses the dependencies and interdependencies of substantive referents.

The *conjunction* expresses connections of phenomena.

The *particle* unites the functional words of specifying and limiting meaning. To this series, alongside of other specifying words, refer verbal postpositions as functional modifiers of verbs, etc.

The *modal word*, expresses the attitude of the speaker to the reflected situation and its parts. Here belong the functional words of probability (*probably, perhaps*, etc), of qualitative evaluation (*fortunately, unfortunately, luckily*, etc.), and also of affirmation and negation.

The *interjection* is a signal of emotions.

Each part of speech is further subdivided into subseries in accord with various particular semantico-functional and formal features of the constituent words.

Thus, nouns are "subcategorized" into proper and common, animate and inanimate, countable and uncountable, abstract and concrete, etc.

Verbs are subcategorized into fully predicative and partially predicative (*walk, shine – can, may, be*), transitive and intransitive (*take, put – live, rain*), actional and statal (*write, ride – exist, sleep*), factive, and evaluative (*build, tremble, begin – consider, desire, hate*), etc.

Adjectives are subcategorized into qualitative and relative (*long, red, noble – wooden, rural, daily*), of constant feature and temporary feature (*healthy, joyful, sickly – well, ill, glad*), factive and evaluative (*tall, heavy, native – kind, brave, wise*), etc.

The adverb, the numeral, the pronoun are also subject to the corresponding subcategorizations.

We have drawn a general outline of the division of the lexicon into part of speech classes developed by modern linguists on the lines of traditional morphology. The distribution of words between different parts of speech may to a certain extent differ with different authors. Indeed, considering the part of speech classification on its merits, one must clearly realize that what is above all important about it is the fundamental principles of word-class identification, and not occasional enlargements or diminutions

of the established groups. The very idea of subcategorization as the obligatory second stage of the undertaken classification testifies to the objective nature of this kind of analysis.

The syntactico-distributional classification of words is based on the study of their combinability by means of substitution testing. The testing results in developing the standard model of four main "positions" of notional words in the English sentence: those of the noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), adverb (D). Prepositions are included into the corresponding positional classes as their substitutes. Words standing outside the "positions" in the sentence are treated as function words of various syntactic values.

Here is how Ch. Fries presents his scheme of English word classes.

The words are tested on the three typical sentences and used as substitution test-frames:

Frame A: The concert was good (always).
Frame B: The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly).
Frame C: The team went there.

As a result of successive substitution tests on the "frames" the following general structural meanings of the frames are established:

Frame A: "thing and its quality at a given time";

Class 1	**Class 2**	**Class 3**	**Class 4**
The concert	was	good	always
food	*is*	*foreign*	*there*
coffee	*seems*	*large, etc.*	*here, etc.*
taste, etc.	*felt, etc.*		

Frame B: "actor – action – thing acted upon";
The *clerk*   remembered the *tax*
  husband   *food*
  woman   *coffee*
Frame C: "actor – action – direction of the action";
The *team*   went there
  husband
  woman

Repeated interchanges in the substitutions of the primarily identified notional words indifferent collocations determine their morphological characteristics, i.e. characteristics referring them to various subclasses of the identified lexemic classes.

Functional words are exposed in the process of testing as being unable to fill in the positions of the frames without destroying their structural meaning. These words form limited groups (totaling 154 units), which can be distributed among the three main sets. The words of the first set are used as specifiers of notional words. Here belong determiners of nouns, modal verbs, functional modifiers of adjectives and adverbs. The words of the second set determine the relations of notional words to one another. Here belong prepositions and conjunctions. The words of the third set refer to the sentence as

a whole. Such are question-words (*what, how*, etc.), inducement-words (*please, let's*, etc.), words of affirmation and negation, sentence introducers (*it, there*) and others.

Comparing the syntactico-distributional classification of words with the traditional part of speech division of words, one cannot but see the similarity of the general schemes of the two: the opposition of notional and functional words, the interpretation of functional words as syntactic mediators. However there are some essential features of difference.

The Noun

As follows from our previous discussion of the parts of speech in English, the noun may be defined as a part of speech characterized by the following features:
1. The lexico-grammatical 'meaning' of "substance" or "thingness".
2. The categories of number and case
3. Typical stem-building morphemes, as in *Marx-ist, work-er, friend-ship, move-ment*, etc.
4. Left-hand connections with articles, prepositions, adjectives, possessive pronouns, other nouns, etc.
5. The functions of subject, complement and other parts of the sentence.

Stem-structure is not a reliable criterion for distinguishing parts of speech. Noun lexemes have stems of various types. Still, composite stems are less typical of nouns than of other parts of speech (Cf. *onlooker, outlook, a look-in, a look-out*, etc.). Compound stems, on the contrary, are more typical of nouns than of any other parts of speech (*greyhound, postmark, son-in-law, passer-by*).

Many nouns are related by conversation with lexemes belonging to other parts of speech:

Adj.   *light, native, Russian*
Verbs   *love, show, picture*
Adverbs *home, south, back.*

The noun is the most numerous lexico-grammatical class of lexemes. Nouns are divided into countables and uncountables with regard to the category of number and into declinables and indecliables with regard to the category of case.

According to the meaning nouns are divided into: a) common nouns and b) proper nouns. **Common** nouns are the names applied to any individual of a class of living beings or things (*a man, a book*), materials (*snow, iron*) or abstract notions (*love, friendship*). Proper nouns are names given to individuals of a class to distinguish them from other individuals of the same class (*John, the Thames, Moscow*). Common nouns are subdivided into: **concrete** (*book, friend*) and **abstract (***smile, pride, darkness***)** nouns.

To the class of common nouns belong also **collective** nouns which denote a number of things collected together so that they may be regarded as a single object.

The group of collective nouns is grammatically not homogeneous. Some collective nouns are countables, i.e. they have both numbers (*government, family*, etc), while others are not (*foliage, peasantry*, etc.).

Material nouns are a peculiar group of uncountables (*water, snow, steel*, etc.).

Proper nouns are another, even more peculiar, group of uncountables (though they sometimes form number opposemes. *Brown – the Browns*).

The combinability of the noun is closely connected with its lexico-grammatical meaning. Denoting substances, nouns are naturally associated with words describing the qualities of substances (adjectives), their number and order (numerals), their actions (verbs), relations (prepositions), etc.

The combinability of nouns is variable. They have left-hand connections with articles (*a day, the ink*), some pronouns (my friend, that colour), most adjectives (*good relations, young boy*), numerals (*two visitors, page ten*). With prepositions nouns have both left-hand and right-hand connections (*to school, at the thought of…*), but only left-hand connections are a characteristic feature of the noun, since most parts of speech may have right-hand connection with prepositions (*remind of…, capable of…, the first of…, west of…*). With verbs nouns can form both right-hand and left-hand connections. (*John and Peter*).

Linguists are at issue concerning such language units as *stone wall, speech sound*, etc. The essence of the problem is whether they are compound words (like *motor-car*) or word-combinations, in the latter case whether the adjunct-word is a noun or an adjective. We consider these formations to be noun word-combinations with noun adjunct.

A noun may be used in the function of almost any part of the sentence, though its most typical functions are those of the subject and the object.

The Category of Number

The category of number is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the noun to the singular form of the noun. The productive formal mark being the suffix –*(e)s* of the plural correlates with the absence of the number suffix in the singular form of the noun.

The other, non-productive ways of expressing the number opposition are vowel interchange in several relict forms (*man – men, woman – women, tooth – teeth*, etc.), the archaic suffix –*(e)n* supported by phonemic interchange in a couple of other relict forms (*ox – oxen, child – children, cow – kine, brother – brethren*), the correlation of individual singular and plural suffixes in a limited number of borrowed nouns (*formula – formulae, phenomenon – phenomena*, etc.). In some cases the plural form of the noun is homonymous with the singular form (*sheep, deer, fish*, etc.).

As already mentioned, with regard to the category of number English nouns fall into two subclasses: countables and uncountables. The former have number opposites,

the latter have not. Uncountable nouns are again subdivided into those having no plural opposites (singularia tantum – *milk, geometry, snow*) and those having no singular opposites (pluralia tantum – *clothes, goods*).

Those nouns which have no number opposites are outside the grammatical category of number. But on the analogy of the bulk of English nouns they acquire oblique meanings of number. Therefore singularia tantum are often treated as singulars and pluralia tantum as plurals.

Singularia tantum usually include nouns of certain lexical meanings. They are mostly material, abstract and collective nouns, such *as sugar, gold, butter, constancy, selfishness, humanity, peasantry*.

Variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses of a part of speech. The words *copper, tin, hair* as material nouns are usually singularia tantum, but when they denote concrete objects, they become countables and get plural opposites: *a copper – coppers, a tin – tins, a hair – hairs*.

Similarly when the nouns *wine, steel, salt* denote some sort or variety of the substance, they become countables.

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed of nouns denoting objects consisting of two or more parts (*scissors, trousers*). Here also belong some nouns with a distinct collective or material meaning (*clothes, sweets*). The –*s* suffix does not function as a grammatical morpheme in these words, it develops into an inseparable part of the stem.

Nouns like *police, militia, cattle, poultry* are pluralia tantum, judging by their combinability, though not by form.

People in the meaning of 'народ' is a countable noun. In the meaning of 'люди' it belongs to the pluralia tantum.

Family in the sense of "a group of people who are related" is a countable noun. In the meaning of "individual members of this group" it belongs to the pluralia tantum.

The Category of Case

The category of case of nouns is the system of opposemes showing the relations of the noun to other words in speech. Case relations reflect the relations of the substances the nouns name to other substances, actions, states, etc. in the world of reality.

This category is expressed in English by the opposition of the form in – *'s*, usually called the "possessive" case, or more traditionally, the "genitive" case, to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the "common" case (*a student – a student's*). The genitive of plural nouns is expressed by the apostrophe (*the boys'*).

Though case is a morphological category it has a distinct syntactical significance. The common case grammemes fulfil a number of syntactical functions not typical of possessive case grammemes, among them the functions of subject and object: the possessive case noun is for the most part employed as an attribute.

An English noun lexeme contains two case opposemes at most (*man – man's, men – men's*). Some lexemes have but one opposeme (*England – England's, cattle – cattle's*). Many lexemes have no case opposemes at all (*book, news*).

As already mentioned, with regard to the category of case English nouns fall under two lexico-grammatical subclasses: declinables, having case opposites, and indeclinables, having no case opposites.

The subclass of declinables is comparatively limited, including mostly nouns denoting living beings, also time and distance. Indeclinables like *book, iron, care* have only the potential meaning of the common case.

The problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on the different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure.

Typical of prescriptive, classical scientific and even structural grammar is the definition of case as an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word, or the change of form by which this relation is indicated, i.e. both a logical and a morphological conception of case. Sweet's attitude towards the problem of case reflects these views and his indecision as to the number of cases in English – five or two. The term 'common case' seems to have been introduced by Sweet, for his predecessors, the authors of school grammars, in their three-case paradigm distinguish "the nominative" and "the objective" cases of nouns.

So, H. Whitehall distinguishes the nominative case, the objective case, and the possessive case, which is thought of as a method of transforming a noun into a modifier. In accord with Sweet's point of view, English has only one inflected case, the genitive (*man's, men's*), the uninflected base constituting the common case (*man, men*) which is equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of such a language as Latin. Curme's point of view is that an English noun has four cases: Nominative, Accusative, Dative, Genitive.

This three-case system based on the analogy of the case-forms of pronouns remained extremely popular in the grammars of the 20-th century, including some structural grammars, though in Nesfield's grammar the five-case system (Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative) superseded the three-case system.

The excerpt from Curme's grammar represents the views of those authors of scientific grammars who support the four-case system.

Thus, four special views advanced at different times by different scholars should be considered as successive stages in the analysis of this problem.

1. The first view may be called the "theory of positional cases". In accord with the theory of positional cases the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases by virtue of the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence. Thus the English noun would distinguish, besides the inflexional genitive case, also the non-inflexional, i.e. purely positional cases: nominative, vocative, dative, and accusative. E.g. Nominative case (subject to a verb): *Rain* falls. The vocative case

(address): are you coming, my *friend*? The dative case (indirect object to a verb): I gave *John* a penny. The accusative case (direct object): The man killed a *rat*.

The fallacy of the positional case theory is that it substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological features of the word class, since the case form is the variable morphological form of the noun. In reality, the case forms as such serve as means of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence, and not vice versa.

2. The second view may be called the "theory of prepositional cases". In accord with the prepositional theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions should be understood as morphological cases.

Since both cases and prepositions show 'relations of substances', some linguists speak of analytical cases in Modern English. *To the student* is said to be an analytical dative case. *Of the student* is understood as an analytical genitive case, *by the student* as an analytical instrumental case, etc. these prepositions, according to G. Curme, are "inflexional prepositions".

This theory seems to be inconvincing as there is much subjectivity in the choice of prepositions. Grammarians usually point out those prepositions whose meanings approximate to the meanings of some cases in other languages or in Old English. But the analogy with other languages or with an older stage of the same language does not prove the existence of a given category in a modern language.

Therefore units like *to the student, of the student*, etc. should be considered to be not analytical cases but combinations of nouns in the common case with prepositions.

3. The third view of the English noun case called the "limited case theory" recognizes a limited inflexional system of two cases in English, one of them featured and the other one unfeatured. This theory is at present most broadly accepted among linguists both in the country and abroad. It was formulated by such scholars as H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, and has since developed by the Soviet scholars A.S. Smirnitsky, L.S. Barkhudarov and others.

In accord with the limited case theory in the system of the English noun there are two cases: the possessive or genitive form as the strong (featured) member of the categorical opposition and the common or "non-genitive" form as the weak (unfeatured) member of the categorical opposition.

4. The fourth view of the problem of the English noun case may be called the "theory of the possessive postposition" ("postpositional theory"). This view is advanced by G.N. Vorontsova. In accord with this theory the English noun has completely lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the nounal cases, including the genitive case, are considered as extinct, and the lingual unit named "genitive case" by force of tradition, would be in reality a combination of a noun with a postposition. According to the view advanced by A.M. Mukhin, the 's-form is not a case-form but a special "possessive" form of the noun, expressing the category of possession.

The Category of gender

In modern English there is no grammatical gender. The noun does not possess any special gender forms; neither does the accompanying adjective, pronoun or article indicate any gender agreement with the head-noun: *a little boy, a little girl, a little room*.

What is still traditionally called gender in English is a division of nouns into three classes according to their lexical meaning: masculine (referred to as he) – names of male beings; feminine (referred to as she) – names of female beings; neuter (referred to as it) – names of lifeless things and abstract notions:

Masculine: *father, boy, brother*.
Feminine: *mother, girl, sister*.
Neuter: *table, lamp, kindness, friendship*.

Thus we see that gender in English is expressed lexically by means of different words: *father, mother, book*.

There is practically only one gender-forming suffix in English, the suffix *–ess*, expressing feminine gender (*host – hostess, heir – heiress*). There are nouns which may be applied to both males and females: *teacher, stranger, parent, neighbour*.

When it is desirable to restrict those nouns to one sex, a word is added denoting the sex and thus forming a compound: *girl-friend, boy-friend, man-servant, maid-servant, woman-clerk, he-wolf, she-wolf, tom-cat*.

Sometimes inanimate things and abstract notions are personified and the nouns denoting them are referred to as belonging to the masculine or feminine gender. The nouns *moon* and *earth* are referred to as feminine, *sun* as masculine. The names of vessels: *ship, boat, steamer* are feminine. The nouns *carriage, coach, car* are sometimes made feminine by those who work on them. Some personified abstract noun are masculine (*anger, death, fear, war*), some feminine (*spring, peace, kindness, dawn*).

The Adjective

The adjective expresses the categorical semantics of property of a substance. Adjectives are a part of speech characterized by the following typical features:

1. The lexico-grammatical meaning of 'attributes (of substances)'. By 'attributes' we mean different properties of substances, such as their size (*large, small*), colour (*red, blue*), position in space (*upper, inner*), material (*wooden, golden*), physic state of persons (*happy, sad*), etc.

2. The morphological category of the degrees of comparison.

3. The characteristic combinability with nouns (*a beautiful girl*), link-verbs (*is clever*), modifying adverbs, i.e. those of degree (*very clever*), the prop-substitute *one* (*the grey one*).

4. The stem-building affixes *–ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ic, -some, un-, pre-, in-,* etc.

5. Its functions of an attribute and a predicative.

In accordance with their stem-structure adjectives are divided into:

1. Simple, containing only the root (e.g. *good, big, long*);

2. Derivative, containing affixes or other stem-building elements (e.g. *beautiful, sunless, childish, troublesome*);

3. Compound, containing two or more roots (*ice-cold, life-long, breast-high, inborn*);

4. Composite, containing free lexico-grammatical morphemes or otherwise having the form of a combination of words (*fond of, angry with, thankful to, happy about*).

According to their meaning and grammatical characteristics, adjectives are divided into two subclasses: **qualitative** and **relative**.

Qualitative adjectives denote qualities of size, shape, colour, etc., which an object may possess in various degrees. Therefore qualitative adjectives have degrees of comparison.

Relative adjectives express qualities which characterize an object through its relation to another object: *woolen gloves* (*gloves made of wool*), *wooden houses* (*houses made of wood*), *Siberian wheat* (*wheat from Siberia*). Relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison. In English the number of relative adjectives is limited. Many relative adjectives are converted from nouns (*silk, gold, cotton*).

There is no hard and fast line of demarcation between qualitative and relative adjectives; a relative adjective may acquire the meaning of a qualitative one: *a silver watch* (relative) – *a silver stream* (qualitative); *an iron bridge* (relative) – *an iron will* (qualitative). The relative adjectives *gold, flax, wax, silk* acquire qualitative meaning when suffix *–en* is added: *gold chain – golden hair*.

The category of state

Among the words signifying properties of a nounal referent there is a lexemic set which claims to be recognized as a separate pert of speech, i.e. as a class of words different from the adjectives in its class-forming features. These are words built up by the prefix a- and denoting different states, mostly of temporary duration: e.g. *afraid, agog, adrift, ablaze*. In traditional grammar these words were considered under the heading of "predicative adjectives", since they are used in the sentence in the function of a predicative. The words of this class are associated almost exclusively with link-verbs (*to be alive, to fall asleep*).

On the analogy o9f the Russian "category of state", the English qualifying *a*-words of the corresponding meanings were subjected to a lexico-grammatical analysis and given the part-of-speech heading "category of state". This analysis was first conducted by B.A. Ilyish. The term "words of the category of state", being rather was later changed into "stative words" or "statives".

The part-of-speech interpretation of the statives is not shared by all linguists working in the domain of English, and has found both its proponents and opponents.

The most consistent exposition of the part-of-speech interpretation of statives has been given by B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya. Their theses can be summarized as follows.

First, the statives, called by the quoted authors "adlinks", are opposed to adjectives on a purely semantic basis, since adjectives denote "qualities", and statives-adlinks denote "states".

Second, as different from adjectives, statives-adlinks are characterized by the specific prefix *a-*. Third, they do not posses the category of the degrees of comparison. Fourth, the combinability of statives-adlinks is different from that of adjectives (they are not used in the attributive function).

Still, a closer consideration of the properties of the analyzed lexemic set shows that, on the whole, the said reasons can hardly prove the idea of establishing the English statives as a separate part of speech

The first scholar who undertook re-consideration of the lexemic status of English statives was L.S. Barkhudarov, and in our estimation of them we essentially follow his principles. The undertaken semantic and functional analysis shows that statives, though forming a unified set of words, do not constitute a separate lexemic class existing in language. Rather it should be looked upon as a subclass within the general class of adjectives. It means that the general subcategorization of the class of adjectives should be effected on the two levels: on the upper level the class will be divided into the subclass of stative adjectives and common adjectives; on the lower level the common adjectives fall into qualitative and relative.

The category of adjectival comparison

In Modern English adjectives have no inflexions of case, number or gender.
The only change of form that adjectives undergo is for degrees of comparison. In Old English, adjectives were inflected for case, number and gender, agreeing with the noun they modified. But in the course of time these inflexions were leveled to –e and finally discarded (1400-1500).

The category of adjectival comparison expresses the quantitative characteristics of the quality of a nounal referent. The category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms known under the heading of degrees of comparison; the basic form (positive degree), having no features of comparison; the comparative degree form, having the feature of restricted superiority (which limits the comparison to two elements only); the superlative degree form, having the feature of unrestricted superiority.

Some linguists approach the number of the degrees of comparison as problematic on the grounds that the basic form of the adjective does not express any comparison by itself and therefore should be excluded from the category, and the category would be reduced to two members only, i.e. the comparative and superlative degrees.

The synthetic forms of comparison in –*er* and –*est* coexist with the analytical forms of comparison effected by the auxiliaries *more* and *most.* If the stem is monosyllabic, or disyllabic the comparative and superlative degrees are built up synthetically by adding the suffixes –*er* and –*est* respectively (*long – longer –longest*). In all other cases the comparative and superlative degrees are formed analytically with the help of the word-morphemes *more* and *most* (*beautiful – more beautiful – most beautiful*).

Suppletive opposemes are few in number but of very frequent occurrence (*good – better – best; bad – worse – worst; many (much) – more – most, little – less – least*).

Some authors treat the combination of more/most with the basic form of the adjective not as analytical forms, but as free syntactical combinations of adverbs and adjectives. One of their arguments is that the *more/most*-combinations are semantically analogous to combinations of *less/least* with the adjective which are syntactic combinations of notional words.

The similarity, however, is superficial. In order to prove that *more beautiful* is an analytical form of the comparative degree; we have to prove that *more* is a grammatical word-morpheme identical with the morpheme *–er* in spite of the difference in form.

1. *More* and *–er* are identical as to their meaning of "a higher degree". 2. Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degrees of comparison, yet those adjectives which have comparative opposites with the suffix *–er* have usually no parallel opposites with *more* and vice versa.

This is not the case with *less*. *Less* and *–er* have opposite meanings. The distribution is not complementary. One and the same lexical morpheme regularly attaches both *less* and *–er*: *prettier – less pretty*. These facts show that *more* in the *more*-combination is a grammatical word-morpheme identical with the morpheme *–er*. Hence the *more*-combination, unlike the *less*-combination, is an analytical form. *Less* is an ordinary word with the lexical meaning "to a smaller extent" and *less beautiful* is a combination of words.

The same is true with regard to (*the*) *most*-combination and (*the*) *least*-combination. There seems to be some difference between the synthetic superlative and the analytical one. In the expression *a most interesting theory* the indefinite article is used whereas *a prettiest child* is impossible.

One must not forget that *more* and *most* are not only word-morphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words. Moreover, they are polysemantic and polyfunctional words. One of the meanings of *most* is "very, exceedingly". It is in this meaning that the word *must* is used in the expression *a most interesting theory*.

The notional word *more* in the meaning "to a greater extent" can also be used to modify adjectives (*It's more grey than brown*). *More grey* is here a combination of words, but not the comparative opposite of *grey*.

A.I. Smirnitsky, following O. Jespersen, thinks that there are two forms of comparison only: the positive degree and the relative degree which exists in two varieties – the comparative degree and the superlative degree.

Substantivized Adjectives

In all the Indo-European languages adjectives can be substantivized, i.e. converted into nouns. In English adjectives display the ability to be easily substantivized by conversion, i.e. by zero-derivation (*a relative, the poor, the rich, the abstract*). Like nouns, the words are used in the article form; like nouns they express the category of number; but their article and number forms are rigid, being categorically unchangeable.

In Modern English substantivized adjectives are:

1) Either wholly substantivized, i.e. they acquire all the characteristics of nouns; they have plural and possessive case inflexions and may be associated with the definite and indefinite articles (*a native, two natives, the native's hut*). A number of adjectives have been wholly substantivized: *a relative, a criminal, a savage, a liberal, a conservative, a European, a weekly, a monthly,* etc.

To the same group belong the following substantivized adjectives denoting: a) nationality (*a Russian, an American, a German)*; b) the names of languages (*Russian, English)*; c) names of colour (*a black, a white, the grey)*. When used in general sense, names of colour are treated as uncountables; when denoting shades of colour, they are treated as countables and may be used with the indefinite article and in the plural).

2) Or partially substantivized, i.e. they take only the definite article, but are neither inflected for the plural, nor can they be used in the possessive case (*the young, the old, the future*). Partially substantivized adjectives denote: a) all the persons possessing the quality mentioned by the adjective as a group, but not separate individuals (*the young, the deaf, the foolish, the English*); b) abstract notions (*the useful, the beautiful, the picturesque*).

The verb

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. A.I. Smirnitsky stresses the intricate nature of the English verb, the system of which includes some other parts of speech in the shape of the non-finite verbs or verbids (the infinitive, the gerund, the participle).

As a matter of fact, the verb is a system of systems. The main division inside the verb is that between the **finite** verbs (finites) and the **non-finite** verbs (verbids**)**.

The general categorical meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically, i.e. developing in time. As a part of speech the verb is characterized by the following properties:

1. Its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'action, process'.

2.Certain typical stem-building elements, such as the suffixes *–ize, -en, -ify,* the prefixes *re-, under-, over-, out-, super-, sub-, mis-, un-,* the lexico-grammatical word-morphemes *up, in, off, down, out,* etc.

3. Its grammatical categories; out of the eight categories of the verb system three are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well. Two of them – voice (*to ask – to be asked*) and order, or time correlation (*to ask – to have asked*) – are found in all the verbids, and the third – aspect – in the infinitive.

4. Its characteristic combinability; a verb can be associated with nouns expressing both the doer (agent) of the action (its subject) and, in cases of the objective verb, the recipient of the action (its object); it is regularly modified by adverbs.

5. Its syntactical function of the predicate (the finites only). The verbids perform different functions according to its intermediary nature (those of the syntactic subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute), but their non-processual functions are always actualized in close combination with their processual semantic features.

In accordance with their stem-structure verbs fall into the following groups:

a) Simple verbs (*write, know, love*);

b) Derived verbs (*organize, rewrite, purify, underestimate*). Among the stem-building affixes of the verbs prefixes are of greater importance than suffixes (*re-, under-, over-, out-, super-, sub-, mis-, un-*). The most productive way of forming verb lexemes is conversion (a book – to book). Sound-and stress-interchange are unproductive (*food – feed, blood – bleed, ˈimport – to imˈport, ˈ transport – to transˈport*)

c) Compound verbs consisting of two stems, as in (*to*) *broadcast*, (*to*) *whitewash*, (*to*) *blindfold*. This way of forming verbs is of low productivity.

d) Composite verbs – made up of a verb with a lexico-grammatical word-morpheme attached to it, as in *give up, take off, put on*. This way of forming verbs is productive.

We shall now consider some general classifications of verbs based on their formal, semantical and functional properties, i.e. the division of verbs into standard and non-standard, notional and semi-notional, subjective and objective, terminative and non-terminative.

1. Morphologically all the English verbs fall into two classes: **standard**, or regular, which belong to overwhelming majority, and **non-standard**, or irregular, which count some two hundred verbs. The 'past' and 'participle II' of standard verbs are formed by affixation, the suffix being –*ed*. Non-standard verbs form the 'past' and 'participle II' differently: some of them use both vowel and consonant change and affixation (*write, eat, teach, buy,* etc.), others do not (*cut, put, set*). Some make use of suppletivity (*go, be,* etc.).

As we see, the difference between the standard and the non-standard verbs is purely formal. We should therefore call this classification **formal** rather than **morphological** as the tradition goes.

2. Semantically verbs divide into **notional** and **semi-notional**. Some linguists speak of a third group, auxiliary verbs, completely devoid of lexical meaning (***has written***).

The majority of English verbs are notional, i.e. possessing full lexical meaning. Notional verbs can make sentences alone (*Come*!); their combinability is variable. Semi-notional verbs have very general, "faded" lexical meanings, as in *be, have, become, seem, can, may, must,* etc. Semi-notional verbs cannot make sentences alone; their combinability is bilateral as they serve to connect words in speech. They are

comparatively few in number, but of very frequent occurrence, and include two peculiar groups: **link-verbs** and **modal verbs**.

A link-verb usually connects two words. In this respect it resembles the combinability of prepositions and conjunctions. Link-verbs form combinations with words and word-groups which are but seldom attached to notional verbs (adlinks – *asleep, alive, awake*), adjectives, certain prepositional groups (*at a loss, in debt,* etc).

Modal verbs (*can, may, must, shall, will, ought to, need, used to, dare,* etc.), unlike link-verbs, can be followed by infinitives only. They are used only as predicates.

Notional verbs undergo the three main grammatically relevant categorizations. The first is based on the relation of the subject of the verb to the process denoted by the verb. The second is based on the aspective characteristics of the process denoted by the verb, i.e. on the inner properties of the process as reflected in the verbal meaning. The third is on the combining power of the verb in relation to other notional words in the utterance.

1. On the basis of the subject-process relation, all the notional verbs can be divided into actional and statal. Actional verbs express the action performed by the subject, i.e. they present the subject as the action doer (*do, act, perform, go, read, learn, discover,* etc.). Statal verbs denote the state of their subject (*be, live, survive, worry, suffer, stand, see, know,* etc.).

In the correlation pairs of verbs of physical perception and those of physical perceptional activity such as *see-look*, *hear-listen*, *feel* (inactive)-*feel* (active), touch, etc., the initial member of each pair is a statal verb, while the succeeding member is an actional verb.

2. On the basis of the aspective characteristics, verbs can be classified into **terminative** and **non-terminative**.

Terminative verbs denote actions which cannot develop beyond a certain inherent limit (*arrive, come, leave, find, start, stop, catch, take, stand up, sit down, bring,* etc.). The verbs of this subclass, presenting a process as potentially limited, can be called "limitive".

The actions denoted by non-terminative verbs have no inherent limits (*continue, hope, live, love, move, sleep, stand, sit, work, walk,* etc.). The verbs of the second subclass, presenting a process as not limited by any border point, can be called "unlimitive" or "durative".

Alongside of the two aspective subclasses of verbs, some authors recognize also a third subclass, namely, verbs of double aspective nature (or "mixed" lexical character). These are capable of expressing either a "terminative" or "non-terminative" ("durative") meaning depending on the context. Cf. *He **turned** the corner* (terminative use). *The earth **turns** round the sun* (non-terminative use).

3. On the basis of the combining power of the verbs with words denoting the subjects and the objects of the actions they name, verbs are divided into **subjective** and **objective**.

Objective verbs are mostly associated with two nouns (or noun equivalents) denoting the subject and the object of the action named by the verb. Subjective (non-objective) verbs are associated with nouns (noun equivalents) denoting the subject of the action. (*She sat up and kissed him fairly – kissed* is an objective verb because it is associated with the pronoun *she* denoting the subject of the action and with the pronoun *him* denoting the object of the same action; *sat up* – is a subjective (non-objective) verb since it is associated only with the pronoun *she* denoting the subject of the action).

Objective verbs that take direct objects are called **transitive** verbs (*She saw him*). The direct object is joined to the verb "directly", without a preposition. All the other verbs, both subjective and objective, are called **intransitive** (*You are **interfering with him***).

The combining power of words in relation to other words in syntactically subordinate positions is called their syntactic "**valency**". The syntactic "valency falls into two cardinal types: **obligatory** and **optional**.

The subjective and the direct objective valencies of the verb are obligatory. E.g. ***We saw a house** in the distance.* If we eliminate either its subject or object, the remaining part of the construction will be structurally incomplete.

The adverbial valency of the verb is mostly optional as most of the adverbial modifiers are optional parts of the sentence. E.g. *We saw a house (in the distance).* The adverbial part in this sentence may be freely eliminated without making the remainder of the sentence structurally incomplete.

The predicative valency of the link-verbs proper is obligatory.

The Categories of the Finite Verbs

The finite verb is directly connected with the structure of the sentence as a whole. The verb in the finite form expresses the following categories: person, number, aspect, tense, voice and mood.

The Category of Person

The category of person is practically represented by two-member opposemes: *speak –speaks, go-goes*. In Modern English the person distinction is found only in the singular. The verb in the plural has no person. The only personal inflexion of the verb in Modern English is the inflexion *–s, es* of the third person singular in the present tense of the indicative mood. The archaic second person with the inflexion *–est, -st* (*thou speakest*) is not used colloquially. It occurs in Modern English only in poetry, in pathetic prose with an archaic flavour.

As regards the future tense, the person finds here quite another mode of expression. In the future tense it is not the third but the first person that differs from the remaining two.

In all other cases only the combination of the verb with the personal pronoun indicates the person and number of the verb.

The Category of Number

The categories of person and number are closely connected with each other. The category of number shows whether the action is associated with one doer or with more than one. The category is presented by two numbers: singular and plural.

The verb *to be* has three forms of person and number in the Present Simple (*am, is, are*), and two forms for the past Simple (sing. – *was*, plur. – *were*). Here number is blended with person.

Some verbs do not distinguish number at all because of their peculiar historical development (*can, must, may*).

Tense and Aspect

The category of tense is a system of three-member opposemes such as *writes-wrote – will write, is writing – was writing – will be writing* showing the relation of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech. H. Sweet defines tense as "the grammatical expression of distinction of time".

The time of an action or event can be expressed lexically with the help of such words and combinations of words as yesterday, next week, now, a year ago, on the fifth of March, etc. it can also be shown grammatically by means of the category of tense. Lexically it is possible to name any definite moment or period of time: a century, a year, a day, a minute.

The grammatical meaning of 'tense' is an abstraction from only three particular tenses: the 'present', the 'past' and the 'future'. The present is a variable period of time including the moment of speech. The 'past' is the time preceding the present moment, and the 'future' is the time following the present moment. Neither of them includes the present moment.

The main divisions of time – present, past and future, are represented in English by the three primary tenses (present, past and future), expressed in two aspect forms (the common and the continuous). But besides these three primary tenses the English tense system comprises three secondary tenses: the present perfect, the past perfect and the future perfect. The perfect tenses are also expressed in two aspect forms: the common and the continuous (Pres., Past, Fut. Perfect; Pres., Past, Fut. Perfect-Continuous).

The correlation of time of tense is connected with the problem of the absolute and relative use of tense grammemes.

Absolute tenses show the time of the action in relation to the present moment (the moment of speech) (*He works at a factory; He worked at a factory; He will work at a factory*). Relative tenses reflect the time of an action not with regard to the moment of speech but to some other moment in the past or in the future, indicated by the tense of another verb. The perfect tenses are relative tenses.

In analyzing the English future tenses, the combinations of the verbs *shall* and *will* with the Infinitive have become subject of renewed discussion, whether they constitute, together with the forms of the past and present, the categorical expression of verbal tense, or are just modal phrases. The view that *shall* and *will* are part of the general set of modal verbs, expressing the meaning of capability, probability, permission, obligation, etc. in all their uses was defended by O. Jespersen. A well-grounded objection against the inclusion of the constructions *shall* and *will* + Infinitive in the tense system of the verb has been advanced by L.S. Barkhudarov.

In analyzing the English future tenses, the modal factor, naturally, should be taken into consideration. A certain modal colouring of the meaning of the English future cannot be denied, especially in the verbal form of the first person. But the expression of the future in other languages is not disconnected from modal semantics either; and this is conditioned by the fact that the future action, as different from the present or past action, cannot be looked upon as a feature of reality. It is only foreseen, or anticipated, or planned, or prospected for the time to come. The future of the English verb is highly specific as its auxiliaries in their etymology are words of obligation and volition. Still, on the whole, the English categorical future differs distinctly from the modal constructions with the same predicator verbs.

One of the most interesting and difficult problems in classical scientific grammar is the interaction of the categories of tense and aspect in a single form. The grammarians of the classical school were the first to draw attention to the category of aspect, but their treatment of this subject testifies to the confusion of morphological, lexical, and syntactic means of denoting the manner of action of an English verb typical of English scientific grammar, its inability to distinguish between the forms of the verb, the lexical meaning of the verb (the terminative and the non-terminative verbs) and the syntactic combinations of finite verbs plus infinitive or gerund, expressing different points of action (its beginning, continuation and end).

The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposemes such as *writes- is writing, has written– has been writing, to write – to be writing* showing the character of the action, i.e. whether the action is taken in its progress, in its development (continuous) or it is simply stated, its nature being unspecified (non-continuous).

Different lines of approach to English aspect can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Aspect is interpreted as a category of semantics rather than that of grammar. Typical of this line are the views advanced by M. Deutschbein, A.G. Kennedy, G. Curme and some other grammarians.

2. Aspect is not recognized at all as a category of Modern English grammar. Those who do not recognize the existence of aspect in Modern English treat the 'continuous' forms as tense forms expressing actions simultaneous with some other actions or situations.

3. Aspect is blended with tense and regarded as an inalienable part of the tense-aspect system. I.P. Ivanova, V. N. Zhigadlo, L.L. Yofik, though recognizing aspect as a grammatical category, think that it cannot be severed from tense.

4. Aspect and tense are recognized as two distinct grammatical categories. Typical of this line are the views advanced by B.A. Ilyish, A.I. Smirnitsky, V.N. Yartseva and some other linguists. We follow the latter line.

In English the verb has two aspect forms: the continuous aspect (*am writing, was writing, have been writing*) and the common aspect (*write, wrote, have written*). The difference between the two forms is not a temporal one, the forms differ in the manner in which the action is presented.

The continuous aspect in English considers the action in its progress, thus corresponding to the Russian imperfective aspect. As the continuous aspect represents an action as a process going on at a given moment, it may be used only with verbs expressing actions of a certain duration (such as *to read, to write*), but not point-actions (such as *to jump, to drop, to clap*).

As contrasted with the continuous aspect the common aspect represents an action as simply occurring (in the present, past or future), makes a bare statement of an action. The common aspect may refer to concrete actions and to actions of a more abstract, more general character as well.

The categories of tense and aspect characterize an action from different points of view. The tense of a verb shows the **time** of the action, while the aspect of a verb deals with the **development** of the action.

With regard to the category of aspect verbs divide into those that have aspect and those that have not. The latter are united by the lexico-grammatical meaning of non-continuous aspect.

Thus, the opposition constituting the category of aspect is effected between the continuous and the non-continuous (indefinite) verbal forms. The categorical meaning of the continuous is 'action in progress'; the unmarked member of the opposition, the indefinite, leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. expresses the non-continuous.

Linguists disagree as to the category the 'perfect' belongs to.

1. Some authors (B.A. Ilyish, G.N. Vorontsova) think that it forms part of the aspect system (the 'resultative' aspect – according to B.A. Ilyish, the 'transmissive' aspect – 'вид преемственности' – according to G.N. Vorontsova). This point of view is shared by quite a number of grammarians both in our country and abroad. The aspect view is represented in the works of M. Deutschbein, E.A. Sonnerschein, A.S. West, and other foreign scholars.

2. Other linguists treat the 'perfect' as belonging to the system of tense. The tense view of the perfect is represented in the works of H. Sweet, G. Curme, M. Bryant and J.R. Aiken, and some other foreign scholars. In our country this view was consistently developed by N.F. Irtenyeva and later by M.A. Ganshina and N.M. Vasilevskaya in the well-known course of English Grammar.

3. The third grammatical interpretation of the perfect was the 'tense-aspect blend view'. This view was developed in the works of I.P. Ivanova.

Those who take the 'perfect' for part of the aspect system are up against a very serious difficulty, since it is difficult to explain the nature of the 'perfect continuous',

where two aspects ('resultative', on the one hand, and 'continuous', on the other) seem to have merged into one, which is hardly possible as a category, in normal use, cannot be represented twice in one and the same word-form.

As we see, the three described interpretations of the perfect have given in combination a broad and profound picture of the semantical content of the perfect verbal forms, though all of them have failed to show the categorical individuality of the perfect.

4. The fourth conception, represented by A.I. Smirnitsky, may be called the 'time correlation view'. A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to draw attention to the fact that opposemes like *writes – has written, wrote – had written, to write – to have written* represent a grammatical category different from that of tense, though closely allied to it.

If we take a close look at the 'perfect' we cannot but see that it conveys the meaning of priority, precedence, whereas the non-perfect member of the opposeme leaves the action unspecified as to its being prior or not to another action, situation or point of time.

A.I. Smirnitsky calls the category represented by *writes – has written, writing – having written,* the category of **time correlation** (категория временной отнесенности). What was achieved by this scholar, is an explicit demonstration of the fact that the perfect form builds up its own category, different from both the 'tense' (present – past – future) and the 'aspect' (continuous – indefinite), and not reducible to either of them. The functional content of the category of 'time correlation' was defined as priority expressed by the perfect forms in the present, past or future contrasted against the non-expression of priority by the non-perfect forms. B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya name this category **the category of order.** The third term for it is the category of **retrospective coordination (retrospect).**

The analysis undertaken by A.I. Smirnitsky is of outstanding significance not only for identifying the categorical status of the perfect, but also for specifying further the general notion of a grammatical category.

So, perfect is the form of a separate verbal category, semantically intermediate between aspective and temporal, but quite self-dependent in the general □ategorical system of the English verb.

The category of voice

The verbal category of voice shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction. The category of voice shows the relation between the action and its subject, indicating whether the action is performed by the subject or passed on to it. Accordingly there are two voices in English: the active and the passive.

The active voice shows that the action is performed by its subject, that the subject is the doer of the action. The passive voice shows that the subject is acted upon, that it is the recipient of action.

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. The passive voice is an analytical form in Modern English: it is built up by means of the auxiliary verb *to be* and the past participle of the given verb. The passive form is the stronger member of the opposition of the category of voice; the active form as the weak member of the opposition leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. it expresses 'non-passivity'.

With regard to the category of voice not all the verbs have voice opposites. In accord with their relation to the passive voice, all the verbs can be divided into two large sets: the set of passivized verbs and the set of non-passivized verbs. The second subclass comprises subjective verbs and some objective verbs denoting actions of weak dynamic force like *belong, become, befall, cost, fail, lack, last, misgive, own, possess, resemble,* etc.

The category of voice is a full-representative verbal category, i.e. represented in the system of the verb as a whole. As a regular categorical form of the verb, the passive voice is combined in the same lexeme with other oppositionally strong forms of the verbal categories of the tense-aspect system, i.e. the past, the future, the continuous, the perfect.

But it has a neutralizing effect on the category of development (continuous) in the forms where the auxiliary *be* must be doubly employed as a verbid (the infinitive, the present participle, the past participle), so that the future continuous passive as well as the perfect continuous passive are practically not used in speech. The future continuous active has the future indefinite passive as the voice opposition; and the perfect continuous active in all the tense-forms has as its regular counterpart the perfect indefinite passive.

The tenses of the passive voice are used according to the same rules as the tenses of the active voice.

In English not only transitive verbs have the forms of the passive voice but also intransitive (objective) verbs which require a prepositional object, such as *to look at smb., to rely on smb.*, etc. With regard to voice the division of verbs into subjective and objective and not into transitive and intransitive is the most important division for Modern English, as any objective verb may form a passive construction.

Opinions differ as to the voice system of Modern English. Though most linguists recognize only two voices in Modern English, some speak also of the **reflexive** voice expressed with the help of the semantically weakened *self*-pronouns (*He cut himself while shaving).*

Besides the three voices mentioned above, B.A. Ilyish, finds two more voices in Modern English – the '**reciprocal'** voice expressed with the help of *each other, one another* and the '**neuter'** ('**middle'**) voice (*The door opened. The words formed in his head. The magazine doesn't sell well*).

The category of voice differs radically from all the other categories from the point of view its referential qualities. The category of voice shows its immediate connection with syntax, which finds expression in direct transformational relations between the

active and the passive voice. Being a morphological category, voice often manifests syntactical relations.

The combination of the verb *to be* with participle II does not always form the passive voice; it may also be a nominal predicate. When the verb *to be* + participle II comprise the idea of an action, when it shows that the subject is acted upon, it is the passive voice; when participle II indicates the state in which the subject is, serving as a predicative, the verb *to be* is a link-verb and the both form a nominal predicate. Cf. *It was hot in the room because all the windows were closed* (compound nominal predicate; compare: *were open*). *The door was closed at seven by the hall-porter* (passive voice).

When the verb *to be* is associated with participle II of durative verbs (*to like, to love, to honour, to hate,* etc.), the combination is always the passive voice.

The difficulty in discriminating between the passive voice and the nominal predicate concerns terminative verbs and verbs of a mixed lexical character (*to open, to close, to break,* etc.). Participle II of these verbs has double meaning: it expresses either a state resulting from an accomplished action (perfective meaning) or the action itself. Therefore the combination *to be* + participle II is either a nominative predicate or the passive voice.

The use of the perfect form often shows that the verb combination is the passive voice (*The door **is** freshly **painted*** – a nominal predicate; *Oh, **has** it **been painted?*** – the passive voice). The combination is usually the passive voice when the doer of the action is expressed in the sentence (They were interrupted by Miss Bennet).

The Category of Mood

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon.

The problem of the category of mood is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. There is no unity of opinion concerning the category of mood in English. Thus, A.I. Smirnitsky, O.S. Akhmanova, M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya find six moods in Modern English (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional and suppositional), B.A. Ilyish, L.L. Iofik find only three moods – indicative, imperative and subjunctive. The latter, according to B.A. Ilyish appears in two forms – the conditional and the subjunctive. L.S. Barkhudarov and D.A. Shteling distinguish only the indicative and the subjunctive mood. The latter is subdivided into subjunctive I and subjunctive II. The imperative and the conjunctive are treated as forms outside the category of mood.

G.N. Vorontsova distinguished four moods in English: 1) indicative, 2) optative, represented in three varieties (imperative, desiderative, subjunctive), 3) speculative, found in two varieties (dubitative and irrealis) and 4) presumptive.

In general the number of English moods in different theories varies from two to seventeen. Here the indicative, imperative and oblique moods are considered.

One of the most important differences between the indicative and the other moods is that the meaning of 'tense' does not go with the meaning of imperative and oblique moods. Tense reflects the real time of a real action. The imperative and oblique moods represent the action not as real, but as desirable or imagined, and the notions of real time are discarded.

The **indicative** mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed system including all the categories of the verb.

Semantically it is a fact of reality. It conveys minimum personal attitude to the fact. The grammatical categories of the indicative mood system are: person, number, aspect, tense and voice.

The **imperative** mood represents an action as a command, urging, request, exhortation. It is a direct expression of one's will. Its modal meaning is very strong and distinct. The imperative mood is morphologically the least developed of all moods. In fact the form *write, go, do* is the only one regularly met in speech. The meaning of 'second person' is a lexico-grammatical meaning common to the system of the imperative mood, because it is always the second person that the speaker addresses his order or request expressed with the help of imperative mood forms.

Some linguists are of the opinion that Modern English possesses analytical forms of the imperative mood for the first and the third person are built up with the help of the semantically weakened *let* (*Let him come; Let us go*). G.N. Vorontsova gives a detailed analysis of these constructions to prove that they are analytical forms of the imperative.

The function of the oblique moods is to represent an action as a 'non-fact', as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality. When the speaker expresses his wish by using one of the oblique moods, he merely communicates to the hearer what he considers desirable. This is the main difference between the oblique moods and the imperative.

M. Ganshina and N. Vasilevskaya, E.A. Natanson distinguish in English four oblique moods, of which two are synthetical and two analytical. The synthetical moods are: **subjunctive I** and **subjunctive II**. The analytical moods are: **the conditional mood** and **the suppositional mood**.

The two synthetical moods are often united under the general name of the subjunctive mood. In some grammars the analytical moods are included into the subjunctive mood as the analytical forms of the subjunctive.

Subjunctive I represents an action as problematic, but not as contradicting reality. It is used to express order, request, suggestion, supposition, purpose, etc (*I still suggest that you **wait***). Subjunctive I has also optative meaning (*Long **live** the forces of peace*). Subjunctive I has no tenses, the same form being used for the present, past and future

(*He orders (ordered) that we (he, they)* **be** *present*). In British English the use of subjunctive I is limited to certain styles. In everyday speech the suppositional mood or modal phrases are used instead.

Subjunctive II represents an action as contrary to reality (*I wish he* **were** *here. If only I* **had known** *it then!*). Subjunctive II has two tenses: the present and the past.

The forms of the present subjunctive II are homonymous with the forms of the past indicative (*spoke, wrote*). The past subjunctive II is homonymous with the past perfect indicative (*had heard, had spoken*).

The suppositional mood represents an action as problematic, but not necessarily contradicting reality. The suppositional mood is used to express necessity, order, suggestion, supposition, etc. The suppositional mood is an analytical mood, it is formed by combining the auxiliary verb should (for all persons) with the infinitive. (indefinite or perfect). The suppositional mood has two tenses: the present and the past.

The present suppositional is formed by the auxiliary verb should + indefinite (continuous) infinitive (*should do smth.*). The past suppositional is formed by the auxiliary verb should + perfect (perfect continuous) infinitive (*should have done smth.*).

The conditional mood represents the unreality of an action due to the absence of the necessary circumstances on which the realization of the action depends. The conditional mood is mainly used in the principal clause of a complex sentence with a subordinate clause of unreal condition, where the verb is in subjunctive II.

The conditional mood has two tenses: the present and the past. The present conditional is formed by the auxiliary verb should (1st person sing. And plur.), and would (2nd person sing. and plur.) + indefinite (continuous) infinitive. The past conditional is formed by the auxiliary verb should/would + perfect (perfect continuous) infinitive.

In the analytical mood forms the verbs *should* and *would* lose their lexical meaning and turn into mere auxiliaries. When the verbs *should* and *would* preserve their lexical meaning (would – volition, should – obligation) they form modal phrases (compound verbal predicate) – *You* **should see** *the play*.

The tenses of the oblique moods are relative tenses; they do not refer the action to a certain point of time (present, past or future), but merely indicate that the action of the verb in the oblique mood coincides in time with the action of the verb in the principal clause which in the indicative mood, or precedes it.

The present tenses of the oblique mood serve to indicate simultaneousness. The past tenses are used to indicate priority.

Non-Finite Forms of the Verb
(Verbals)

The English verbals (or non-finite forms of the verb) include four forms distinctly differing from one another within the general verbid system: the infinitive, the gerund,

the present participle and the past participle. The verbals have dual grammatical nature, both verbal and nominal (or adverbial-adjectival). Thus the infinitive and the gerund have besides verb characteristics also traits of a noun. For instance, they can be used in the sentence as subject or object, both syntactical functions being typical of the noun. The participle has the characteristics of both verb and adjective and in some of its functions those of verb and adverb.

Besides the features common to the English verb as a whole the verbals have certain features of their own. The distinction between the finite forms of the verb and the verbals is as follows: the finite forms of the verb have always a subject with which they agree in number and person; the verbals are not restricted in number and person by any grammatical subject.

The verbals (verbids) have no mood distinction. Accordingly, the verbal cannot express predication by themselves; they can be only part of the predicate, they must always be in connection with finite forms of the verb (*She **began to speak**. He **went on talking**).

In common with the finite forms of the verb all the three verbals have voice and tense distinctions (to write – to be written; to write – to be writing – to have written; finishing – having finished).

In common with the finite forms of the verb the verbals are modified by adverb (*I was tired of sitting **still** in the library. Soames stood in the room gazing **gloomily** into the square*).

The functions of the verbals in the sentence are different from those of the finite verb. The latter regularly functions as the predicate of the sentence. The verbals are not used in this function. But they are used in most other functions (as subject, object, adverbial modifier, attribute).

One of the peculiarities of the verbals is their being used as secondary predicates. In the sentence *I saw them dancing, **I saw** makes a predication, the backbone of a sentence, *them dancing* cannot exist separately and becomes **secondary predication** (or complex), where *dancing* becomes **secondary predicate**. The verbid complexes (*anything caught in your head; for the others not to hear it*), while expressing secondary predication, are not self-dependent in a predicative sense. They exist only as part of sentences built up by primary predicative constructions with a finite verb. And it is through the reference to the finite verb-predicate that these complexes set up the situations denoted by them in the corresponding time and mood perspective.

The Infinitive

The infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of a process. Due to its process-naming function, the infinitive should be considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb. It represents the actual derivational base for all the forms of regular verbs. A.A. Shakhmatov called the infinitive the "verbal nominative". The

infinitive was originally a verbal noun, in the course of its development it has acquired some characteristics of the verb and is at present intermediate between verb and noun.

The infinitive is characterized by the following features:

1. Its dual lexico-grammatical meaning of an action, process partially viewed as a substance. The infinitive denotes the corresponding process in an abstract, substance-like presentation. The combinability of the infinitive also reflects its dual semantic feature, in accord with which we distinguish between its verb-type (when it combines with a) nouns, expressing the subject or the object of an action; b) adverbs; c) auxiliary verbs) and noun-type (when it combines with finite notional verbs as the subject or the object of the action) connections.

2. The categories of voice, aspect and time correlation. The aspect, voice and time correlation of the infinitive are the same as in the finites. The categorical paradigm of the infinitive of the objective verb includes eight forms: the indefinite active, the continuous active, the perfect active, the perfect continuous active; the indefinite passive, the continuous passive, the perfect passive, the perfect continuous passive (*to write– to be writing– to have written- to have been taking; to be written – to be being written- to have been written- to have been being written*). The continuous and perfect continuous passive are rarely used with a strong stylistic colouring. The categorical paradigm of the infinitive of the non-objective verb includes four forms: the indefinite active, the continuous active, the perfect active, the perfect continuous active; (*to write– to be writing– to have written- to have been taking*). The indefinite infinitive shows that the action expressed by the infinitive is simultaneous with the action of the finite form of the verb in the sentence. The perfect infinitive shows that the action expressed by the infinitive precedes the action indicated by the finite form of the verb.

3. Its peculiar combinability resembling that of the verb, and partly that of the noun. Like a finite verb the infinitive is associated with adverbs (*to speak fluently*), with nouns and pronouns (*to bring a book*). Like a noun the infinitive may be associated with a finite verb (*I promised to come*).

4. The syntactical functions of subject, predicative, object, attribute, adverbial modifier, part of a compound verbal predicate, etc.

5. It is usually preceded by the word-morpheme *to*. Formerly this *to* was a preposition which was put before the infinitive to indicate direction or purpose. In the course of time to lost its meaning and became merely the sign of the infinitive.

6. Its participation in analytical forms (*shall bring, will write, would go,* etc.).

In Modern English we find the following predicative constructions with the infinitive: 1. the Objective-with-the-infinitive Construction; 2. the Subjective Infinitive Construction; 3. the for-to-infinitive Construction.

The Objective-with-the-infinitive is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case. In the sentence this construction has the function of a complex object (*Everybody expected **her to marry Pete** – Все ожидали, что она выйдет замуж за Петра*).

The Subjective Infinitive Construction (the Nominative-with-the-infinitive Construction) is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case. The peculiarity of this construction is that it does not serve as one part of the sentence: one of its component parts has the function of the subject, the other forms part of a compound verbal predicate (***My father** was considered by many **to be a great man*** – *Многие считали моего отца незаурядным человеком*).

The for-to-Infinitive Construction is a construction in which the infinitive is in predicate relation to a noun or pronoun preceded by the preposition for (*He stepped aside **for me to pass*** – *Он отошел в сторону, чтобы я могла пройти*).

The construction can have different functions in the sentence: subject, predicative, complex object, attribute, adverbial modifier.

The Gerund

Origin and Development. The gerund is a descendant of the Old English verbal noun and the present participle; hence its double nature and its noun and verb characteristics.

In the Old English period the verbal noun had the endings –ing, -ung; in Middle English the ending was –ing(e). The present participle in Old English had the ending –ende which in Middle English was replaced by –inge as the result of a confusion of constructions with the verbal noun and the participle. Thus the verbal noun and the participle became merged into one form –ing(e), the modern –ing. As the result of the blending of the two forms, the verbal noun in –ing began to develop verbal characteristics under the influence of the participle.

Later on the gerund, becoming more and more verbal, developed tense distinctions and the passive voice, and preserving still its syntactical characteristics of a noun assumed to a great extent the dynamic force of a verb.

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb which, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund serves as the verbal name of a process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive.

The gerund is a verbid characterized by the following features:

1. Its dual lexico-grammatical meaning of an action partially viewed as a substance. The gerund combines verbal and noun features, yet the gerund is more of a noun than the infinitive, which is explained by the fact that the gerund became part of the verb system much later than the infinitive.

The combinability of the gerund also reflects its dual semantic feature, in accord with which we distinguish between its verb-type (when it combines with a) nouns, expressing the object of an action; b) adverbs; c) auxiliary verbs) and noun-type (when it combines a) with finite notional verbs as the object of the action; b) with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action) connections.

2. The categories of voice and time correlation. The categorical paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb includes four forms: the indefinite active, the perfect active; the indefinite passive, the perfect passive (*taking – having taken – being taken – having been taken*).

The indefinite gerund expresses that the action denoted by the gerund is simultaneous with the action of the finite form of the verb in the sentence (*John stood a moment without speaking*).

The perfect gerund indicates that the action of the gerund precedes the action of the finite verb in the sentence (*She denied having spoken with him).*

The categorical paradigm of the gerund of the non-objective verb includes two forms: the indefinite active, the perfect active (*taking – having taken*). The perfect forms of the gerund are used, as a rule, only in semantically strong positions.

The gerund of transitive verbs has special forms for the active and the passive voice (*He liked neither reading aloud nor being read aloud to – Он не любил ни читать вслух, ни слушать чтение*).

3. The combinability resembling that of the verb (the gerund is associated with adverbs, with nouns or pronouns denoting the object of the action) and that of the noun (the gerund is associated with prepositions, with the conjoint possessive pronouns, nouns in the possessive case).

The combinability of the gerund differs considerably from that of the infinitive, thus, the gerund may be preceded by a preposition (*She thought of going there*); it is often accompanied by a noun in the possessive case or a possessive pronoun (*I insist on Mary's (her) going there*). Sometimes the action denoted by the gerund is not associated with any doer of the action (*Living is striving*).

4. The group-morpheme *–ing*.

5. The syntactical functions of subject, predicative, object, attribute, adverbial modifier, part of a compound verbal predicate, etc.

The gerund can form predicative constructions, i.e. constructions in which the verbal element expressed by the gerund is in predicate relation to the nominal element expressed by a noun or pronoun. The nominal element of the construction can be expressed: a) by a noun in the genitive case or by a possessive pronoun (*Do you mind my smoking?*); b) by a noun in the common case (*She objected to Mary going out on such a windy day*). In Modern English there are two parallel constructions *Fancy David's courting Emily – Fancy David courting Emily.* There is a slight difference in meaning – in the 1st example the action is emphasized, in the 2nd – the doer of the action is emphasized. The gerund is very extensively used as the centre of complexes synonymous with subordinate clauses (*I know of his having gone to Kiev. Cf. I know that he has gone to Kiev*).

The Participle

There are two participles in English – Participle I (traditionally called the Present Participle) and Participle II (traditionally called the Past Participle).

Participle I is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb. Participle I is a verbid characterized by the following properties:

1. Its lexico-grammatical meaning of a qualifying action. Since it possesses some traits both of adjective and adverb, the Present Participle is not only dual, but triple which is displayed in its combinability, as well as in its syntactic functions.

The verb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed, in its being combined a) with nouns expressing the object of the action; b) with nouns expressing the subject of the action; c) with modifying adverbs; d) auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb.

The adjective-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified nouns, as well as with some modifying adverbs, such as adverbs of degree.

The adverb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified verbs. As to the verbal features of Participle I they do not differ in the essential from those of the infinitive and the gerund.

2. The categories of voice and time correlation. The □ategorical paradigm of the Participle I of the objective verb includes four forms: the non-perfect active, the non-perfect passive; the perfect active, the perfect passive (*writing– being written – having written– having been written*). The non-perfect form of Participle I usually expresses that the action of the participle is simultaneous with the action of the finite form of the verb (*I saw him entering*). The perfect form of Participle I denotes that the action of the participle precedes the action of the finite form of the verb in the sentence.

3. Special suffix *–ing*. In its outer form the present participle is wholly homonymous with the gerund.

4. The syntactical functions of the predicative (occasional use. *The effect of her words was terrifying – Впечатление, произведенное ее словами, было страшно*); the attribute (*We admired the stars twinkling in the sky – Мы восхищались звездами, мерцавшими в небе*); the adverbial modifier (*Turning slowly she went to her room – Медленно повернувшись, она пошла в свою комнату*); part of a complex object (*I saw him talking to his wife*); part of a compound verbal predicate (*They were heard talking together*), etc.

The Participle I can form the following predicative constructions:

1. **The Objective Participial Construction**. In this construction the present participle is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or pronoun in the objective case (*I heard my son coming*). This construction has the function of a complex object.

2. **The Subjective Participial Construction**. In this construction the present participle is in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case, which is the subject of the sentence. The peculiarity of this

construction is that it does not serve as one part of the sentence: one of its component parts has the function of the subject, the other forms part of a compound verbal predicate (***They*** *were seen* ***walking to the park***).

3. **The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction**. In this construction the present participle stands in predicate relation to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case, which is not the subject of the sentence (***The door of the room being open***, *we looked in- Так как дверь комнаты была открыта, мы заглянули в нее*). The construction is used in the function of an adverbial modifier.

4. **The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction**. The construction may be introduced by the preposition *with*. It is in most cases used in the function of an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances (*It was a radiant day, with the trees and grass shining exceedingly green after the rain of the night before*).

Participle II is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective. Participle II is a verbid characterized by the following properties:

1. Its lexico-grammatical meaning of a qualifying action. As different from the present participle, it has no distinct combinability features or syntactic function features specially characteristic of the adverb. Participle II is mostly used to modify nouns.

2. The past participle is a single form, having no paradigm of its own. The only form of participle II can express both an action simultaneous with, and prior to, the action expressed by the finite verb.

Participle II of transitive verbs has a passive meaning (a broken glass), participle II of intransitive verbs has no passive meaning; it is used only in compound tense-forms.

3. The past participle of regular verbs is formed by adding –*ed* to the stem of the verb, the past participle of irregular verbs is formed differently: some of them use both vowel and consonant change and affixation (*write, eat, teach, buy,* etc.), others do not (*cut, put, set*). Some make use of suppletivity (*go, be,* etc.).

4. The syntactical functions of the predicative (*The inner gate was* ***locked*** – *Внутренние ворота были заперты*); the attribute (*They turned into the conservatory* ***lit up with Chinese lamps*** – *Они свернули в оранжерею,* ***освещенную китайскими фонариками***); the adverbial modifier (***When questioned*** *Annie explained that she was anxious about her brother-in-law. – Когда Энни стали расспрашивать, она объяснила, что беспокоится о своем шурине*), etc.

Past participle is capable of making up predicative constructions of complex object, complex subject, as well as of absolute complex. The Participle II can form the following predicative constructions:

1. **The Objective Participial Construction (***You will probably find* ***your sister grown***. *We could hear* ***a shot or two fired*** *from the field mortar***).**

2. **The Subjective Participial Construction** (Cf. ***A shot or two*** *were heard* ***fired*** *from the field mortar*).

3. **The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction.** The absolute past participial complex as a rule expresses priority in the correlation of two events. **(*This***

duty completed, *he had three month's leave – Когда эта работа была закончена, он получил трехмесячный отпуск*).

4. **The Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction**. (*The daughter sat silent,* **with her eyes fixed on the ground** *– Дочь сидела молча, опустив глаза в землю*).

The Semi-notional Parts of Speech

The semi-notional parts of speech (structural or functional parts of speech) either express relations between words or sentences or emphasize the meaning of words or sentences. They never perform any independent function in the sentence. Here belong: 1) the preposition; 2) the conjunction; 3) the particle; 4) the article; 5) the interjection.

The Preposition

The preposition is a part of speech which denotes the relations between objects and phenomena. It shows the relations between a noun or a pronoun and other words. Usually the preposition is not stressed and stands before the word it refers to.

As to the **morphological structure** prepositions fall into the following groups:
1. simple (*in, on, at, for, with*, etc.)
2. derivative (*behind, below, across, along*, etc.)
3. compound (*inside, outside, within, without*, etc.)
4. composite (*because of, in front of, in accordance with*, etc.).

According to their **meaning** prepositions are divided into prepositions of place and direction (*in, on, below, under, between*, etc.), time (*after, before, at,* etc.), prepositions expressing abstract relations (*by, with, because of, with a view to*, etc.).

Some prepositions are polysemantic and may express different relations, e.g. *for* expresses purpose (*the struggle for life*), time (*for an hour*), cause (*for pain – из-за боли*).

Some prepositions are homonymous with adverbs (about, after, before, below, down, since, etc.), conjunctions (after, before, since, etc.), participles (regarding, concerning, etc.), lexico-grammatical word-morphemes, or postpositions (in, on, up, etc.). Though identical in form, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are different parts of speech. The adverb, unlike the preposition and conjunction, serves as part of the sentence, e.g. *after* is an adverbial modifier of time, etc. As to the postposition it is a part of a composite verb (*We've got to live **on** what we earn*).

The Conjunction

The conjunction is a part of speech which denotes connections between objects and phenomena. It connects part of the sentence, clauses, and sentences.

As to the **morphological structure** conjunctions are divided into the following groups:

1. simple (*and, or, but, till, after, that, so, where, when*, etc.). Some of the simple conjunctions are homonymous with prepositions, adverbs, and pronouns.

2. derivative (*until, unless*, etc.).

3. compound (*however, whereas, wherever*, etc.). These conjunctions are few.

4. composite (*as well as, as long as, in case, for fear (that),on the ground that, for the reason that* , etc.).

Some conjunctions are used in pairs: *both...and, either...or, neither...nor, not only...but (also), whether...or.*

As to their function and according to their **meaning** conjunctions fall under two classes:

coordinating(сочинительные) conjunctions;

subordinating (подчинительные) conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions join a) coordinate clauses in a compound sentence; b) homogeneous part in a simple sentence; c) homogeneous subordinate clauses in a complex sentence; d) independent sentences. According to their meaning coordinating conjunctions are subdivided into: copulative (*and, nor, as well as, both...and, not only... but (also), neither...nor*), disjunctive (*or, either...or, or else, else*), adversative (*but, yet, however, nevertheless, still, while, whereas*), causative-consecutive (*so, for*). Though *for* and *so* are considered coordinating conjunctions, they are in fact intermediate between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

Subordinating conjunctions generally join a) a subordinate clause to a principal clause; b) adverbial modifiers to the predicate in a simple sentence; (*when, if, though, as though, that, as, while*, etc.).

The Particle

The particle is a part of speech giving modal or emotional emphasis to other words or groups of words or clauses. A particle may join one part of the sentence to another (connecting particles). Particles have no independent function in the sentence.

Most of them are homogeneous with other parts of speech, chiefly with adverbs (exactly, precisely, simply, never, still), adjectives (even, right, just, only), pronouns (all, either), conjunctions (but), articles (the). Very few particles are not homogeneous with other word (else, merely, solely).

According to their **meaning** particles fall under the following main groups:

limiting particles (*only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely*, etc) (*There was but one chair*);

intensifying particles (*simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even*, etc.) (*You look only fifteen in it*);

connecting particles (*too, also*) (*James was silent. Soames, too, was silent*);

negative particles (*not, never*) (*I never thought of that again*);

As to their **structure** particles are divided into the following groups:

1. simple (*just, still, yet, even, else*, etc.).

2. derivative (*merely, simply, alone,* etc.).
3. compound (*also*).

Syntax

Word-combination

The grammatical description of phrases is sometimes called "smaller syntax", in distinction to "larger syntax" studying the sentence and its textual connections.

The theory of phrase or word-combination in Soviet linguistics has a long tradition going back to the 18th century. According to Russian scholars, the term "word combination" (словосочетание) can be applied only to such groups of words which contain at least two notional words forming a grammatical unit. This view has become traditional.

This tradition has progressively weakened in Russian linguistics and some linguists such as Academician V.M. Žirmunsky and Professor B.A. Ilyish do not limit the definition of a phrase and think that its constituents may belong to any part of speech.

Western scholars hold a different view of the problem. The most important difference of opinion on the question between Russian and Western scholars concerned the constituents of the word groups forming grammatical units.

Early English syntax concerned itself with the study of word-groups, their structure and the relations between their elements. In the second half of the 18th century the term "phrase" was introduced to denote a word-group in English. This term, accepted by the 19th-century grammarians, denoted at first any combination of two or more words, including that of a noun and a verb, but later, when the clause came to be defined as a syntactic unit containing a subject and a predicate, the term "phrase" was used to designate any word-group except the group of words which made up a clause.

Thus western scholars consider that every combination of two or more words constitutes a unit which they term "phrase", i.e. they do not limit the term "phrase" to combinations of notional words and do not draw a sharp distinction between the two types of word groups such as *wise man* and *to the lighthouse.*

English scientific grammar did not elaborate this part of syntax and rejected even the term "phrase" as is stated by H. Sweet in the Preface to his grammar. The author prefers to speak of word-groups, but defines this notion practically in the same way as the phrase used to be defined.

H. Sweet describes the relations between the elements of a word-group as being based on grammatical and logical subordination. In Kruisinga's grammar we find an elaboration of the same principle in his theory of close and loose word-groups. Jespersen does not use any special term to denote this syntactic unit, but his syntactic theory applies both to relations between the members of a word-group and the parts of a sentence.

The basis of the structural theory of word-groups is division of phrases into two main types of word-groups: headed (endocentric) and non-headed (exocentric), suggested by Bloomfield and supported by Harold Whitehall. The classification is made by means of criteria of distribution and substitution. The endocentric group has the same distribution as one of its members and the exocentric group has a distribution different from either of its members. In terms of substitution, the head word of the endocentric group functions in the same way as the whole phrase (in *I like fresh fruit* it is possible to substitute the head expression *fruit* for *fresh fruit*), whereas the members of exocentric phrases cannot be used in the function of either of its members (in *I saw a book of poems* neither *I* nor *saw* is substitutable for *I saw*, and neither *of* nor *poems* can replace *of poems*).

Transformational grammar does not discuss word-groups in isolation, but the analysis of sentences is based upon the concept of phrase-structure and some transformations produce as their output word-groups.

Another debatable problem in Soviet linguistics is whether a predicative combination of words forms a word combination. It is generally known that a sentence is based on predication, which consists in saying something about something, so that its purpose is communication.

A word combination has no such aim. It is more like a word, because it is employed for naming things, actions, qualities, etc. word combinations, like separate words, have a nominative function, but they represent the referent of nomination as a complicated phenomenon, but it is a concrete thing, an action, a quality, or a whole situation (respectively: *a picturesque village; to start with a jerk; extremely difficult; the unexpected arrival of the chief*). This kind of nomination can be called "polynomination", as different from "mononomination" effected by separate words.

Thus Soviet grammarians separate the two notions: "word combination" and "sentence". In contrast with Soviet linguistics, western scholars make no difference between Subject-Predicate combinations of words and other word combinations. So, Leonard Bloomfield, America's most prominent scholar who laid the foundation for the theory of phrase in Western European and American linguistics, defined a phrase as "a free form which consists of two or more lesser free forms, as, for instance, *poor John* or *John ran away* or *Yes, Sir*." It follows from this definition that Bloomfield makes no distinction between predicative combinations and any other combinations of words.

It should be pointed out that there is no traditional terminology in the works of English and American scholars discussing combinations of words and that different terms are used to express the same idea. Thus the terms "phrase", "cluster of words", "combination of words", "word group" and others are widely used.

Groupings of notional words fall into two mutually opposite types by their grammatical and semantic properties:

1. **equipotent** (равнозначный) combinations, i.e. words related to one another on an equal rank, so that, for a case of a two-word combination, neither of them serves as a modifier of the other.

2. **dominational** (подчинительные) combinations, i.e. words which are syntactically unequal in the sense that, for a case of a two-word combination, one of them plays the role of a modifier of the other.

Equipotent connection can be of two types: a) coordinative and b) cumulative.

In the **coordinative** type of equipotent connections the connection of words is realized either with the help of conjunctions (**syndetically** – syndetical – синдетический, 'союзный' – *prose and poetry; came and went; on the beach or in the water; quick but not careless;*), or without the help of conjunctions (**asyndetically** – asyndetical– асиндетический, 'бессоюзный' – *playing, chatting, laughing; Mary's, not John's*). In this type the constituents of the combinations form logically consecutive (последовательная) connections that are classed as coordinative (сочинительные).

In the **cumulative** type of equipotent connections the connection of words is non-consecutive, i.e. a sequential element, although equal to the forgoing element by its formal introduction (coordinative conjunction), is unequal to it as to the character of nomination. Cumulative connection in writing is usually signaled by such punctuation stops as a comma, a hyphen (*agreed, but reluctantly; quick – and careless; satisfied, or nearly so. Ср. согласен, или почти согласен, сыт, да не очень*).

Dominational connection is effected in such a way that one of the constituents of the combination is principal (dominating) and the other is subordinate (dominated). The principal element is called the "kernel", "kernel element", or "head-word"; the subordinate element, respectively, the "adjunct", "adjunct-word", "expansion".

Dominational connection is achieved by different forms of the word (categorical agreement, government and adjoinment), word-order.

By **agreement** we mean the repetition of the inflexion of the head-word in its adjunct-word: *this book* (noun in the singular – pronoun in the singular) – *these books* (noun in the plural – pronoun in the plural); *I am a teacher* (pronoun first person singular – verb first person singular). Modern English has preserved but few traces of agreement. We find agreement 1) between the verb-predicate and the subject; 2) between head-noun and demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that*.

Government is such a mode of connecting words when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word (*I **see him**. I want **to see him**. I intend **seeing him**.*). We find government 1) between object and verb (*I helped **them***); 2) between head-noun and attributive adjunct noun (**the boy's father**). Prepositional government plays a very important role in English: *rely **on the student**, look **at the student**, wait **for the help***.

By adjoinment we understand such a way of connecting words when they are joined to one another without any special forms but only by their position, their dependent grammatical function and their meaning. Adjoinment is the usual mode of connecting words in English.

Dominational connection, like equipotent connection, can be both consecutive and cumulative (Cf. *a careful observer – an observer, seemingly careful; definitely out of the point – out of the point, definitely*).

The two basic types of dominational connection are: a) **bilateral** (reciprocal, two-way) domination; b) **monolateral** (one-way) domination. Bilateral domination is realized in predicative connection of words, while monolateral domination is realized in completive connection of words.

The predicative connection of words, uniting the subject and the predicate, builds up the basis of the sentence. The reciprocal nature of this connection consists in the fact that the subject dominates the predicate determining the person of predication, while the predicate dominates the subject, determining the event of predication.

The completive, one-way connection of words (monolateral domination) is considered as subordinative on the ground that the syntactic status of the whole combination is determined by the kernel element (head-word). The head-word can simply be isolated though the deletion of the adjunct, the remaining construction being structurally complete (*That woman was **astonishingly** beautiful → That woman was beautiful*).

All the completive connections fall into two main divisions: a) objective connections b) qualifying connections.

Objective connections reflect the relation of the object to the process and are characterized as very close. By their form these connections are subdivided into **non-prepositional** (word-order, the objective form of the adjunct substantive) and **prepositional**. From the semantico-syntactic point of view they are classed as **direct** (the immediate transition of the action to the object) and **indirect** or oblique (the indirect relation of the object to the process). Direct objective connections are non-prepositional. Indirect objective connections may be both prepositional and non-prepositional.

Qualifying connections are divided into a) **attributive** and b) **adverbial**. Both are expressed in English by word-order and prepositions.

Attributive connection unites a substance with its attribute expressed by an adjective or a noun (*an **enormous** appetite, an **emerald** ring; a woman **of strong character**,; the case **for the prosecution**;* etc.).

Adverbial connection is subdivided into primary and secondary.

The primary adverbial connection is established between the verb and its adverbial modifiers (*to talk **glibly**; to come **nowhere**; to receive (a letter) **with surprise**; to throw (one's arms) **round a person's neck**;* etc.).

The secondary adverbial connection is established between the non-verbal kernel expressing a quality and its adverbial modifiers (***marvelously** becoming; **strikingly** alike; **no longer** oppressive*; etc.).

Sentence

The basic unit of syntax is the sentence. One of the most difficult theoretical problems concerning the sentence, which, in the opinion of many linguists, remains unsolved to this day and does not even admit of a satisfactory solution, is the problem of

the definition of the sentence. There exist many definitions of the sentence, but none of them is generally accepted.

In the history of linguistics at least four principal types of definition of the sentence are known: logical, psychological, structural (or grammatical) and phonetic definitions. Psychological definitions are not typical of English grammar. Logical definitions predominated in the preceding periods of its development. The definitions of the structural linguists are based upon grammatical or phonetic criteria.

Transformational grammar refrains from giving a definition of the sentence on the principle that the whole grammar of a language constitutes a definition of the sentence.

There is a considerable divergence of opinion among grammarians concerning the analysis of "one-word" sentences. Some grammarians think that they are not sentences at all (H. Sweet finds out that they are something intermediate between word and sentence).

Some notions typical of English prescriptive grammar have been retained by the authors of scientific grammar, e.g. that the subject of the imperative is you understood (подразумевающееся), but this notion is welcomed again by the transformationalists who treat imperative sentences as transformations of two-member sentences with the subject deleted.

As regards the syntactic system of structural grammar, its authors elaborate the principles suggested by L. Bloomfield – the concept of endocentric and exocentric phrases as sentence elements and the immediate constituents analysis.

The authors of structural grammar developed a deductive approach to the analysis of sentences, having elaborated a system of sentence-patterns, which vary in number from three to seven. But the analysis of their internal structure and the terminology employed closely resemble the concepts and terminology of prescriptive grammars. As in the latter, in the grammars of the new type a distinct position in the sentence-patterns is allotted only to three syntactic elements, the subject, the verb and its complements. Attributive and adverbial modifiers are treated as elements expanding the major sentence-patterns. These authors cannot ignore completely the lexical meaning of the element constituting the sentence-patterns either. Fries also finds it necessary to distinguish whether the "referents" of the parts of the sentence are the same or different.

The introduction of the sentence pattern in American linguistics changed the whole syntax. Now not only individual words or word groups became the object of syntactic investigations, but whole sentences, though structural linguists were not quite original in introducing their speech-patterns. The sentence-patterns of descriptive grammarians differ only in the structure of the predicate group, but as H.A. Gleason observes, the notion "predicate pattern" is in some ways still better.

The kernel sentences of transformational grammar (their number varies from 7 to 3) differ from the sentence patterns of descriptive grammarians in that several indispensable parts of some sentence-patterns, such as the indirect object and the objective complement, are not included in the kernel. They are derived from other

kernel sentences by means of transformations, whereas such an optional element as the adverbial is contained in the kernel.

The most remarkable idea in the sentence analysis of transformational grammar is that the attributive use of the adjective is considered to be a secondary function, derived by a series of transformations from its predicative function in the kernel (just as in logic). The principal sentence elements or syntactic units of transformational generative grammar are the phrasal units – the Noun Phrase and the Verb Phrase, which are conventionalized symbols standing for single words, word groups and clauses in the subject and the predicate position. Both phrasal units in respect of their structure and position correspond exactly to the complete subject and complete predicate of prescriptive grammars, only the new notation is less explicit, because the function of the NP`s within a verb phrase is not always indicated in functional or relational terms (such as object, complement, etc.).

Though a sentence contains words, it is not merely a group of words, but something integral, a structural unity built in accordance with one of the patterns existing in a given language. A sentence is the smallest unit of speech which expresses a more or less complete thought and has a definite grammatical form and intonation. The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose (Blokh). The sentence is a communication unit made up of words (and word-morphemes) in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity (B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya). The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity. Every sentence shows the relation of the statement to reality from the point of view of the speaker.

A sentence may consist of a single word or of a combination of words. A one-member sentence is a sentence having only one member which is neither the subject nor the predicate. The one member makes the sense complete. The actual existence of one-word sentences does not contradict the general idea of the sentence as a special syntactic combination of words. A word –sentence as a unit of the text is radically different from a word-lexeme as a unit of lexicon, the differentiation being inherent in the respective places occupied by the sentence and by the word in the hierarchy of language levels.

Unlike the word, the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready-made unit; it is created by the speaker in the course of communication.

Being a unit of speech, the sentence is intonationally delimited. Intonation separates one sentence from another in the continual flow of uttered segments. The role of intonation as a delimiting factor is especially important for the sentences with more than one predicative centre.

The sentence is characterized by its specific category of **predication** which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. The basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb, which is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence.

Sentences may be divided into **simple** and **composite (compound** and **complex)**. Sentences with one predication (a subject and a predicate) are called simple. Composite sentences with coordinated simple sentences are compound sentences (*It was winter, **but** the weather was lovely*). Composite sentences containing subordinate clauses are complex sentences (*I don't understand **what** you mean*).

The classification of **simple sentences** is based on two principles:

According to the purpose of communication;

According to the structure.

According to the purpose of communication we distinguish four kinds of sentences:

a) The **declarative** sentence. A declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative. In a declarative sentence the subject precedes the predicate and is pronounced with a falling intonation.

b) The **interrogative** sentence. An interrogative sentence expresses a question. It is formed by means of inversion, i.e. by placing the predicate (or part of it) before the subject. There are four kinds of questions: general, special, alternative, disjunctive.

c) The **imperative** sentence. An imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. So it expresses a command, a request, an invitation, etc. (*Open the door, please*). Commands are characterized by a falling tone, requests and invitations – by a rising intonation.

d) The **exclamatory** sentence. An exclamatory sentence expresses some kind of emotion or feeling. It often begins with the word *what* and *how* (*How wonderful!*).

In modern linguistics it is not considered that exclamatory sentences possess any complete set of qualities that could place them on one and the same level with the three cardinal communicational types of sentences. Each of the three sentence types can be represented in the two variants – non-exclamatory and exclamatory.

According to their **structure** sentences are divided into:

1) two-member – (двусоставные) (two-axis – Блох) (double-nucleus- Кобрина, Корнеева) sentences;

one-member (односоставные) (one-axis) (single-nucleus) sentences.

A two-member sentence comprises a subject and a predicate (***She walks** fast*).

Two-member sentences can be **complete** and **incomplete** (**elliptical**). Complete sentences comprise both principal parts. Elliptical sentences are built on the model of two-member sentences, but one or both principal parts are missing (*Why don't we all go up together? (It is a) **Marvelous idea***). Elliptical sentences are used in newspaper headings, advertisements.

M.Y. Blokh considers elliptical type of utterances to be one-member sentences.

A one-member sentence does not comprise a subject and a predicate, but consists of one principal part (*Another day of rain*). One-member sentences are generally used in descriptions and in emotional speech. The main part of one-member sentences can be expressed by nouns, by adjectives, by adverbial phrases and by non-finite forms of the verb in accordance with which they fall into four structural classes:

a) **nominal** sentences (*Freedom! Night.*);

b) **adjective** sentences (*Marvelous!*) One-member sentences of this type are often identified with two-member elliptical sentences. But in the elliptical sentence *Marvelous = It is marvelous!* , while in the one-member sentence *Marvelous = I consider the situation marvelous!*

c) **adverbial** sentences. This kind of sentences is used only in stage directions to describe a scene or a situation (*In the garden*).

d) **verbal** sentences expressed by non-finite forms of the verb, mostly by an infinitive (*To think that he would meet her again*).

Simple sentences, both two-member and one-member can be **unextended** and **extended**. A sentence which comprises only a subject and a predicate is called an unextended sentence (*The air was still*). A sentence which besides principal parts of speech comprises some secondary parts is called an extended sentence (*He went to school every day*).

There exist two types of sentence division: **syntactic (**or **grammatical) division** and **actual division**. The division of the sentence into notional parts can be called the "nominative division". The nominative division of the sentence is traditional.

The idea of actual division of the sentence has been put forward in theoretical linguistics. The purpose of the actual division of the sentence, called also the "functional sentence perspective", is to reveal the correlative significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of their actual informative role in an utterance.

The main components of the actual division of the sentence are the **theme** and the **rheme**. The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i.e., it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication, its contextually relevant centre.

The theme of the actual division of the sentence may or may not coincide with the subject of the sentence. The rheme of the actual division of the sentence may or may not coincide with the predicate of the sentence – either with the whole predicate group or its part, such as the predicative, the object, the adverbial.

The actual division of the sentence finds its full expression only in a concrete context of speech; therefore it is sometimes referred to as the "contextual" division of the sentence.

In the conditions of the close connection of the actual division of the sentence with the context it is possible to divide the informative parts of the communication on the principle of their being "known" (theme) or "known" (rheme) to the listener. The distinction between the theme and the rheme is in the position in the sentence. The rheme is placed towards the end of the sentence, while the theme is positioned at the beginning of it. The reversed order of the actual division, i.e. the positioning of the rheme at the beginning of the sentence, is connected with emphatic speech (*Magic words you are speaking now!*).

Articles divide their functions in the actual division of the sentence, so that the definite article serves as the identifier of the theme while the indefinite article serves as the identifier of the rheme (*The boy entered the room – A boy entered the room*).

According to the nominative division of the sentence we distinguish the principal parts, secondary parts and independent elements. The primary or principal parts of a sentence are those whose function is to make the predication, i.e., the subject and the predicate. The secondary parts are the attribute, the object and the adverbial modifier. While the subject and the predicate make the predication, and thus constitute the sentence, the secondary parts serve to expand it.

A University Grammar of English (R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, J. Svartvik) distinguishes 7 types of sentences (clause types):

$$\begin{array}{llll} & S & V_{intens} & A_{place} \\ 1.\ SVA & Mary & is & in\ the\ house \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{llll} & S & V_{intens} & C \\ 2.\ SVC & Mary & is & kind \\ & & & a\ nurse \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{llll} & S & V_{monotrans} & O_d \\ 3.\ SVO & He & caught & the\ ball \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lllll} & S & V_{monotrans} & O_d & A_{place} \\ 4.\ SVOA & She & put & the\ plate & on\ the\ table \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lllll} & S & V_{complex\ trans} & O_d & C \\ 5.\ SVOC & We & have\ proved & him & wrong \\ & & & & a\ fool \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lllll} & S & V_{ditrans} & O & O_d \\ 6.\ SVOO & She & gives & me & expensive\ presents \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} & S & V_{ditrans} \\ 7.\ SV & The\ child & laughed \end{array}$$

(S – subject, V – verb, C – complement, O – object, A – adverbial).

Parts of the sentence

Principal parts of the sentence
The Subject

The subject and the predicate are the two principal parts of a two-member sentence. The subject is grammatically independent of any other part of the sentence. The second

principal part of the sentence – the predicate agrees with the subject in person and number.

The subject is expressed by a noun-word denoting the thing (in the widest sense of the word) characterized by the predicate as to its action state or quality:

The train stopped…

The subject may be expressed by:

A noun in the case: *The gardens* glow with flowers…

A pronoun: *This* is the valley of the Blythe. The pronoun *it* is used in impersonal sentences as a purely grammatical formal subject: *It is early (spring, warm,* etc.*)*.

A numeral: *Two* were indeed young… *The first* was a tall lady with dark hair…

d) A substantivized adjective or participle: *The grey* of earth and sky had become deeper, more profound.

An infinitive: *To wash* in icy water was agony…

A gerund: *Walking* is a healthy exercise.

Any other word when it is substantivized: *And* is a conjunction.

A syntactical word-combination (неразложимое синтаксическое предложение): *Twice two* is four. *How to do this* is a difficult question.

Here also belong such cases when a noun is connected with another noun by means of the preposition *with* which indicates that the predicate refers to both nouns jointly: *A young* **woman with two children** *is coming up the street.*

h) A group of words: *A number of books, a quarter of an hour, the middle of the room, none of you, neither of my friends, one of her pupils, most of the morning, etc.*

f) Infinitival, gerundial or participial complex (complex subject).

The Predicate

The predicate is the second principal part of the sentence. It serves to assert something about the subject and has a definite grammatical structure. The predicate always comprises a verb in the finite form, denoting the categories of person, mood and tense.

Classification. With regard to its meaning the predicate expresses either a) processes developing in time (*He* **walked** *up and down the room*) or b) a qualitative characteristic of the subject (*The breeze* **was light**). Accordingly there are two main types of the predicate: a) verbal and b) nominal.

With regard to its structure the predicate may be simple or compound.

A simple predicate is a predicate in which both its lexical and grammatical meaning are expressed in one word (*I* **saw** *her stop*). A compound predicate is a predicate in which the lexical meaning is expressed in one word – a notional word, and the grammatical meanings (person, mood, tense, etc.) are expressed in another word – a semi-notional word.

The verbal predicate is primarily simple, but it may also be compound. The nominal predicate is always compound (*She **was late***).

The notional part of a compound verbal predicate expressed by an infinitive a participle denotes an action performed or suffered by the subject.

The semi-notional part comprises a finite verb with a modal or aspective character. Accordingly there are two types of compound verbal predicates: modal (*He **could hear***) and aspective (*The rain **began to descend** heavily*).

The nominal predicate denotes a certain state or quality of the subject, it is a qualifying predicate: *She **was a brilliant and original teacher.*** The nominal predicate consists of a predicative and a link-verb. The link-verb has no independent meaning; its function is to connect the subject with the predicative and to express all the grammatical categories of the finite verb. The predicative serves to characterize the subject. The predicative is expressed by:

A noun in the common case:

*It was **a perfect morning***

A pronoun:

*The house **was** no longer **theirs***

A noun or a pronoun with a preposition:

*A part of this door was **of glass**.*

d) A numeral:

*We were only **three** at table…*

An adjective or a participle:

*The spring was **late** that year.*

An infinitive:

*Our intention is **to help** you.*

A gerund:

*Our aim is **mastering** grammar.*

An adverb (such as *in, out, up, over, so-so*, etc.; also the interrogative adverb *how*):

*… my guardian was **out**…*

i) A whole syntactical word-combination:

They were all above the average height.

A complex predicative. Sometimes the predicative is express by an infinitival or gerundial complex:

"*That is **for me to decide***"

Secondary parts of speech

The secondary parts of the sentence are: the object, the attribute, and the adverbial modifier.

The object

1.   The object is a secondary part of the sentence which stands in close relation to a verb, completing, restricting or in any other way modifying its meaning. The object

refers to a) a finite verb – the predicate of the sentence (*The old lady looked **at the child***); b) to a non-finite part of the verb – the infinitive, gerund or participle in any of their functions in the sentence (*It has been splendid meeting **you** here*); c) to some adjectives (*Tom was good **to her***) and nouns of verbal or adjectival nature (*promise, surprise, hope, doubt, trust, possibility, certainty,* etc.) (*She remembered her promise **of a wedding present***).

The object may be expressed by:
a) A noun: *She cleared **the path;***
b) A pronoun: *He gazed **at her** in surprise;*
c) A numeral: *They found **the two** in the room;*
d) A substantivized adjective: *I'll do **my best** to make you comfortable ;*
e) An infinitive: *He had promised **to join** her;*
f) A gerund: *They talked **of going** somewhere else;*
g) A syntactical word-combination: *He watched **the two of them;***
h) A complex object: *You make **me feel happy.***

In modern English we find the following kinds of objects:
1) The direct object. A noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case that completes the meaning of a transitive verb is called a direct object: *I help **her**.*
2) The indirect object. It usually denotes the person towards whom the action of the finite verb is directed: *They sent **us** (indirect) a telegram.*

The indirect object cannot be used without the direct object. It has a fixed place in the sentence – it precedes the direct object.

The prepositional indirect object (the to-phrase) follows the direct object: *He gave all his money **to his mother**.*

The Attribute

The attribute is a secondary part of the sentence which denotes the qualities of a person or thing expressed by a noun (or pronoun) in any of its functions in the sentence. An attribute may be expressed by:
a) An adjective: *A **little round** clock ticked solemnly;*
b) A participle: *The **frozen** ground was hard as stone;*
c) A pronoun: ***Her** face was pale;*
d) A numeral: ***Two** days went by;*
e) A noun in the possessive case: ***My mother's** youngest brother came in;*
f) An adjectivized noun: *It was a delicious **winter** night;*
g) *A girl **in a cotton dress** ran up to him;*
h) An infinitive: *There is only one thing **to be done;***
i) A gerund with a preposition: *The rain showed no sign **of stopping;***
j) An adverb: *Birds were singing in the trees **outside;***
k) An infinitival or gerundial complex: *He spread a rug **for his wife to sit on;***

The adverbial modifier

The adverbial modifier is a secondary part of the sentence which modifies the verb-predicate: *She walked **fast between the flowers.***

According to their meaning adverbial modifiers may be classified as follows:

a) adverbial modifiers of place: ***Outside** it was getting dark;*

b) adverbial modifiers of time: ***Yesterday** I went to school;*

c) adverbial modifiers of manner or attending circumstances: *She drove **at full speed**;*

d) adverbial modifiers of degree: *I was very happy;*

e) adverbial modifiers of cause: *He **therefore** gave his horsemen orders to advance;*

f) adverbial modifiers of purpose: *She strained her ears **to catch** the words;*

g) adverbial modifiers of measure: *He was now **a hundred yards** from the water;*

h) adverbial modifiers of result: *Ben was too busy **to hear** him now;*

i) adverbial modifiers of condition: ***In case of your absence** I shall leave you a note;*

An adverbial modifier may be expressed by:

a) An adverb: *They walked **silently**;*

b) A prepositional phrase: *He walked away **into the forest;***

c) A noun expressing extent, distance, time, price, etc.: *He wandered **miles** and **miles;***

d) A participle: ***Having finished** dinner, he sat with his cigar;*

e) A gerund with a preposition: ***On arriving** home, he stopped to look at the gate view;*

f) An infinitive: *Paul went **to meet** his friends the next afternoon;*

g) A syntactical word-combination: *We went home **early in the evening.***

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