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ENGLISH GRAMMAR: THEORY AND USAGE

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**O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS
TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI**

A. G. MAKSUMOV

ENGLISH GRAMMAR: THEORY AND USAGE



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Ministry of Higher and Secondary Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan by its Order № 107 from March 14, 2012, recommended it as a text-book for students of Foreign Languages Departments of Universities and Pedagogical Institutes.

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Preface

In preparing this book it has been the purpose of the author to make a concise students' grammar of English, designed for learning in high schools in which, there is need of a systematic course in the subject.

Attempts have been made to tell or acquire a little history, prescription, description of the English language, and mainly its grammar. The author's aim is to capture not only practical and theoretical, but pedagogical goals in teaching.

From the first items the students are introduced to the notions-language as a whole and its components, the way of forming various types of usage of morphological and syntactical units, then their peculiar properties.

So, too, under grammatical categories — number, case, gender, tense, aspect, order, determiners, etc.; the notions of emotives, statives, syntax of parts of speech, syntax of one-member, elliptical sentence structures and so on, the various uses and approaches are mentioned.

In morphological and certain syntactical matters will be found abundant material for elaboration; where grammatical terms and treatment are introduced in advance of later concepts; the teacher will give such oral explanation as may be supposed necessary.

Many of the ideas presented by the author in this treatise are not new. They are part of general tradition of grammar by classic linguists in Britain that goes back to E.Allen, R.Lowth, L.Murray, A.Mason, H.Sweet, O.Espersen, E.Kruisinga, H.Poutsma, A.Nichols, A.Pooley, B.Vorlat and Russian scholars L.V.Scherba, B.A.Ilyish, L.S.Barkhudarov, B.Khaimovich, B.Rogovskaya and others. Even the details of certain exercises can be found in their publications.

Thanks to their laborious contribution the English language was studied step by step descriptively, prescriptively and scientifically. Though the author's views and observations include both in the presentation and publications, much of the information given is derived from the numerous sources quoted in the references.

The author agrees with those scholars that, if one wishes the youngsters to know what an apple is, the best way is to show them the apple rather than to try to give an idea of it after the manner of the book.

English theoretical grammar book consists of a preface, three chapters, summaries to morphological and syntactical components, glossary of linguistic terms, topics for discussion in seminars and exercises for them and references.

Part I is intended to provide some theoretical knowledge of notions – language, detailed approach to the dichotomy of language and speech, the notion of grammar, the historical overview of the foundations of grammar, grammar repertoire of grammatical means for the formulation of ideas.

Part II is intended to the review of parts of speech. In some cases the matter has been reset and certain items have been expanded for the need of modern times. The aim is to supply the student with such information which will enable her/him to form judgments on some diverse grammatical controversies.

Part III refers to the matters of syntax, which consists of more detailed prescriptive, descriptive and pedagogical guide for would-be teachers and philologists.

In composing this treatise the author holds the view «learning by doing», i.e. the theoretical concepts should be acquired by doing the supplied exercises for each item of the theoretical grammar.

The questions for topics have been compiled under the various sections to which they refer, as a further help to students. They will help to foster her/his competence in facing problems of grammar.

The exercises are presented to intend not only to stimulate the students' intelligence, but in many cases to familiarize with the «infinite variety» of expressions found in literature.

The author is firm in his belief that the exercises given for morphology and syntax in analysis should be oral rather than written for the help in understanding the seminars questions.

The book is an attempt to present the essentials of English grammar in a form of suitable for understanding and a pedagogical guide in high schools. The acquisition of the grammatical structure of the language in a complex way theoretically, practically and pedagogically will meet the requirements of the subject as they are today.

The students who follow this course, under intelligent teacher or professors, may not only lay the foundation of a rational knowledge of English, but improve their scope of this matter, which to be made effective in his/her own use and presenting the language.

In the making of this book I have had the hearty cooperation of some of my colleagues in the English department, Prof. T.Q.Sattarov, Prof. U.Q.Yusupov, Prof. J.J.Jalolov, Prof. M.Rasulova, Dr. A.Sadikov, Dr. A.Ismailov, Dr. G.Satimov, whose sound scholarship has contributed no little to greater conciseness and accuracy of statements.

I am very grateful to Miss Dilrabo Alimova who has typed the treatise for the composition of the book.

A.G.M.

Preface to the Second Edition

In general the strulure of the text-book remains saame as that of the first edition. A number of small changes have been made through-out.

They are in the part I to the levels of language; in the part II to the grammatical structure of English (grammatical inflexion).

In the «Morphology» to the classification of nouns, problem of case and number; In pronouns, verbs-the category of tense, aspect, voice, mood, non-finite forms (infinitive, participle), adverbs, the function words and to the summary of morphology.

More additions are made in the Part III. They refer to phrases and classification types of sentences: simple sentence; compound and complex. Then certain additions are given to the problem of one-member and elliptical sentences.

The last addition is made in the references. New edited literature are included both to Russian and English languages literature printed after 2000 and later.

In conclusion I would like to acknowledge the enormous amount of help I had from my colleagues Dr. Sadikor A.S., and Dr. Quldashev A.M. from USWLU for their comment and suggestions that have improved the draft version of the text-book.

A.G.M.

INTRODUCTION

Linguistics is the study to describe, explain and interpret the faculty of language. Traditionally, linguistic study was motivated by the correct description of a liturgical (philological) language: notably that of Sanskrit grammar by Panini (4th century BC), ancient Greece, Arab and China developed their own grammatical traditions.

Modern linguistics began to develop in the 18th century and comes to flower in the «golden age of philology» of the 19th century.

Language is human speech, either spoken or written. Language is the most common system of communication. It allows people to talk to each other and to write their thoughts and ideas. The word «language» may be loosely used to mean any system of communication, such as traffic lights or Indian smoke signals. But the origin of the word shows its basic use. It comes from the Latin word «lingua», meaning «tongue». Wherever a human society, there is language. Language has made possible the development of advanced technological civilization. Without language for communication, there would be little or no science, religion, commerce, government, art, literature and philosophy.

Due to linguistic literature there are about 7000 languages spoken in the world today. This number does not include dialects. No one knows how language began. Because all people who are not disabled have the ability to speak, language has probably existed at least as long as the modern human species. Most scholars believe that language developed very slowly from sounds, such as grunts, barks and hools, made by pre-human creatures; in fact, there is no record of language for most of its existence (Trudgill and Hannah, 2007).

Linguistics classify language into families. Indo-European is the most widespread language family. English is the West-Germanic language originating in England and is the first language for most people in the United Kingdom and as well as in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland and in Anglophone countries – Asia, Africa and so on.

It is used as a second language and as a world wide language in many international organizations, in communications, science, business, aviation (air-speak), sea-speak, police-speak in ambulance services, radio and diplomacy.

The Anglo sphere: it is said about 460 million people speak English as the first language. English today is the third largest language by number of native speakers after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish.

The countries with the highest population of native English speakers are: in descending order – the United States (about 220 million), the UK (58-59 million), Canada (18,5 million), Ireland (7 million), South Africa (3,7 million) and New Zealand (3,0–3,7 million).

Countries such as Jamaica and Nigeria also have millions of native speakers. India has the most such speakers. D. Crystal claims that combining native and non-native speakers, India now has more people (1991), who speak or understand English than any other country in the world.

People communicate their thoughts by means of words, which they use in spoken and written language. Language is the treasure given to the humans. Human is the only creature that has the power of speech. And this speech is based on the presence of speech sounds. Although most animals are capable of uttering some sort of sound, still man is distinguished from the rest creation in being able to express his thoughts by means of articulate sounds.

Any language consists of certain components. Linguistically all components (phonology, grammar, lexicology and stylistics) are objects of interest, learning and all are of equal value.

A spoken variety of a language is realized in the use of these components. Any system of such components and their modificational possibilities constitute a grammar of that variety of a language.

Grammar (from the Greek «*gramma*», a letter) is the science which investigates words. It may also be considered as an art which teaches us how to speak and write with accuracy and taste. The science of grammar includes various considerations, — for example, it deals with the manner in which words are built up from letters; it deals with the classification of words according to their different uses, what changes they undergo in order to vary their application, and from what sources they are derived: it also considers how words are combined in sentences to express our thoughts correctly.

Hence we shall have to study Grammar under several sections or items:

Language

Morphology

Syntax

There are two divisions of Grammar: Morphology is the division of grammar, which deals (a) with inflections, or the varieties of form which they undergo to mark changes in the grammatical relation; (b) with the words and their classification into definite part of speech; (c) with the identification of the individual properties of each part of speech.

Syntax deals (a) with the classification and analysis of sentences; (b) with the synthesis of sentences; (c) the structure of sentences depends upon three parameters:

- a) the agreement of words or concord;
- b) the government of words;
- c) the arrangement of words.

Short History of the English Language

The growth and development of a language should be studied alongside with the history of the people that speak it. Can one say that the history of a language begins with its coming into

existence? No, one cannot. Its history begins with writing that is when there exist written documents.

A would be teacher of English or philologist should deal with, in general, the political, social and cultural influences which have combined to make the language what it is. The question arises: if English belongs to Germanic branch, why wasn't it called «German»? The answer to this question we get from the written documents of the OE history.

Section A

Relation of English to Other Languages

The various languages spoken by mankind admit of being grouped together in certain great families, the members of each of which resemble each other more or less closely in the words used to express ideas, and in the grammatical framework of forms and inflexions by which the words are combined.

One of these families of languages the one with which we are most concerned – has been called the *Indo-European* family. This family as the name of *Indo-European*, implies, falls into two divisions – *Asiatic* and *European*.

The chief living languages of the European division are:

(i) *Celtic* spoken in Wales, the Scottish Highlands, Isle of Man, Ireland and Brittany.

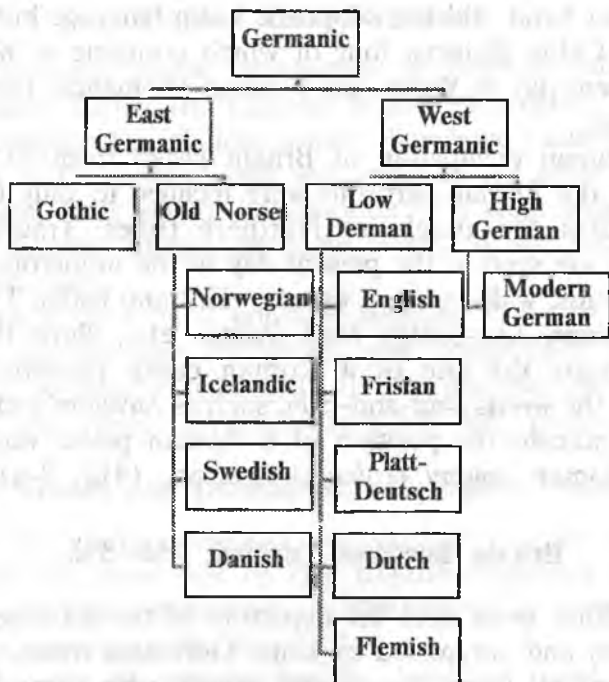
(ii) *Hellenic* in Greece.

(iii) *Italic* or *Romanic* in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal and Roumania.

(iv) *Germanic* or *Teutonic* in England, Germany, Holland, Scandinavia and Iceland.

(v) *Slavonic* in Russia, Poland, Servia, Bulgaria and Bohemia.

The *Germanic* group, which includes English, has been classified as follows:



English, which has passed through three stages of growth — Old English, Middle English, and New or Modern English is thus seen to belong to the Low German branch of the Germanic group or stock and the languages that resemble it most closely are Frisian (spoken in North Holland), Dutch, Platt-Deutsch (spoken on the West Baltic coast) and Flemish (spoken in Belgium).

Section B

Historical Summary

The earliest inhabitants of whom we have any record were of Celtic race, like the people of the neighbouring country of Gaul, and spoke various dialects of the Celtic group of languages. Both countries — Britain and Gaul — were conquered by the Romans and became part of the Roman Empire. The Britons,

on the other hand, did not adopt the Latin language but retained their own Celtic dialects, four of which continue to be spoken at the present day in Wales, the Scottish Highlands, Isle of Man and Ireland.

The Roman occupation of Britain lasted from 43 A.D. to 410, when the Roman garrisons were recalled to Italy to defend Rome against the attacks of Northern tribes. Traces of this occupation are seen at the present day in the numerous remains of paved roads, walls, towers, camps, villas and baths. The place-names *Chester*, *Lan-caster*, *Man-chester*, etc., show that these places occupy the site of a Roman camp (*castra*). Names containing the words *strat-and-coln*, such as *Stratford* and *Lincoln*, generally indicate the position of a Roman paved way (*strata*) or of a Roman colony (*colonia*) (Mason, 1913, 2-6).

Britain Becomes England, 450–550

About forty years after the departure of the Romans, Britain was invaded and conquered by some Germanic tribes, generally distinguished as *Jutes*, *Saxons* and *Angles*, who came from the districts we now call North Holland (or Friesland) and Schleswig-Holstein, and from the country between the rivers Elbe and Eider.

Those of the Celtic inhabitants who did not submit to the invaders were driven into the remote mountainous corners of the island, especially Wales, Cornwall, Strathclyde, Cumberland and the Scottish Highlands. The Germanic invaders thus occupied the greater part of the country and their language became the dominant one.

In this language three groups of dialects may be distinguished:

- The *Anglian* group in the North, including Northumbrian and Mercian.
- The *Saxon* group in the South, the most important of which was the Wessex.
- The *Kentish* dialect, Kent having been, according to tradition, settled by the Jutes.

Empire, Trade, Science

The expansion of the island-state of England into a great world empire during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and the commercial relations which they have established with every part of this empire and with most of the other countries of the world, have led to the adoption of a great many foreign words to describe foreign products, works of art, customs and social institution.

In science there is a constant demand for new words by which to describe new inventions, new compounds, new processes, etc. As their own English tongue has lost the power of supplying new words, this opportunity has been given to Greek.

The Growth and Development of English Grammar

From the above historical summary it will be seen how profoundly the structure of the English language has been modified and how enormously its vocabulary has been enriched during the course of its history.

For the sake of convenience the historical development of English may be arranged under three heads:

- (i) **Old English (O.E.) 450-1066,**
 - (ii) **Middle English (Mid. E.) 1066-1500,**
 - (iii) **Modern English (Mod. E.) 1500-**,
- each of which will now be briefly considered.

Old English, 450-1066

Old English was a highly inflected language, like Latin and Greek. For instance, the genitive singular, which in modern English is denoted by «'s», was in O.E. indicated variously by *-es*, *-e*, *-re*, or *-an*, and sometimes by a change of vowel, e.g. *boc* (book), genitive *bec*. There were other endings for the genitive plural, as *-a*, *-ra*, *-na*.

The nominative plural, again, presented the same variety, *-as*, *-e*, *-a*, *-an* and *-u*, according to the gender of the noun, while some nouns changed the root-vowel and others had the

plural exactly like the singular. There was a special ending for the dative case, both singular and plural. Adjectives were declined when used with the noun, as in modern German.

In verbs, the infinitive was marked by an ending *-an*, *-ian*, etc., and the past participle was distinguished by a prefix *ge-* as well as by a suffix (cf. German *ge-sraf-t*, *ge-bog-en*).

Towards the end of this period the grammatical structure of Old English was considerably modified owing to the Danish invasions. The English and the Danes were able to understand each other, but as their understanding was based on a similar vocabulary, the niceties of grammar would be sacrificed.

From 800 onwards the influence of the Scandinavian settlements in England began to make itself felt. The similarity between O.E. and Old Norse was very great, in fact, there was an enormous number of words that were identical in the two languages, so that the invaders would have little difficulty in the understanding the natives (Mason, 1913, 8).

In cases where the forms for the same word differed slightly, both forms have been preserved, e.g. *from* and *fro*; *shirt* and *skirt*; *shot* and *scot*; *edge* and *egg* (verb). In other cases the Scandinavian word is found in dialect only, as in *true* and *trigg*; *church* and *kirk*; *leap* and *loup*. In the event of a struggle between two words, Scand. and Eng., sometimes the Scand. word supplanted the Eng., as *egg* (noun) for *ey*; *give* for *yive*; *on loft* (=aloft) for *on the lifte*; *sister* for *swuster*.

More often however, the native word survived, as *goat* for *gayte*; *few* for *fa* or *fo*; *worse* for *werre*; *star* for *sterne*.

Middle English, 1066–1500

We come to the eventful epoch of the Norman Conquest. It can not only be called *eventful* in national, social, political and human terms, but also in linguistic terms. English became a bilingual country.

When, after almost disappearing for more than a century after the Norman Conquest, English begins to reappear as a literary language about 1200, it was an English very different

in its Grammar from O.E. The process of simplification, which had begun after the Danish invasions, was continued and wasn't confined to one district only, but became *universal*. All the case-endings, given above, had either disappeared and had been *levelled* down to the colourless ending *-e*. The various rulers for the formation of the plural were reduced, with a few exceptions, to one.

Modern English from 1500

About 1500 the English language became fixed in very much the same form as it has now. What this form is and how it has been modified as time has gone on, it will be the object of the following chapters to show.

About 100 years after Chaucer came two events which had a most serious effect on English spelling. *The first of these* was the introduction of the *printing-press* into England by Caxton in 1476. Caxton himself was consistent in his spelling, but his successors were careless and ignorant, and often spelled the same word in different ways on the same page.

The second event was, due to C.P. Mason's «Intermediati English Grammar» Ldn., 1922, the **Revival of Learning** (circ. 1500) already referred to. This caused the introduction of hundreds of Latin and Greek words, which were nearly all spelt in the old Latin way. A terrible confusion in spelling was the result. Each writer spelt as it «seemed right in his own eyes» according to the English or French or Latin system of spelling. At last about the beginning of the seventeenth century, just before authorized version of the Bible was printed (1611), the printers adopted a system of spelling which, with a few trifling exceptions, has ever since been retained (see Mason, 1913, 11).

From this short Introduction we may conclude that English developed from Anglo-Saxon and is Germanic language. However, all the invading peoples, particularly the Norman French, influenced the English language and one can find many words in English which are French in origin.

Nowadays all Welsh, Scottish and Irish people speak English (even they speak their own language as well), but all the countries

have their own special accents (pronunciation manners) and dialects. Irrespective of these differences in the pronunciation of words and the use of certain words, the above mentioned countries people are easily recognizable as soon as they speak. A Southern English accent (or RP) is generally accepted to be the most easily understood neutral accent, and is the accent usually taught to foreigners as the language learning/teaching model.

Part I

Language: its Definition and Levels

- Language and its object.
 - Definition of the notion «language»: human and non-human languages and their peculiarities.
 - The structural system of language. The levels of language.
- Linguistics is the study of language or the science of language.

A language is a particular kind of system for encoding and decoding information. Since language and languages became of an object of study by ancient grammarians and philosophers of India, Greece, Rome, and Medieval times by Arab, Persian investigators, the notion has had many and different definitions.

The English word «language» derives from Latin «lingua» (meaning «language, tongue»). It is worth mentioning that there were opposed definitions to the origin of language. One *opinion* declares that the language was the result of activities of more animal-like human ancestors. Greek philosopher Aristotle believes that language was *part of the nature of man*, related to their natural properties. Other specialists (John Locke, Thomas Hobbes) and *others* said that language was an extension of the «speech» that humans have within themselves as *part of the reason*, one of the primary characteristics of human nature.

In Hobbes Thomas man proceeded to learn on his own initiative all the words not taught by God: «figures, measures, colours...» which were told by «need, the mother of all inventions». Hobbes identified the ability of self instruction as reason (Hobbes, 2008 [1651]).

The others have argued the opposite that reason developed out of the need for more complex communication. Languages may be human – non-human. It is said that only human, man possesses the power of speech. Some scholars assume that there

exist *two attributes which* differ human from non-human communication. Phoneme coding and syntax (arrangement of words). But more consciously I may conclude there are *three attributes* which differ human language from animal communication.

- Phoneme coding (or phoneme production);
- Morphological paradigms of words (i.e. conjugations and declensions of words or word forms);
- Syntax of word classes (or arrangement).

Human languages are usually referred to as natural languages, and the science of studying those falls under the job of linguistics. A common progression for natural languages is that they are considered to be first spoken and then written and then an understanding and explanation of their rules for combining words for various situations – grammar is attempted.

The term «language» has branched by analogy into several meanings (Language. American Heritage Dictionary of English Language (3rd ed.) Boston 1992). The most obvious manner is the spoken form, such as English, French, German, Spanish, Slavish, Turkish, Chinese, Japanese, etc. However there are also written languages and other systems of visual symbols as sign languages (Bloomfield, 1922).

Roman Jakobson portrays language as code in which sounds (signantia) signify concepts (signate). Due to the scholar language is the process of encoding signata in the sounds forming the signantia and decoding from signantia to segnata.

When discussed as a general phenomenon then «language» may simply a particular of human thought that can present even when communication is not the result, and this way of thinking is also sometimes treated as indistinguishable from language itself.

Linguistics, *firstly*, refers to a system of the things, events and processes of the human environment; *secondly*, it interprets nature, manner and functions of languages and dialects (even accents) which are in use or have been used by various speech communication throughout the world.

In other resources language is regarded as a *system of elements* (or units) such as sounds – phonemes, words, etc. These units

have no value without each other. They depend on each other. They exist only in a system. System implies the characterization of a complex objects (i.e. the language) made up of separate parts (i.e. the system of sounds). The analyses of a language system is possible only by examining and comparing actual manifestation of language as represented by samples of speech or text.

Every human being is a member of a social group and depends on all social activities in the use of language (Bloch, 1942, 5-9). Language is a complex multimeaning and multiaspectual entity (Юцынов, 2007, 29). Thus language is the link between his/her unconnected nervous system. Without society every human being is unthinkable. Every community is formed by the activities of language. It is primarily a tool for interaction. And every act of the human activity is worthy of study.

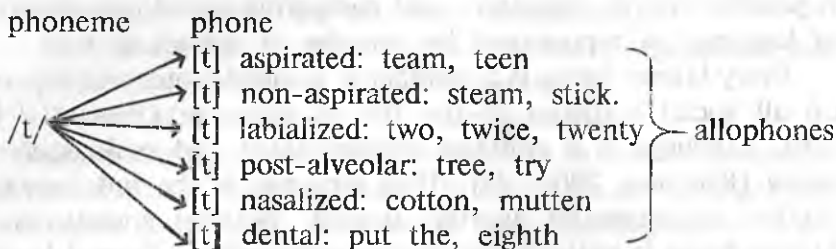
The primary business of linguistics is to describe language structures and trace their development from historical and comparative points of view; linguistics is also an explanatory science; linguists wish to determine why sounds and meanings change and how linguistic structures develop.

Traditional linguistic theory operates with two kinds of material: the first is *sound structure*. Almost any sound that the human vocal organs can produce is used in some way and functions for certain purposes.

The second is *ideas, social situation, meanings* (Gleason, 1955, 5-9). These are termed as «expression» and «content». The dual structure of language (expression-content) can be best illustrated the levels of language. Language is a structural system. Structure means hierarchy layering of parts in constituting the whole. In any language due to its structure there are four-five main structural levels: phonetico-phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactical, stylistics.

1. The phonetico-phonological level is the lowest level. It studies the smallest meaningless units of language and speech. The smallest meaningless unit of language is a «phoneme». This unit is studied in phonology and is an abstract unit. The phoneme symbols are marked in slanting /.../ lines: / t /, / l /.

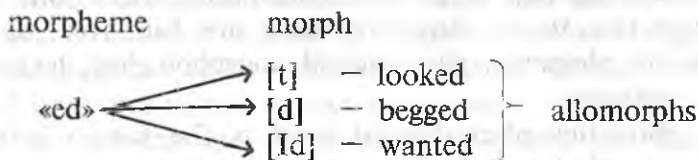
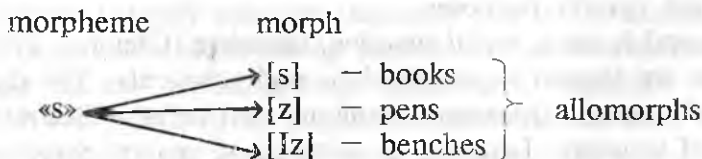
The smallest meaningless unit of speech is a speech sound or a phone. They are marked in the square brackets [...]. Phones or speech sounds are used in the subfield of phonetics and they are concrete as they are realized in words.



Phones or speech sounds used in these words are termed as allophones of the phoneme /t/, because they are influenced by the neighboring speech sounds.

2. Grammar consists of two main parts: morphology and syntax.

The morphological level studies the smallest meaningful units of language and speech. The language unit is called a «morpheme»: «-s», «-ed», «-er», «-est», «-ing». Morphemes are abstract elements of language, whereas morphs (allomorphs) are their concrete realizations in a speech act or text.



A morpheme is a two-sided unit: meaning and forms of expression. The ending «-s» has a sense. It denotes plurality of nouns. But in speech this morpheme is expressed in three ways:

- voiceless [s] sound is uttered after the voiceless consonant
- voiced [z] sound is uttered after the voiced consonant
- after the sounds [ts] [dz] the ending [Iz] is uttered.

The ending «-ed» has a sense and denotes a past action done by the verb to the morpheme; «er» has also a definite sense and is used in adjectives and certain adverbs to form degrees of comparison: light-lighter, long-longer.

3. Lexical level studies meaningful units which have nominative function, i.e. words or parts of speech. The language unit is called a «lexeme», the speech unit is a «lex», which express some idea, thought or meanings.

A language is regarded in this place as an instrument by means of which people can enter into communicative relations with one another. From this point of view language is primarily a pragmatic phenomenon – symbolic instrument used for communicative purposes, i.e. the ability to use morpheme, paradigms and expressions to form and interpret sentences for communication. In the written language a word is usually defined as a sequence of letters and it is an orthographic unit.

4. Syntax is the highest level. It studies the smallest communicative unit. Syntax is that part of grammar which treats of the rules according to which words are connected into sentence, and also of the various types of sentences, their structure and meaning.

Syntax is subdivided into syntax-minor and syntax-major. Language is an abstract, unwatchable system. It is «revealed» from the text, which is characterized by its individuality, singularity, originality, contextuality and non-repeatedness (Юцынов, 2007, 89).

The syntax-minor deals with the nature and types of sentences, the unit of syntax-major is a text. Text is the unit of the highest (supersyntactic) level. It can be defined as the sequences of sentences connected logically and semantically which convey a complete message. The text is a language unit. And it manifests itself in speech as discourse.

Linguists prefer to consider text the highest speech unit. Text hierarchially consists of sentences and phrases. They in turn are composed of words. Words are made up of morphemes. Morphemes are made up of phonemes — sounds.

Early Indian scholar Bhartrihari (c. 450–510) theorized the act of speech as being made up of four stages:

1) Conceptualization of an idea, 2) its verbalization and sequencing (articulation), 3) delivery of speech into atmosphere air, the interpretation of speech by the listener, 4) the interpreter.

Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creators and users. It grows and develops with the development of society. Thus, language is the speech of a particular person or nation.

Generally speaking each level has its own system. Therefore language is regarded as a system of systems. Grammar is one of the main components of language. The nature of language, i.e. the nature of grammar is an essential feature of reading, writing and speaking. It can't be separable from the vocabulary of the language.

Words are main units in speech. In speech a word is a naming and a smallest communicative unit which expresses some idea, thought or meanings. But knowing words does not mean that one knows the language well. One might know all the vocabulary of words in a small dictionary and still be quiet unable to speak language. For this case one must know how to assemble words in sentences and how to pronounce the communicative types of sentences.

Grammar is the particular knowledge that enables to do this. For example:

- If one takes the basic forms of words in the below sentence /I, they/room, question/to enter, to discuss, /first, then no means of communication will appear of them. In order to make up a real sensible sentence we, firstly, ought to deal with word order of notional words. Due to word order the sentence is constructed in such a way;

- *I enter room they discuss first question.*

Reading this construction we, secondly, feel the lack of grammatical words which we have to use. They are the affixes (inflections), conjunctions, articles, stresses and intonation patterns.

At last, the sentence will be constructed in such an intelligible form.

- *When I entered the room, they were discussing the first question.*

In this sentence we observe the use of all grammatical means and grammatical classes. Grammatical means organize the vocabulary and as a result the sentence has sense units. The unity of all these means makes up an intelligible sentence.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or signs, units), such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system.

Questions

- Tell the name of the science you study. What does it refer to?
- Does language belong only to humans? If not, why?
- Point out the main attributes between human and non-human communications.
- Try to interpret the notion that «language is a complex, multiaspectual entity».
- Why is it said in literature that «every act of human activity is worthy of study»?
- Mention the kinds of linguistic material the teacher deals with.
- What is meant by the notion of «structure»?
- Mention the opinions on the origin of the language.
- Describe components of language and point out their units.
- What procedures do we ought to fulfill to make up sensible sentences? Illustrate it with examples.

Language and Speech Dichotomy

- The distinction between the notions of language and speech
- The objectives of language

- The objectives of speech

To most people, language means speech. The word «language» itself comes from Latin «lingua», and its original meaning is that which is produced with the tongue (Pei, 1956, 16–18).

The distinction between language and speech or the language system (*la langue*) and the manifestation of spoken in speech of particular individuals (*la parole*), which was first introduced by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1916), have since become one of the corner stones of Modern linguistics.

Russian scholar L. Scherba in his article «On the trichotomical aspects of linguistic process» emphasized the necessity of viewing his three-membered formula against the two-membered of Saussure.

- *Rechevaya deyatelnost* (speech act), i.e. «speaking and understanding»;
- *Yazikovaya sistema* (language system under which he understands the dictionary words and grammars of languages);
- *Yazikovoy material* (i.e. the texts) (1974, 24–26).

Due to the status of language, there exist endless set of formulations, such as:

- A language is a collection of rules for putting morphemes together to form words and for putting words together to form sentences. These units or elements have no value without each other (Wright, 1981).
- Language is a structural system of phonology, lexis and grammar. Due to their structure these structural levels are represented by their own system. Therefore language is a system of systems.
- Language may also be expressed through writing, signing or even gestures in the case of people who have neurological disorders and may depend upon eye blinks or mouth movements and hand, head, actions to communicate.

While there are many languages in the world, each includes its own set of rules: phonology (phonemes or speech sounds) or in the case signed language, handshapes, bowing in greeting

and parting; morphology (word forms and word formation, syntax (phrase and sentence formation), semantics (word or sentence meaning), prosody (intonation, stress and rhythm of speech) and pragmatics (inflective use of language).

The British linguists even come to such conclusion «that language is and can only be, the outcome of countless single examples of speech (Gardiner, 1932, 112). B. Bloch understands the business of linguist in that «he only observes the way people actually say things, the grammatical constructions which they actually use, and the way they actually pronounce words» (1942, 6).

Thus language is knowledge, a code which is known and shared by people who use their knowledge for transmitting and interpreting messages in these events. It is useful to recognize the distinction between speech, an activity, and language, the code which makes communication possible through numerous speech acts.

Language is treasure and it is the source which every speaker and writer has to draw on if he/she wants to understand others and be understood by other speakers of the language.

- Speech is the verbal means of communicating. Speech is not the same as language. Speech is closely connected with language. The linguistic material for analysis is always a product of speech.

- Speech is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. There is no other way for linguists to get to language than through speech. Language and speech units characterize human community. These units are understood by all the members of the community; so these units are called a «social code».

- Speech, on the contrary, is individual, but it is based upon language, which exists in the minds of all speaking community. We can't see language neither hear it. We can use, express and get to it only through speech.

- Speech and language are tools that humans use to communicate or share thoughts, ideas and emotions. These notions

are realized through speech. Speech is the soul generator of language (Gardiner, 1952, 110).

During speaking we have to use all the linguistic means – phonological, lexical, grammatical and stylistic. They are interdependent. The unity of all these means – a system of paradigmatically correlated grammatical forms: Boy-boys-boy's formulate intelligible communication (phones → syllable → word → wordforms, phrases and sentences with the help of prosodic features). It is the system of subsystems.

• Speech is talking one way that language can be expressed by means of articulation, voice, fluency, pause and rhythm. «The real purpose of language» – asserts M. Pei, «is to carry meaning – to transfer thought from one human brain to another. If language does not do this, it is not language – it is just sound or light or meaningful gesture» (1956, 23-24).

Language can't exist wholly in one individual. There are relations within language. Here we mean the structure of various means and classes they form: girl, girls, girl's, girls'; sing-sang-sung, sings, song, singing. They are written down with a vertical way.

Speech is a system of syntagmatic relations. They are always linear (horizontal) as we study foreign languages at middle and high schools.

A.Sullivan is right when he thinks that «speech is the best, simplest most convenient way of transferring ones thoughts to others through articulation. One may want to describe what people do when they are speaking, an activity, carried on by people who use English for communication» (Speech, 1984, 334).

In the sentences – the notions of information – words are arranged one after another due to certain prescriptive, orthographic and grammatical rules, which must be obeyed, if one wants to speak, talk and write the language correctly and intelligibly in the process of communication.

During the work of voicing of phoning machine two planes take part in: the plane of language and the plane of speech.

Standing together in linear order linguistic elements can make up a unity.

A person's voice serves at least *two functions* in communication. One is linguistic in that, it serves as the vehicle of the expression system of language. The other is *non-linguistic*, in that it carries information of quite different sort about the speaker: whether he/she is calm or nervous, energetic or dull, rude or soft, educated or ill-tempered and so forth.

On the one hand, we may want to describe what people do when they are speaking English. This is the aspect of speech, an activity. On the other hand, the characteristics of English words and sentences that are realized in speech is the aspect of language.

Language deals with the emic units – phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, phraseme, and sentaxeme. They are abstract, limited, unchangeable, common for all individuals and closed system.

Speech deals with etic units: phone – allophone, morph – allomorph, lex, phrase, sentence. They are concrete, individual, open system, endless, and changeable.

Language	Speech
Abstract	Concrete
Common	Individual
Limited	Unlimited
Stable	Unstable
Closed system	Open system

Questions

- What is meant by the notion of «language»?
- How can you interpret the phrase «system of systems»?
- What is meant by the sentence – «language is knowledge, a code which is known and shared by people»? Try to explain the each words – «knowledge», «code» and «share».
- Speak about the notion «speech» and its peculiarities. Why do the authorities distinction the dichotomy «language vs. speech»?

- How do we observe the properties of language and speech?
- Try to answer the question: which was first – language or speech? Give your reasons.
- What do we observe when we hear someone's speech?
- What properties of persons make someone think of another's?
- Enumerate the language units and illustrate them with examples.
- Mention the speech units, compare and define their non-identity.

The Notion of Grammar: Aims and Branches

- Definitions: ancient and modern.
- Practical and theoretical objectives of the English Grammar.

The word «grammar» in ancient Greek meant the «art of correct reading and writing» or «the methodical study of literature...including the investigation of literary history and antiquities, explanation of allusions, etc». As its sources themselves clearly indicate, the term was indeed equal to the term «philology» (the correct description of classical liturgical language) (Staal, 1986, 27).

In the Middle Ages grammar was the first subject of the trivium, which included also logic and rhetoric. Grammar, for medieval men, meant the «study of the Latin language and literature» (Pooley, 1957, 1–3).

Linguists have been studying grammar for centuries and it remains an object of learning for all the learners the world over. From the Greek and Romans of that time and as a result of prescriptions, i.e. the definition of what is wrong and right in language becomes a trend.

The first Europeans to write grammar texts were the Greeks. The Romans applied the Greek grammatical system to Latin. The works of the Latin grammarians Donatus (4th century AD) and Priscian (6th century) were widely used to teach grammar in Medieval Europe. Their laborious work is considered today

as a part of our everyday language think and such notions of as word, syllable, the verb, the subject, etc (Robins, 1997).

And naturally the question arises: What is Grammar? And why should the would be teacher or philologist concern themselves with this science?

From the second part of the 19th century grammar came to be understood as the subfield of emerging discipline of modern linguistics. In the 19th and 20th centuries linguists began studying languages to trace their evolution rather than to prescribe correct usage. Linguists of that time studied spoken language by collecting and analyzing various sentences.

Though many teacher education programs propagating the grammar as «the right way to talk», «proper grammar», «good English» the teachers are still struggling with some basic questions with respect to what to teach about language and grammar in the auditorium. The school teachers are still conflicted about the prescriptive vs. descriptive or traditional vs. new grammar instructions.

Now the notion of language is often used as the synonym of linguistics. Then the question arises – what does this study involve? In order to be through with language it is wise to teach grammar without imparting that some very basic and broader knowledge of workings of language, (i.e. how language is acquired of rules governing language variation) and language change of the history of prescriptive rules and standardization, the relationship between spelling and pronunciation and when grammar is studied not only practically and theoretically, but philologically and pedagogically, then the learners have a much better confidence and proficiency about the language, about grammar. Languages have rules. The rules of a language are called a «grammar».

For these reasons the would be teacher should know the notion of Grammar, its units, aims and functions properly. There are many definitions to the notion of Grammar.

Some of them are:

- Grammar is a subject studied at school. It teaches how to talk and write correctly.

- Grammar is learning the names for elements of the language – nouns, verbs, prepositions, and the like, and learning how they work together in phrases, clauses and sentences and so on.
- How do elements or parts of grammar interact with one another?
- A book that teaches these rules.

We may conclude that the *science Grammar* is the branch which contains a set of rules (morphology and syntax) that describes and explains for the people how to put words together to make up sentences for communication:

According to its purpose Grammar is subdivided into practical, pedagogical, theoretical and philological.

The *practical objectives* of Grammar are:

- the learner must acquire the notion of morphology, its objects and constituent parts, i.e. the parts of speech and their individual properties;
- learn properly the definitions of morphological units: the morpheme, its types and allomorphs;
- learn classification principles of morphemes from different points of view.
- define the grammatical categories of morphology, i.e. their form, meaning and use;
- define the grammatical words: their number, nature and behavior;
- define the nature of syntax, its constituent parts, their classification principles and tasks;
- define the rules of how the words can be (or can not be) combined in phrases, clauses and sentences.

The prominent British linguist Henry Sweet was right when he wrote: «the first business of Grammar is to observe facts or phenomena with which it has to deal and to classify and state them methodically (Sweet, 1900, p. XI).

In other words its aim is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. Such view on the purpose and methods of scientific grammar were

held in Otto Espersen's *Essentials of English Grammar*: «the object in teaching grammar today would appear to give rules which must be obeyed» (1933, 19).

Theoretical Grammar is for those who have already taken the normative course of practical grammar. The *objectives* of the *theory* of grammar are:

- it gives the analyses of facts of morphology and syntax;
- puts forward the different views and arguments proposed by the grammarians of older and newer periods on some morphological categories of the learning language;
- describes and gives critical analysis of the syntactical units of the English language;
- summarizes the theoretical approaches of grammarians on some aspects of English grammar;
- shows the good points and the shortcomings of ideas put forward by linguists on some arguments of grammar;
- and one needs to know Grammar to express oneself better in talking and communicating.

Thus, theoretical Grammar deals with the language as a functional system, which offers explanation for the prescriptive rules and concepts.

Questions

- What is meant by the notion of grammar? Give examples where the «grammar» can be proved.
- What grammar course do you study? Is there any difference between the grammars you have already had?
- What did the «grammar» mean in Ancient times and Middle Ages?
- Why do we or any person learn grammar?
- Is the grammar a special subject in education system of all the countries? Why? Do we need grammar? Give your reasons.
- Is there any difference in teaching grammar at school and high school? Prove their usage.
- Point out the main ways or approaches of learning grammar.
- What types of grammar must we learn due to its aim?

- Enumerate the objectives of practical grammar.
- Mention the objectives of theoretical grammar

Historical Development of English Grammar: Periodization

- Classical Grammar: Greek and Roman grammarians
- Port-Royal Grammar
- XVI–XVII centuries Grammar
- XVIII–XIX centuries Traditional Prescriptive Grammar
- Scientific Grammar
- English Grammar and its Branches

The Periodization of the English Grammar roughly may be divided into five periods. The first is *classical* grammar. It includes two periods: *prenormative* or the age of Early grammar.

In this period we can mention the names and the merits of Greek philosophers Aristotle, Protogor, Dionisiy Frakiyskiy, Ariastarh Samofrakiyskiy, Dionisiy Thrax; Roman linguists Varro, Priscian and many others. They distinguished the basic notions of phonetics, grammar, lexis and so on. Such as vowels, consonants and their types, parts of grammar and parts of speech. They tried to formulate those notions into definite system.

At that time Greek language was considered *lingua franca*, i.e. the language spoken in the known world of that time and as a results of prescription – definition of what is wrong and right in language become a trend. Step by step these philosophers made additions to the previous ideas (Staal, 1986, 27).

The Greeks distinguished the two main units of grammar: the *sentence* and the *word*. The word was regarded as the minimal unit of grammatical description, while the sentence was the upper stage of grammatical learning. The sentence was defined as expressing a complete thought. The constituents of the sentence were marked as «me'ros lo'gos», i.e. the parts of sentence.

The early scholars of India and Greece defined, *firstly*, two classes of words – noun and verb, *then* three word classes – nouns, verbs and conjunctions. (John E. Joseph, Vigel Love and

T.J.Taylor, (2001)). Both Plato and Aristotle contributed to the design of a curriculum beginning with good writing (grammar), then on discourse (rhetoric) and so on.

Later in III–II centuries the Greece scholars Dionisiy Thrax and Aristarh Samofrakiyskiy listed «eight parts of speech» and laid out the broad details of Greek morphology including the case structures. The text «Teknē grammatike» was intended as a pedagogic guide for Greek to native Latin speakers: noun, verb, participle, article, pronoun, preposition, adverb and conjunction (Robins, 1951, 39-40).

The learners must know that in that classification *there were no places for adjectives and numerals*. Because the Greek grammatical system included these word classes under the label «onoma» (noun). But it is said that ancient Greeks confused the levels of language categories of grammar with categories of logic (Newmeyer, 2005).

The inventory of parts of speech in the Thrax grammar, with minimal changes, was later applied to Latin which it suited fairly well. The Thrax grammar is a short practical manual of some 15 pages which concentrated on morphology and phonology.

The lack of a syntactic description was rectified in the work of Apollonius Dyskolos (2 century AD) who in turn was the model for the Priscian's Latin grammar in the VI century AD.

The grammar of that time was not considered a special science. In Middle ages grammar was the study of Latin. In England this conception of grammar continued until the end of the XVIth century. Latin grammar learned in schools. Until then there were no grammars of English.

The second period is connected with the appearance of the Universal Grammar of Port-Royal, which appeared in the 17th century (1660) in France. The authors of Port-Royal Arnold Antoine and Lancelot Claude lived at the Abbey Port-Royal. The first was the bishop and the second was a scholar and school master of several languages. He was the author of handbooks for learners of Latin (1644), Greek (1655), Italian and Spanish (1660).

The main advantage of the grammar was that the language structure was treated as a system. Many other grammar books appeared in some countries took the grammar of Port-Royal as a model (Pay, 1956).

Language education step by step changed for learning living languages among the intellectuals of Europe. Some modern subjects were not discussed in Latin at all. Countries speaking minority languages (e.g. England at that time) did not work hard to make themselves heard.

During the 18th and half of the 19th centuries the third type – normative (or prescriptive) *grammar* was appeared. This grammar stated strict rules of grammatical usage. To this period many grammatical features and phenomena of the English language had been described on the analogy of Latin grammar.

One of the earliest and the most popular Latin grammars written in English by William Lily, was published in the first half of the 17th century (1634), went through many editions. This grammar set a standard arrangement of language material of Latin paradigms with their English equivalents. John Wallis's of *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae* (1685) was the last English grammar written in Latin, so that Europeans could learn English and then could read.

At the beginning of the 18th century a new scheme of classification appeared in J. Brightland's grammar. The author astonishingly for that period reduced the inventory of parts of speech to *four*, rejecting the traditional terminology and put forward a new direction in the system of parts of speech. His four parts of speech included: names (nouns), *qualities* (adjectives), *affirmation* (verbs) and *particles*. In this classification principle the adjective was classed as a separate part of speech.

Traditionally grammarians devote a great deal of time and energy to sentence analysis. The notion of «sentence» was introduced and the grammar was concerned with the structure of the sentence. The sentence was divided dichotomically into *simple* and *compound*. The concept of the *compound sentence* denoted both complex and compound sentences.

Modern linguistics does not begin until the late 18th century. By the middle of this century, when many of the grammatical phenomena of English had been described, the early English grammar gave way to a new kind of grammar — «prescriptive (normative) grammar». Such grammar stated the strict rules of grammatical usage. The grammars of that type still constitute the only kind of grammar in use in the «practical teaching of English». «The 18th century was the» period which gave rise to the concept of «traditional grammar» and in which the rules of «correct» grammatical usage were first drawn up.

While the grammatical features and phenomena of the English language had been described on the analogy of Latin grammar, the prescriptive scholars (H.Sweet, P.Passy, W.Vietor, O.Espersen) turned their attention to the living languages of Europe.

Dr. A.A.Ismailov rightly mentions the grammarians (J.Harris, E.Vorlat and others) who tried to use in the analysis of language and grammar the scientific approach. But the scholar claims that «irrespective of the presence of elements of the scientific approach to the materials of language, they were not beyond the methodical character remaining the subject of school learning» (Исмаилов, 1980, 17–23).

We ought to evaluate the work of the authors like Robert Lowth (Short introduction to English grammar, 1762) and Lindley Murray (English Grammar Adopted to the Different Classes of Learners, 1795), who claimed that grammatical cases in English were different from those in ancient Greek and Latin. Later the early editions of C.P.Mason's English Grammars (1853) have been regarded as standard books on the subjects.

These manuals have shown that they supplied a want in the educational world. They were all distinguished by accuracy and clearness of definition. Yet the grammars had not escaped criticism. They became the textbook in almost every school. Such type of grammar was called school or practical grammar.

The aim of the prescriptive grammars was to reduce the English language rules and set up standard of correct usage. Their task

was not only to prescribe, to provide rules for expressions distinguishing what is «right» from what is «wrong», which they considered to be wrong. These grammars tried to lay down rules, and to illustrate them by examples. It was the culmination period to *impose order* on the language.

In spite of the authority of R. Lowth and L. Murray, who had retained the scheme of «nine parts of speech», the succeeding grammarians reverted to the system of «eight parts of speech». They joined the class the «article» with the «adjective», as it had been done in earlier grammars.

It was in the second half of the 19th century that the development of the grammatical scheme of the prescriptive grammars was completed. The best prescriptive grammars of the period were C.P.Mason's *New Advanced English Grammar* (4th ed., Ldn., 1913) and A. Bain's *Higher English Grammar* (Ldn., 1863) paved the way for the first classic scientific grammars of English.

The short survey of literature on the subject shows in this period the description of the morphological system changed very little, but the explanation of grammatical forms became more detailed.

The *objects* came to be viewed as a secondary part of the sentence, and classified according to their meaning and form as *direct*, *indirect* and *prepositional*. The notion of the attribute came to be applied. This classification was mostly accepted by many grammarians of modern period. *Objects* and *subjects* as well further classified as «compound», «complex» (expressed by infinitive groups and subordinate clauses, etc).

The dichotomy classification of sentences into *simple* and *compound* was changed into a *trichotomic* division, according to which sentences are divided into *simple*, *compound* and *complex*.

The concept of the *phrase* and the *clause* were differentiated, the phrase was understood as containing no finite verb.

The view of linguistic structure they somewhat abandoned in favour of historical outlook until the earliest of the 20th century, when F. de Saussure laid the foundation of a new linguistic

trend (synchronic) acknowledging the study of a system of a given language as such.

Then in the second half the 19th and 20th centuries the fourth type — *scientific grammar* began to appear. English scientific grammar inherited the grammar system evolved by prescribed grammars. Grammatical notions of morphology, especially English syntax were described and analyzed from different points of view. Scientific conceptions began to appear in grammar books.

The sentence was analyzed in terms of parts of sentence: subject, predicate (principle parts), object, attribute, adverbial modifier (secondary parts). Scientific grammar was understood by its authors to be a combination of both descriptive and explanatory grammar.

Language specialists mention the appearance of the H.Sweet's *New English Grammar (Logical and Historical, p.I-II. Oxford, 1892–1898)*; H.Whitehall's *Essentials of English grammar (New-York, 1956)*; P.Robert's *Understanding English (New-York, 1958)*; J.C.Nesfield's *English Grammar: Past and Present (Ldn, 1931)* and H.Poutsma, E.Kruisinga, M.Bryant's grammars. Linguists say that it was the fruitful period of development of the English language.

Modern (i.e. the fifth) *period* may be divided into two parts: the first from the beginning of the 20th century till the 1940th: in these times two types of grammars — the prescriptive and classical scientific — were in use. The second from the 1940th the structural grammar and the transformational grammar have been added.

Structural grammar began treating the problems of the structure of English with the criticism of traditional usage of eight parts of speech and terms in that their proponents (A.Hill, E.Nida, Ch.Fries, W.Francis) listed only five notional parts of speech (as had been done before by J.Brightland) and «particles» in which they grouped adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

This approach was based not on the *trichotomical parameters* (meaning, form and function), but on *formal features* — the so-called «grammar discovery» procedures as *distributional* and

substitution (Fries, 1956). But these attempts were denied as inconsistent for teaching linguistic notions. J. Lyons asserts and regrets that the principle of classification is based not on the naming features of grammatical classes (noun, verb, adjective, etc), but denote distributionally justifiable grammatical classes (1968, 147).

The transformational grammar deals with the establishment of the structure and the set of rules for transformation of sentences. A transformational grammar is organized in three basic items:

- Syntactic component
- Semantic component.
- The phonological component.

We want to mention that «to generate the sentences» according to this theory doesn't mean «to produce sentences», but «to characterize», «to enumerate», «to determine» the rules for forming all the infinite number of sentences, some of them never heard before (i.e. abstract models).

To sum up we may say, the foundation of the English Grammatical system was laid already in *prescientific* (or Early prenormative) grammar, then, in the second, the *prescriptive* or normative grammar periods. The works, notions, ideas on morphological and syntactical aspects of grammar still dominates and are in use in educational system as pedagogical material or guide of the English language both for mother tongue and second language or foreign language learning/teaching processes.

English Grammar: Definition and its Branches

Every speaker of a language has in his/her mind a set of rules for composing different types of phrases and sentences. This is a grammar. In linguistics, grammar is a set of structural rules that govern the composition of word forms, phrases and sentences in any language.

The notion of «grammar» refers to the study of such rules and this field includes morphology and syntax both mother tongue

and foreign languages. And English grammar is *the description, study or analysis of such rules*.

In order to acquire grammar effectively one must impart the other knowledge, i.e. to know about language, and its only then – when grammar is studied «in + context» of a broader knowledge of language and linguistics – then students can come to a fuller understanding and appreciation of it.

As has been mentioned before, the primary business of linguistics is to describe language structures (phonetic, grammatic, lexical and stylistic), trace their development from a historical and comparative points of view.

Learning a foreign language properly to my conclusion can be achieved in *three ways*:

- by residence in a foreign community;
- by long association with native speakers of the learning language;
- by lingua-scientific way. Studying the nature, number, and behavior of all the linguistic means in using language words, word forms, phrases and sentences in the auditorium, which constitute the «science of linguistics» and only then the would be teachers understand how much they already know about the language, about the language grammar.

The great Henry Sweet more than a century ago mentioned three methods of explaining the phenomena of language -- by the help of a) historical grammar, b) comparative grammar, and c) general grammar (1900, 1-2).

From this angle learning English grammar falls under the following rubrics:

- General or Universal Grammar
- Descriptive or Special Grammar
- Historical or Diachronical Grammar
- Comparative Grammar
- Typological Grammar or Contrastive Grammar

General Grammar studies the grammatical system of a lot number group of languages. It finds out the morphological and syntactical units, and their peculiarities, morphological and syntac-

tical categories, the behavior of grammatical words in the formulation of phrases and sentences; this grammar concerns with the finding and describing the generalities and varieties both within particular languages and among all languages.

It studies the grammatical system of German, Roman, Slavish and other groups of languages which are *flective*, Turkish group of languages, which are *agglutinative*, Chinese, Vietnamieze, Serb and other ones, which are *isolating* and so forth. A grammar that studies to find categories and rules applicable to all (human) languages is a universal grammar.

It finds out the most general laws and rules in composing words, word-forms, phrases and sentences, then a number of specific grammatical notions and rules.

Special Grammar studies the grammatical system of one language – English (German, French, Italian, Japan and others) at a definite period of time. For example the language of Shakespeare, Byron, Milton and others. Here one ought to trace, establish and describe the grammar system of the people i.e. the *descriptive* and *prescriptive rules* in definite periods of time. The *first* describes actual usages in a language, whereas the second legislates for correct and incorrect usage.

Historical Grammar. Its aim is to trace and establish the grammatical system of the language and its changes in its historical development, i.e. in OE, ME and Modern English periods.

Old English was merely highly inflected. It had 5 cases for nouns, adjectives and pronouns and two numbers. Old English verbs were strong and weak. It had 11 different forms of articles which distinct number, gender and case and free word order than does modern English. The scientific grammatical analysis of language began in the 19th century with the realization that languages *have a history*. This involves the study of etymology, the study of the history of single words.

Comparative Grammar deals with the comparative study of two or more kindered languages grammatical structures. It tries to find out the correlations of morphological and syntactical units of languages and explores the functional system. Such approach

has led to attempts of the genealogical classification of languages through comparative linguistics.

Typological Grammar – studies the grammatical structures of two or more kindered and non-kindred languages and defines their resemblances and non – resemblances in the grammatical system of different family of languages. It traces the grammatical categories peculiar to each language, peculiar syntactic structures of sentences and their prescriptive rules and specific grammatical properties.

Such approach has formed the basis for the analysis of the linguistic data – phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactical analysis of linguistic materials and the formulation of the classification principles.

Questions

- What is grammar? Give sentences or phrases from the English or mother tongue to show the «grammar».
- Mention the branches the grammar has.
- What does the first branch study?
- What is the job of the second branch?
- Enumerate the goals of the third branch.
- Why do we observe two or more languages' grammar?
- Is there any need in studying the grammatical structures of kindred and non-kindred languages?

Morphology: its Object and Functions

- The notion of morphology
- The objectives of morphology
- Morphological classification of languages: Isolated, Flective, Agglutinative and Polysynthetic types of languages
- The synthetic and analytical forms of sentence constructions

Morphology comes from the Greek «morphē» – meaning «form» and «logos» – meaning «science». It is the «science of word forms».

• Nowadays morphology studies the word forms, i. e. the identification of morphemes, their arrangements in words and the changes in morpheme and their arrangements which take place in various grammatical constructions.

Morphemes, composed of phonemes, may be defined as the smallest units of structure which embody grammatical and lexical meanings. Morphology refers to structure at and below the word level, but above the level of individual sounds.

- Morphology distinguishes or necessitates the discovery of form classes or words as the parts of speech and defines their individual features.
- Morphology explains the grammatical forms of words and distinguishes them as the grammatical categories.

Morphological Classification of Languages

One more item of Morphology is the morphological classification of words due to the presence or absence of affixation types. When the grammarian looks at English objectively, he/she looks upon it from two devices:

- the identification of the word separately, i.e. its lexical meaning;
- the identification of the word forms and their significance, which the linguists call «structural meaning».

The morphological processes involve some modifications or additions to the underlying forms. Such modifications or additions are grammatically and semantically significant.

Affixation is the most common morphological process:

Affixes are of three types: depending upon their positions. «Prefixes» precede the underlying stems, «suffixes» follow, and the «infixes» are inserted within the stem itself.

Due to the basis of how languages form words by combining morphemes according to their common morphological structures, they classify them into «isolating» (languages which do not use inflexions or formless). They are Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Serb and some African languages. For example, in Nakahata a Mexican-Indian language the word – «no-nuca-pua» corresponds «I meat eat».

English is an Indo-European language. The Indo-European languages are considered *flexional* or affixal languages. On the degree of usage of inflexions, flective languages are subdivided into «flective-synthetical» and flective-analytical». In flective-

synthetical languages one affix may express a number of meanings, i.e. the affixes are polysemantic.

The ending «s» denotes the plurality of nouns (a book-books), third person singular (she speaks) and possessiveness or possessive case (Madina's bag), besides several affixes may denote one grammatical meaning. Word order is less important for these languages than it is for analytical languages. German and Russian belong to this group of languages.

Flective-analytic languages lack grammatical inflexions in comparison to synthetical languages. They make wide use of *word order* and *functional words* (prepositions, conjunctions) to express the «grammatical meanings». English and French are considered flective-analytic.

The Synthetic and Analytical Forms of Sentence Constructions

Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types — synthetic and analytic.

- *Synthetical* languages are defined as the «internal grammar» of the word, i.e. most of the grammatical meanings and grammatical relation of words are expressed with the help of *inflexions*. These markers or affixes as a primary means of indicating the grammatical function of the words in the language (Danish, German, Finnish, Italian, Potugeese, Spanish, Swedish, Slavish, Romanish, Persian, Czech). In these languages the words are composed of multiple morphemes (Comrie, 1989).
- Synthetic forms of those structural elements (or word forms) are found within one word from which they are inseparable. These are the *person* (looks, sings, opens), the *past indefinite* (spoke, wanted, sang), the *perfect forms* of verbs (spoken, written, sung, open), the *present participle*, the *gerund*, the *past participle* (speaking, singing, opening).
- *Analytic* languages are of «external grammar», because most of the grammatical meanings and grammatical relations are

expressed with the help of word order and independent function words (shall, will, can, may, must, of, on, to, have, for, etc.). Such languages tend to rely heavily on context and pragmatic considerations for interpretation of sentences. Word order tends to carry a lot of importance;

- Analytic languages use syntax to convey information that is encoded *via inflection* in synthetic languages. In this case word order is not important and morphology is highly significant.
- Analytic languages (or compound verb) consists of at least two-verbal elements: and auxiliary verb and a notional verb, the latter is represented by Participle I, Participle II, or the Infinitive.

An auxiliary verb is devoid of its lexical meaning, its role is purely structural. It may be finite or non-finite. The *analytical forms* of verbs are the forms of *continuous* aspect, the perfect aspect, the *passive* forms of verbs, the *future in the past* forms of verbs, some forms of the subjunctive mood, the interrogative and emphatic forms of the present and past indefinite.

The meaning of the analytical forms as a whole is the result of the complete fusion of the auxiliary and the non-finite form;

- Analytical languages often express abstract concepts using independent words (can, may, must, ought to, be, on, at, for, because, though, the, a/an, too, very, even, do, does, did, shall/will);
- Synthetic languages tend to use adposition, affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and internal modifications of roots for the same purpose.

However, it is hard to say that languages are as purely synthetic or purely analytic. All languages are mixed types.

In *agglutinative* languages one of the types of affixes – the *suffixes* are used. These types of languages have words containing several morphemes that are always clearly differentiable from one another in that each morpheme, on the contrary to flective languages, represents only one grammatical meaning. They may be individually identified. For example, the Uzbek word «otlarda»

(on the horses), «otlarga» (to the horses), «otlardan» (from the horses).

Thus, agglutinative languages tend to have a high number of morphemes nearly one after another: (qishloq), (qishloqlar), (qishloqlardan), (qishloqlardandir). Each morpheme or suffix corresponds to one and only one meaning.

One method of language classification is based on structure: languages are classified according to the degrees of synthesis, or the number of morphemes per word.

Languages that are considered analytic have a tendency for all words to have a 1:1 morpheme – word ratio. Because of this tendency these languages are said to «lack morphology». Since every word would not have an internal compositional structure. They use separate words to express syntactic relationship.

In conclusion, a *synthetic language* on the one hand, also called an «inflected» language, is a language which uses inflectional forms, such as a primary means of indicating the grammatical function of the words in the language. On the other hand, in an *analytic language* the word forms are fixed, and grammatical functions are indicated through the use of *helper* (function) words and *word order*.

Polysynthetic Languages

In 1836 Wilhelm von Humboldt proposed one more category for classifying languages. He labeled it «polysynthetic». This term was probably first used in a linguistic sense in 1819 as a term to describe American languages by P. Duponceau.

The *objectives* of the term are:

- the American languages in general are rich in grammatical forms, the greatest order, method and regularity prevail;
- these complicated forms appear to exist in all those languages from Greenland to Cape Horn;
- By the term «polysynthetic» (comes from Greek meaning «uniting many» or «many connection») the greatest number of ideas are composed in the least of number of words. There are

no joining of two words, as in Greek or varying the inflection, but by interweaving together the most significant sounds or syllables of each simple word, so as to form a compound, i.e. that will awaken in the mind at once all the ideas singly expressed by the words from which they are taken (Comrie, 1989).

- By a combination of various parts of speech – by means of the verb, the various forms and inflections, the compounding verb or long polysyllabic word express a number of ideas and physical objects. In other languages these ideas will be expressed by separate and distinct words: the word «i-n-i-a-l-u-d-am» consists of the verb root «d» (to give), prefix «i» denotes the past tense, «-n» expresses first person singular, 2nd «-i-» means «this», «-a» – refers to the gender (her), «-l-» expresses affix meaning indirect object, and so on (Кузнецов, 1954, 24).

Polysynthetic languages include Inuktitut, Mohawk, central Siberian Yupik, Cherokee, Sera, Chukchi and numerous other languages of Siberia, Caucasus and northern Australia. One more example from Inuktitut. The word-phrase: «tawakiquitiqarpiit» roughly translates to «Do you have any tobacco for sale?» (Sapir, 1921).

These types of languages have a high morpheme in their structure. Another feature of such languages is the «ability to form words that are equivalent to whole sentences» in other languages. One many say that in polysynthetic language a single word may contain as much information as an entire English sentence.

For this case the goal of grammar teaching must be enable students to produce grammatical structures (analytical-synthetical) accurately, meaningfully and appropriately due to context.

Questions:

- Point out the etymology of the word «morphology».
- Define the object of morphology.
- Enumerate the goals of the morphological parts of grammar.
- What do we mean by the morphological classification of words?

- Define the morphological processes of the languages.
- Due to what properties are the languages classified into groups? What are they?
- Define the morphological properties of «isolating» language.
- Define the notion of «flective» language and point out its properties.
- Define the notion of agglutinative language and its peculiarities.
- Define the polysynthetic language and its peculiar linguistic property.
- Why do we speak about the synthetic language? Point out its grammatical feature.
- What is meant by analytic language and its grammatical feature?
- Resume the grammatical features isolating, flective and agglutinative types of languages. Certainly, giving the reasons.

Summary

Whatever people may do when they come together, whatever they play, study, have some tea around the table and so on they have *to talk*. They talk in a language of sounds. It is the language that is the source of human life and power.

Any communication consists of *language* and *speech* units (phoneme – phone, morpheme – morph, lexeme – lex) and the prosodic elements. It is regarded as a system of systems.

Linguistics is now a required science course, so the would be teachers or philologists come away with an awareness of descriptive, prescriptive and analyzable approaches to grammar. In order to acquire and teach niceties of grammar effectively certain pedagogical objectives can be grouped under the following rubrics:

- The pedagogical grammar needs to be informed by what is known about the nature of language and about how languages are acquired. Its means that the goal of language teaching is not to teach abstract rules of competence, but to get students to

comprehend general awareness of the notion of the material and the specific linguistic features of any language. (Maksumov, 2009).

- In order to be proficient in all aspects of teaching – learning language structures one ought to be aware of the *practical*, *pedagogical*; *theoretical* and *philological* goals of the learning language.

By the term «language» we mean the investigation of the nature, manner, and function of language, its dialects (even accents), which are in use or have been used by various speech communities. A language is a number of things together. It is the collection of meaningful elements called *morphemes* and *words*. The rules for forming words are the morphology of the language. The term encompasses a number of items:

- The first one refers to *structure* at and below the word level, i.e., in these compound words (*speaks*, *speakers*, *speaking*, *speakers*, *speaker*) the lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical morphemes have significance only when considered in relation to the structure as a whole in words and phrases.

- The second one, *morphology* deals with *word structure*, i.e., whether the words permit affixation. The term denotes the use of the outer and inner inflexions and some other ways for formation of word structure. Thus languages differ with respect in their morphological structure. Due to the presence, absence and the degree of usage affixation they may be grouped as *isolating*, *flective* (which is subdivided into flective-analytical, flective-synthetical) *agglutinative* and *polysynthetic*.

Thus, in linguistics morphology is the identification, description and analysis of the structure of a given language. Then classification of languages according to their use of morphemes.

The close analysis of linguistic literature makes the linguists to conclude that the Humanism, Revival of Learning and Reform movement in teaching/learning languages have done their contribution that the English has become easy, simple, interesting and global language.

Part II

The English Morphology

The Grammatical Structure of the English Language

- Definition of the notion of «structure».
- Grammatical means of English language: order of words, functional words, inflexions, sound change (or law), suppletion, the roles of suprasegmentals.

Morphology is the «scientific study of forms and structure of words» in a language.

The central concept in linguistic analyses is *structure*, by which is meant the ordered or patterned rules which are discoverable in a language, whether in the units of sound, grammatical inflexions, the syntactical arrangements, and the meanings of linguistic forms. Grammar consists of two fundamental categories—«morphology» and «syntax» and together they help us to identify grammatical forms which serve to enhance and sharpen the expression of meaning.

In order to make up a real sensible sentence there are some procedures one ought to fulfill:

- to choose the necessary notional words;
- to keep the word order according to the prescriptive norms of the learning language;
- to combine the necessary function (or grammatical) words;
- to connect notional words by means of inflexions (or grammatical morphemes);
- to use proper stress, pause and intonation patterns.

A study of grammar reveals a structure and regularity, which lies at the basis of language and enables us to talk of the language system. *Grammatical structure* of any language may be expressed in different ways. Here are certain grammatical means or parameters which are used in grammar:

- the order of words

- inflections
- grammatical (or form) words
- sound change
- suppletion
- stress and intonation

These means or mechanisms are universal. Each language chooses some of them, which characterizes its word and sentence structure.

- Mike, France, law, to study.

Firstly, the collection of words does not construct a structure of sentence,

Secondly, due to the English orthoepic or prescriptive rules we compose this pattern:

- Mike study France.

Then we construct this type of sentence:

- Mike study law in France

The last way — here we construct the subject-predicate agreement in person and the sentence will appear in such a way:

- 'Mike 'studies 'law in France.

In the last model all the grammatical means have been used for composing an intelligible sentence.

This grammatical procedure, called «*the structure of English*» or grammatical mechanism (Jalolov, 2012), is required of all secondary English education programs, though many other fresher students take it as well. We teach them a descriptive approach to grammar and then they are on their own.

Thus one of the ways of how to bring linguistics and grammar into the auditorium — is reminding the learners about formal and informal registers in writing and in speech.

Word Order

In linguistics, *word order* refers to the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language. Some languages have relatively restricted word orders, others have some preferred word orders. The majority of the world's languages are either SVO

or SOV. SOV is the order used by Turkish, Mongolian, Japanese, Korean, Persian and Latin. SVO includes English and Roman languages.

Among the six grammatical means — *the order of words* is of primary importance, because English is an analytic language and has strict order of words. As a subject-verb-object (SVO) language, it prefers a sequence of subject-verb-object in its simplest declarative statements: «Nick plays ball». However beyond this simple sentence, word order is a complicated matter in English.

The *word order*, *firstly*, depends on the types of sentences — whether it is simple unextended or extended, compound or complex; *secondly*, whether it is a declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences; *thirdly* in a number of other features, such as, whether the sentence begins with noun, verb, pronoun, prepositional phrases and a number of others.

English also uses some other «OSV» (object-subject-verb) word order pattern the learner must have to acquire. Ex: «I hate carrots, but apples I eat».

In English the order of words is essential to the meaning of a sentence. As nouns do not have endings for subject or object, it is the word order «that shows which is which».

We have to distinguish carefully between the subject-group and the verb-group. The predicate is what is said about the subject, i.e. the order of words in interrogative sentences depends on whether it is a general, special, alternative and disjunctive questions. Ex.:

- Do you study at school or college?
- Where are you coming from?
- Have you done the exercises in class or not?
- Yesterday you went to the shop, didn't you?

In these types of sentences one observes *inverted* order or *inversion*. In most of them the inversion is «partial». As only part of the predicate is placed before the subject.

But the whole predicate is placed before the subject when it is expressed by the word «to be» or «to have». Ex.: Is your family at home? Have you any children?

Thus, English makes use of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, while different languages make use of word classes not found in English.

One must say that English no longer has a «grammar like that of Latin or German, but it has certainly evolved «a grammar of its own» (Alexander, 2002, 1).

These sentence models are of primary basics. There are a number of sentence – patterns in compound and complex types of sentences the learner must have to acquire. Ex.:

- When sorrows come, they come not single spies, but in battalions.

- «How sleep the brave, who think to rest,

- By all their country's wishes blest!»

- The evil that men do lives after them.

- That we would do, we should do, when we would.

In above classes of sentences – *statements, commands, questions* and *exclamatory* sentences – word order place a significant part because of this valency. Some linguists would go so far as to equate word order with the syntax itself, i.e., the main syntactic process among other syntactic relations.

Questions

- Why do the linguists consider the concept «structure» as the primary object in linguistic analysis?

- What is meant by the term «Grammatical structure»?

- Let's remind the procedure to formulate a sentence.

- Point out the grammatical repertoire or means in grammar.

- Who called these means as «universal»? Give your explanations.

- Enumerate the grammatical means and tell which grammatical mean is of primary one. Why?

- Point out the word order in different communicative types of sentences: – declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory: – simple, compound and complex.

Grammatical Inflexions

It is very important and useful in teaching to compare the sentence structures of mother tongue and the learning language. The similarity and non-similarity will be helpful in composing and understanding the sentence grammatical models.

Many modern European languages are *inflected*. English was inflected language up to the Middle Ages, but the modern English retains very «few inflexions». Inflexions are generally at the end of words: *mothers* form *mother*. *Eaten* form *eat*, *looking* form *look*, *older* from *old*. Two traditional grammatical terms refer to inflexions of specific word classes:

a) *Inflecting* a noun, pronoun, adjective and adverb is known traditionally as «declining». The affixes may express number, case and/or gender.

b) *Inflecting* a verb is called traditionally «conjugating» it. «The affixes» may express «tense, voice, aspect, order and mood».

The non-finite forms can also be regarded as part of the conjugation of the verb: «arrive» (infinitive), «arrived» (participle II) and «arriving» (for gerund), although not inflected for person or number.

Compound verb forms, such as *I have arrived*, *I had arrived*, or *I will arrive* can be included also conjugation of the verb for didactical purposes, but are not conjugations of «arrive».

There are only six words (pronouns) in the English language, which have different subject and object forms: I/me, he/him, she/her, we/us, they/them and who/whom.

By «inflexion» we understand the «change of the word form to express a change of meaning». «This modification of words will result to formation of different grammatical categories, such as «tense, mood, voice, person, number and case». Inflexions may be of two types: *outer* and *inner*. They are used for two purposes:

a) to connect words (subject – predicate agreement in plurality, person, case);

b) to form new grammatical forms of words (verb tense forms, voice, mood, posteriority, degrees of comparison).

Outer inflexions (the suffixes) are added to words as «book + «s» = books, «plant + ed = planted». These inflexions were once «significant words» but gradually they lost their full form and meaning.

«There are «nine inflexions» in modern English. They signal grammatical information and function as the following:

- «-s + es» fulfill the function of plurality of nouns and the «category of number».

Ex: a toy – toys, a bench- benches, a map – maps.

- «'-s» determines the possessiveness or the «category of case».

Ex.: Madina's bag is soft.

- «-s + es» represents the third person singular or the «category of person».

• Ex: He/ she /it speaks well.

- «-ing» serves as a «present participle» in the continuous forms of the verb.

• Ex: He is still *sleeping*.

- «-ing» functions as a «gerund» of the non-finite form of the verb.

• Ex: Walking in the morning is useful; Reading is learning.

- «-d + ed» determine the Past Indefinite form of the notional verb or the «category of tense».

Ex: I knocked the door, but there was no answer; He finished the college with excellent marks.

- «-d + ed». It shows the «past participle» form of the notional verb:

Ex: I've *finished* the work by this time; this group has written the composition.

- «-er» forms the «comparative degree» of adjectives and certain adverbs or the «category of degree of comparison».

• Ex: the room number 15 is larger than the 18.

- «-est» forms the «superlative degree» of adjectives or adverbs and the category of comparison. Ex: Makhmuda is the tallest girl in the group.

Inflexions are those meaningful parts of words, which stand «before, middle and after lexical words» and serve to connect

one element of the sentence or phrase with the another element within the sentence or phrase. (Maksumov, 2012, 54).

English grammar has «minimal inflexion» compared with most other Indo-European languages. The lack of inflections in English tempts some people to observe (quite wrongly) that the language has «hardly any grammar» (Alexander, 2002, 1).

Modern English unlike other languages lacks grammatical gender, adjectival agreement and case marking. Its nouns have only vestiges of inflection (plurals), and its regular verbs have only four forms: an inflected form for the past indefinite (looked), and inflected form for the third person singular (looks) and inflected form for the present participle (looking) and subjunctive (looked).

Inflections may be *overt* and *covert* within the same language. An overt inflection expresses grammatical category with the explicitly stated suffix (marking the inner change variation also suffixing in the non-finite forms). The notion of covert morpheme coincides with the notion of zero morpheme in the oppositional description of grammatical categories.

Languages that have some degree of overt inflections are inflected languages: the inflectional paradigms or lists of inflected forms of typical words are – *sing, sang, sung, sings, singing, singer, singers, song, songs, songstress*.

English short adjectives are inflected (covertly). To mark degrees of comparison (-er, -est) and umlaut in nouns (man/men, foot/feet, tooth/teeth, child/children), as well as vowel-consonant alternation (write/wrote, spend/spent). English has become more analytic and has developed features as word order and modal verbs as *rich resources* for conveying meaning.

The survey of usage of inflection in morphology reveals: Some of the word classes are *inflected*, others are *not inflected*.

Inflected are: nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and some adverbs.

Uninflected are: prepositions, conjunctions, emotives and some adverbs.

Function Words

By this «term» we mean the grammatical words, such as *articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary and modal verbs*. They are also «grammatical means and without them one can't formulate variety of communicative types of sentences. Function words and notional words are not so distinct categories of parts of speech, but rather they form continuum (Maksumov, 2008, 246). Some prepositions have lexical meaning, such as *location* (behind, before) and *direction* (toward, inward, outward), others have little meaning (of, or, to, with). Many are used to *introduce* sentences (after, for, little).

Function words have two functions:

- Prepositions and conjunctions connect words in phrases and sentences.

Ex: a) Black *and* white dogs.

b) We'll write a grammar test *on* Friday.

c) This is the gentleman I travelled *with*.

d) You need a light to read *by*.

- Articles, auxiliary and modal words are used *for the new grammatical forms* of words.

Ex: a) They *will* come at 6 p.m. We *are* in a hurry. She *ought* to come earlier.

Thus function words expressing a grammatical function may be regarded as a main «structural building block» of the sentences. Auxiliary verbs mark constructions such as questions, negations, the passive voice and progressive aspect. They also help to show the categories of person, number, tense and so on.

Prof. L.V.Scherba asserts that besides notional words expressing «independent objects of ideas», there exist a number of «function words», which are used in the roles of grammatical means and functionally are «equal» to endings, i.e. affixes, sound alternations, rhythm with intonation, and special grammatical forms of words (Щерба, 1974, 328).

Having taught practical grammar for students we may say that each function word gives some grammatical information on

other words in a sentence or clause and cannot be used from notional words (Maksumov, 2008, 247).

The words of degree (most, more) help to form the degree of comparison of adjectives and adverbs. The prescriptive rules of English use personal pronouns as the help to indicate the masculine and feminine genders. *He* – goat, *she* – goat. He – teacher, she – teacher.

Questions

- Mention the role of inflections in the grammatical system of English.
- What do the inflections do in English?
- Is the English language rich in inflections? Why?
- What grammatical means do the job of inflections in other cases?
- What is meant by function word? Is there any difference between notional and functional words? Point them out.
- What does prof. L.V.Scherba say on the nature of function words?

Sound Change

Linguistics is an explanatory science. Linguists wish to determine why sounds, word forms and words and their meanings change and how linguistic structures develop.

The language spoken in England has undergone great changes which have affected every aspect of language, its morphology, syntax and vocabulary as well as its pronunciation. Lists of inflected forms of typical words (as *sing*, *sang*, *sung*, *sings*, *singing*, *singer*, *singers*, *song*, *songs*, *songstress*) need to be analyzed according to criteria for uncovering the underlying lexical stem (here *sing-*) that is, the accompanying functional items (*-i-*, *-a-*, *-u-*, *-s-*, *-ing*, *-er*, *-o-*, *-stress*) and the functional categories of which they are markers need to be distinguished to adequately describe the language.

Sound change includes any processes of language change that affect pronunciation. The term «sound change» refers to diach-

ronical changes, which encompass *internal* and *external* (or surface changes) that happen synchronically.

In literature two labels are supposed to use: *law* and *phonetic rule*. Sound change is *exceptionless*: it affects all sounds that meet the criteria for change. Sound change is *unstoppable*. All languages vary from place to place and time to time, and neither writing nor media prevent this change. There are a number of historical terms designating types of phonetic changes: assimilation, dissimilation, metathesis, sandhi, haplology, elision, syncope and apocope.

Sound changes refer to vowels and consonants. This case is also *grammatical means* and can fulfill grammatical function. They help to form new words, i.e. such changes are seen in past, perfect forms of verbs and the passive voice, noun plurals:

- The root vowel is changed: man-men, woman-women, tooth-teeth;
- Root change + final consonant + change: bring-brought; teach-taught; may-might;
- Initial consonant + change: shall – will; should-would;
- Final consonant + change: spend-spent; send-sent; build-built;
- Root vowel change + inflexion: child- children, ox-oxen.

If students have knowledge of how language and its grammar are acquired of rules language change, of the role and relationship between spelling and pronunciation and so on, they have a much better context for understanding grammar in its many forms.

Suppletion

In historical linguistics *grammaticalization* is a process of linguistic change by which content word changes into certain suppletive forms «go», but also other higher frequency verbs like «be, do or have» (Fertig, 1998).

English is an example of a tense – suppletion language, as in «go vs. *went*». The term was coined by historical linguistics to distinguish regularities like «man:men», «person:people». Sup-

pletion is sometimes limited to reference to etymologically unrelated stems:

- The act of inflecting or the state of being inflected;
- Alternation in pitch or tone of the voice.

This is also a change, but here the change concerns the whole structure of the word to form new grammatical forms of words. Such «phonetic changes» are observed in verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and numerals.

• To go-went-gone. Ex: We *go* to bathe every Saturday. He went to the market for shopping. They have *gone* to the wedding-party this week.

- To be – am/is/are (was, were);
- good-well; good-better; bad-worse;
- I-me; he-him; she-her; we-us; they-them, do-does-did, have-had;
- Two – second; one – first.

The *values* of the suppletive forms are to mark *tense distinctions*, *degrees of comparison* of adjectives and adverbs, *case* of pronouns, singular-plural numbers.

Through grammar we can specify the way in which words can be systematically modified through alternations and additions. These alternations are part of morphology and they help us to convey fundamental concepts like, «time, number, voice and mood».

As we have seen *suppletion* is generally considered to be rather unsystematic and accidental, and difficult to explain or uninteresting.

Suprasegmental Features: Stress and Intonation

These suprasegmental units can also be used as *grammatical means*. One of the suprasegmental features is a stress. Notional words (or parts of speech) permit «stress», functional words – do not. They use stress for the case of emphasis, the stress is used to distinguish the parts of speech, when it changes the places of stress, i.e. when it moves from syllable to syllable.

'abstract n – to abs'tract v : 'record n – to re'cord v:
'present n – to pre'sent v (Максумов, 2007, 30).

The presence or absence of stress in words may distinguish *notional words* (what, when, how – pronouns in simple sentences) from *function ones* (what, how) – conjunctions in complex sentences.

There are certain «post positives» in English and their use also bring the change of meaning.

Ex: To look 'at, to look 'for, to look 'through, to look 'after:

To put: to put 'on, to put 'off, to put 'aside:

To get: to get 'on, to get a'long.

In these cases the use of stress fulfills the «lexical function».

The second suprasegmental feature is an *intonation*. It can also be used as grammatical means too in different types of sentences. The right intonation pattern helps to distinguish the communicative types of sentences.

In declarative sentence the *falling tone* (↘) is used:

Ex.: We are at home. They slept under those green trees with the dog.

In interrogative sentences the *rising tone* (↗) and its types are used.

Ex: Are you ready? You are not at home, are you?

She lives on the second floor, doesn't she?

In other words suprasegmental variations such as of stress, pitch or tone, where no «sounds» are added or changed, but the intonation and relative stress of each sound is altered regularly (Абдуазизов et al, 1979, 86).

Thus, grammatical structure is a system of means used in turning linguistic units into communicative ones. In other words the units of language into the units of speech.

As it has been mentioned the grammatical structure of languages can be «synthetic» and «analytic». The synthetic features can be formed by means of «inflection» («-s» – in the third person singular, «-s» – in plural of nouns, «-'s» (or «-s'») – in genitive or possessive case, «-ed» – in the past indefinite form of regular verbs, «-ing» – in the present participle form of finite

forms of verbs, «-ing» – in gerundial forms of verbals and «-er, -est» – in degrees of comparison and inner inflections.

A short survey of description of grammatical means brings to such conclusion.

Grammatical meanings are expressed in the following ways

- by means of *word forms*

The words «watches, dishes, bag, pets» differ from the words «a watch, a dish, a pet». They indicate one grammatical idea – *plurality*; «wanted» or «went» – from «want» or «go» express other idea – *past tense*; «higher» differs from «high», «better» from «good», «little» from «less» – by the *degree of comparison*; other meanings also shown by word forms as «truth» differing from «true», or «kindness» from «kind», or «quickly» from «quick».

- by means of *function words*

Many of the grammatical ideas formally expressed by the *forms of words*, give their way to form words and they are expressed by such *functional words*. The use of prepositions to denote grammatical relations between objects, and connect words in sentences;

Ex.: She killed the *wolf with* an arrow. When you are *in* Rome do *as* Romans do. A house *of* wooden. We have plenty *of* time to speak.

- by the use of *word order*

English has its own grammatical system, which implies few inventory of inflections. This lack of word forms necessities the wide use of *word order*. It is the «word order» that is valid for composing types of sentences (see Word order).

Ex: The hunter killed the bear. The bear killed the hunter.
Did the hunter kill the bear?

The hunter did not kill the bear. The hunter killed the fat brown bear. The fat brown bear was killed by the hunter

- by the *suppletion* form of words

They are observed in:

a) verbs (to be, to go)

Ex.: I am a dentist. He was ill last week. She went home.

b) pronouns (I/me, he/his/him, she/her, we/us, they/them).

Ex.: They saw me in the bus. Mr. Mike noticed *him* drinking coffee. The teacher saw *them* playing chess.

c) numerals (one/first, two/second)

Ex.: The *first* job for you in the morning is to wash up yourself.

The *second* job for children is to have breakfast.

d) *degrees* of adjectives and adverbs (good/better/best, bad/worse/worst, well/better/best).

Ex.: Mike is my friend of *good* character. Anne is the best learner of French. The *worst* thing he has done is leaving the wedding party.

• By means of *inner inflections* or sound change

The use of sound alternations (both of vowels and consonants) to express grammatical forms (in nouns, verbs, pronouns, degrees of comparison in adjectives and adverbs and in numerals);

Ex.: We saw this film on the TV at home. My neighbor has *built* a three-storied house.

We are going to *build* a new bakery.

• By using the *suprasegmental units* or means (stress and intonation patterns) or means in connected speech.

The change of the place of stress in words ('abstract - abst'ract, 'object - ob'ject, 'record - re'cord) helps to compose a new idea or the lexical meanings of words, the correct use of tones differ the types of sentences (declarative, interrogative, imperative, and etc.)

Ex.: We are at home. Are you at home? They don't live on the second floor. Are you going home or to the market?

These changes function as grammatical means for the formulation of tense forms, order of verb conjugations, the prescriptive rules of posteriority, order, voice switches (active/passive), degrees of comparison, plurality of nouns. Affixes form the formulation of intelligible speech processes.

• Wide use of word order helps to denote grammatical relations in composing types of sentences (simple, compound, complex

and their types) due to different principles of sentence classifications.

The business of grammarian is the identification of word forms and their value in word classes, and arrangements apart from lexical meanings of the words, i.e. the significance of free and bound morphemes, complete and partial sound changes (suppletive forms of verbs, pronouns, numerals, degrees of comparison). Morphological processes involve changes of stress in words and various intonation patterns for types of sentences.

In special literature it is said that «if words are language's bricks, the syntax is the wall». The unity of the mentioned grammatical means which are used of words for the construction of word, speech acts is called the «grammatical structure of the language». (Barchudarov L.S.)

Thus, to *know the grammar* of the English language implies to be aware of the notion of the grammatical means of the learning language, their functions, then be able to use them due to certain orthoepic and prescriptive rules in different communicative types of sentences.

Only in this case the learners will acquire the proficiency and become proficient in this domain.

Questions

- One more item of grammatical means is the sound change. Why does English need in this subject?
- Give information on the notion of «suppletion». Are suppletive forms of words so important? Why?
- What parts of speech are involved by suppletion?
- Grammar is a special independent aspect of language. Prove why is grammar needed in the service of phonetic means?
- What functions do the suprasegmental features fulfill in English?

The Structure of Words

Any sentence is composed of words. In the structure of language word belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. *Firstly*, it is the main expressive unit of language; *secondly*,

the word is the smallest naming and communicative unit, which has a «double nature»: meaning and form. This bilateral entity unites a concept and a sound image, i.e., the content and expression (sound form). In other words it combines in its semantic structure with two meanings – lexical and grammatical.

The lexical meaning is the material aspect of the word. It can be seen, heard or ideal. These words are independent and directly associated with some object of reality: a house, a dog, yellow, glitter, water, life, happiness.

To know words in English language is to know their *spelling*, *pronunciation*, *definition* and the *behavior* of parts of speech in speech.

The grammatical meaning – that is to say the word forms and the morphemes are dependent and are connected with the words of reality: house + s; dog + s; work + ed; live + d.

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements. The morphemes of the first type we call **lexical** and meanings they express are lexical. The endings (or morphemes) like «-s», «-ed», «-d» are called **grammatical** morphemes and meanings they express are **grammatical**.

The grammatical meaning of words may be of two types: **implicit** and **explicit**. The implicit grammatical meaning is not expressed formally. It may be of 2 types – **general** and **dependent**. The *general* grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class or a part of speech. (e.g. nouns – the general grammatical meaning of «thingness»). The *dependent* grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech.

For instance the noun «**desk**» has the grammatical meaning of a subclass – *countables/noncountables*, and *animateness/inanimateness*. In these cases the dependent grammatical meaning of **countableness/uncountableness** influences the realization of grammatical category of number – as the number category is realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical category of **animateness/inanimateness** influences the realization of grammatical category of case.

Any verb combines the individual grammatical meaning with the grammatical meaning of **verbiality** – the ability to denote actions or states. We observe the following dependent grammatical meaning of **transitivity/intransitivity** – the «category of voice»; **terminativeness/nonterminativeness** – «the category of tense»; **stativeness/nonstativeness** and so on.

The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically – it has its marker. In the word «dogs» the grammatical meaning of plurality or number is shown by the ending «-’s»; **dog’s** – here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form **apostrophe – s or (’es)**; **is painted** shows the explicit grammatical meaning of **passiveness**.

An adjective combines its individual grammatical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives – **qualitativeness** – the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of **adverbiality** – the ability to denote quality of qualities.

One must remember that grammatical meanings are expressed not only by word changing, i. e. by affixation, but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word forms.

Ex: He *will* study in this group. We *shall* go there by bus.

In these examples the function of «shall, will» words, which is grammatical meaning is connected with functional words, are grammatical categories, is similar to that of grammatical morphemes «-s», «-ed», «-d».

The next point the would be teacher ought to know is that there are some classes of words that are *beyond* of any lexical meaning in their nature and «possess the grammatical meaning» only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function (form, grammatical) words – «articles», «particles», prepositions and so on belong to this class.

The «grammatical meaning» of syntactic construction shows the relation between words in it. Grammatical meaning is opposed to lexical meaning. «Lexical meaning» is closely connected with notional.

What we know about the nature of the words is: *firstly*, word is a unit of speech; *secondly*, word can be perceived as the total of sounds, which comprise it. *Thirdly*, the word structurally possesses external and internal structures. By *external* structure we mean its «morpheme structure». The *internal* structure of words is referred to as the words «semantic structure».

The next structural feature of the word is its *grammatical structure*. Most of words can be used in different grammatical forms in which their interrelations are realized.

Questions

- Tell, what is the status of the word in the morphology?
- What unit of language is double-natured and why?
- What is meant by the lexical meaning?
- Explain the notion of «grammatical meaning». Prove them with examples.
- What meanings and roles do the terms «implicit» and «explicit» denote? Explain their usage.
- What is the difference between lexical meaning and grammatical meaning?

Morphology

The Morphemic Structure of the English Language

- Morphology is the minimal grammatical unit
- Classification of morphemes and their types:
 - 1) lexical, grammatical and lexico-grammatical
 - 2) zero, empty and discontinuous
- The notion of allomorph

Morphology is the field within linguistics that deals with the «internal structure» of word forms. The basic unit of the morphological level of Grammar is considered to be a *morpheme*. The term «morpheme» was firstly introduced by the prominent Polish linguist Yan Boudouin de Courtenay. By «morpheme» he understood the «smallest indivisible element of language». It means that the morpheme is the smallest linear meaningful part of a word. It cannot be analyzed into «smaller meaningful forms».

There are simple morphs that don't have an internal structure and only consist of one form, like «work», «eat», «soon», «red», «white», «book», «half». Complex words do have an internal structure and consist of two or more parts: teacher, writer, where the endings «-er, -r» are added to the root «teach» to make it a noun, making someone who teaches.

The classical grammarians were little concerned with the analysis of the words into smaller elements. However, it is clear that in many languages at least such elements exist. Such minimal units of grammatical analysis of which word may be composed or customarily referred to as «morphemes» (Lyons, 1958, 73-76).

The term «morpheme» has been adopted by linguists to denote the smallest unit or «the minimum distinctive feature». Morphemes occur in speech only as constituent parts of words, not independently, although parts of word may consist of single morpheme.

Grammarians mention that one should distinguish in morphemes two plans: *content plan* and the *expression plan*. First of all we should learn the content of the morpheme, then the corresponding forms of this content. Every linguistic unit should be discussed from these two points.

By «morphemic structure» one should understand the «division of the word into grammatical parts». Morphemic analysis is also the operation in which one divides the word, phrase or the utterance (or sentence) into the «smallest meaningful forms» or grammatical parts:

The words «worker», «speaker», «writer» can be divided into two parts: «work» + «er», «write + r, «speak + er». The meaning of the first parts is *the act of doing* something and the meaning of the second parts is the suffixes which *form new word*. So each of the two parts of the word «work + er» has both *meaning* and *form*. Such meaningful parts of a word are called «morphemes». And such morphemes make up words.

One more merit of morphology as an area of study is the way in which it overlaps with many other areas of linguistic study.

It overlaps with phonology in the area morphophonology. It overlaps with syntax in a number of ways:

a) since many of the meaningful elements that are found in words have syntactic functions, for example, the «-ed» in «walked, talked»:

b) in the study of *clitics* where the «-ll» in «we'll or she'll» act phonologically as part of single word, but syntactically as a separate word:

c) *compounding* where what are otherwise two words function together as one.

Morphology has implications in lexicology, stylistics and pragmatics and is much studied by psycholinguistics in the sphere of language acquisition and processing.

Classification of Morphemes

I. Words are made up of morphemes. Morphemes may be classified:

- From the semantic point of view;
- From the structural point of view.

Semantically morphemes fall into two classes: *lexical* (or root) morphemes and *affixational* (or non-root) morphemes. Roots and affixes make two distinct classes of morphemes due to the different roles they play in word structure. These types of morphemes are generally easily distinguished and the difference between them is clearly felt.

In other words Morphology is often discussed in two categories – *inflection* and *derivation*. «Inflection» is concerned with those constituents of words most closely related to syntax, while derivation is concerned with the structure of lexical words. Derivational morphology is thus sometimes termed «lexical morphology.»

From the functional point of view morphemes are classified into *lexical*, *grammatical* and *lexico-grammatical*.

Examination of the morphemic structure of English words reveals that they are composed of morphemes of different types: *root-morphemes* and *affixational* morphemes. The root morpheme

is the lexical nucleus of the word. Affixational morphemes include affixes or inflexions and derivational affixes.

By the *lexical morpheme* we understand morphs that have lexical meaning of their own which are associated with some objects, action, quality, quantity of reality.

Example: «book» «yellow», «one», «I». The lexical morpheme is the root of the word. The morphemes of the «book», «work» type and their meanings are called *lexical*.

Structurally morphemes fall into two types: *free morphemes* and *bound morphemes*.

The *free* morphemes carry meaning in its own right. They coincide with the stem or a word-form. Free morphemes can built up words by themselves. They include nouns, adjectives, and verbs. They are termed *lexical* morphemes.

The *bound* morphemes are grammatical. They can not form words by themselves. They include prefixes and suffixes, plural forms and tense endings.

By the *grammatical morpheme* we understand morphemes which do not have lexical meaning, but are characterized by having structural meaning. In the words «invites», «invited», «will invite» the morphemes «-s», «-ed», «will» show the *present, past* and *future* meanings. These meanings are called *grammatical*.

Ex.:

- He speaks French. We wanted to have a rest. His room is longer than that one.
- In the word forms «wanted», «spoke», «walked» we have one grammatical meaning «*tense*», though they are different words.
- In the examples «boy's», «girl's», «cat's», «sparrow's» there is also one grammatical meaning – «*case*».
- Word-forms as «toys, trees, tables, cars» denote different *objects* of reality, but there is one common element in them. It is the grammatical meaning of «*plurality*». The plurality is found in all the word-forms.
- In the set «chewing, coughing, jumping, mailing», the form «-ing» reçurs with a constant meaning.

Grammatically free morphemes are used in sentences independently.

Ex.: I shall go there at 9.30.

Grammatically *bound* morphemes are usually attached to lexical free morphemes to express new grammatical form or morphological categories.

Ex.: the endings (-s, -'s, -ed, -ing) may be called affixational morphemes: the girl's bag, a bigger room. They are used to show grammatical relationships.

Lexico-grammatical morphemes are bound morphemes that are used to change lexical meaning of words or used to *build new words*. In this case they resemble the grammatical inflexions. Example: home + less, friend + ship, king + dom, just + ice: beauty + ful, nice-ly, careful + ly, employ + ee.

In the examples the affix «ly» attaches to adjectives and form adverbs. The affix «ee» attaches to verb and forms noun (employee). They may be called *derivational morphemes*. They serve to build one part of speech from another.

Differences between inflexional and derivational affixes: the former inflected words are for certain grammatical or semantical properties, the latter affix derives new words from old ones.

Thus, a morpheme is the smallest unit of language which can convey meaning.

II. Words are made up of morphemes. From the point of view of *the presence and the absence of the affixes* in words morphemes may be «zero», «empty» and «discontinuous»:

Zero morphemes are those which have meaning, but no form. These morphemes are found or discovered in oppositions. Example: desk – desks: high – higher.

Empty morphemes are those that have form, but no meaning: state(s)man, king(s)man, lock(s)man, sale(s)man, handicraft(s)man, sport(s)man, record(s)man.

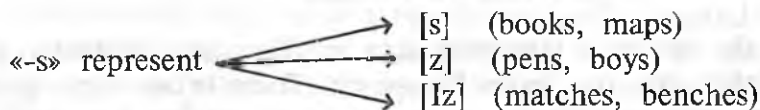
The first word contains three morphemes: state + s + man. The first and the third morphemes have certain meanings. But «s» has no meaning, only serve as a connector. Such morphemes

are called *empty*. The English orthographic rule demands the presence of the letter «s» in writing.

Discontinuous morphemes consist of two or more morphemes, but express «one» meaning. In the below examples one expresses «continuous action», the second-«perfect action». Example: She is reading a fresh newspaper. He has helped us a lot. (Irisqulov et al, 2009)

The Notion of an «Allomorph»

There is a notion of an allomorph in linguistics. By «allomorph» linguists understand different variants (morphs) of one and the same morpheme which have the same meaning. Example: the pronunciation of the suffix «s» in the following words: in speech:



They are the same morphemes of plurality and they are called allomorphs of plurality.

In the examples «tooth > teeth», «man > men» nothing is added, but root vowel is changed. This changing is also called allomorph of plurality as well as «-s» and «-en» in the words «ox-oxen».

There is another short definition of an allomorph: the variants of a morpheme are also called «allomorph».

Language is closed or a limited system. Speech is unlimited, open system. One should be aware that the smallest meaningful unit of a language is called a *morpheme*, while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a *morph*.

The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme.

Compare: the different ways of pronunciation of the ending «-ed»:

morpheme	morph	
«-ed»	[t]	(worked, grouped, introduced)
	[d]	(planned, closed)
	[ɪd]	(wanted, recorded)
		} allomorph

The prefixes with the negative meaning «il-» (illiterate), «ir» (irregular), «im-» (impossible), «in-» (intolerable) are the allomorphs of the negation «not». The words «does, did and will do» are the allomorphs of the auxiliary verb «to do».

Compare such case in Uzbek:

Morpheme	morph	
«-ga»	[ga]	(kitobga)
	[ka]	(eshikka, etikka)
	[qa]	(bog'+ga) boqqa
		} allomorph

If the ending is uttered as «ga», in this case it is limited and countable: «ka, qa» forms for speech. There is one more grammatical case in Uzbek:

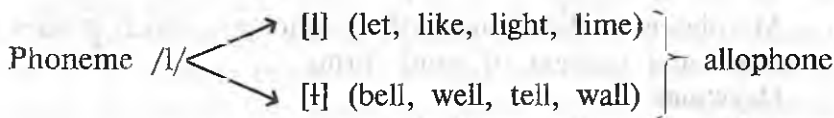
Morpheme	morph	
«-di»	[ti]	(ket+di) ketti, aytti
	[di]	(oldi, qo'ydi)
		} allomorph

Thus, allomorph is the term used to describe the morphemes which do the same job.

In phonology we come across with such phenomena: there are two terms – phoneme and allophone or phone.

Phoneme is the term for «language». Phone or an allophone are forms for «speech».

Phoneme / l / has 2 variants or allophones which depends on their position in words: soft and dark. *Soft* is used before the vowels in word initial position «let, like, lemon». *Dark* is used in word-final and word-medial positions of words: table, little.



Thus, to know the morphemic structure of the language is to be aware and proficient in the notion of the morpheme and its classification principles.

Morpheme is one of the central notions of grammatical theory, without which no serious attempt at grammatical study can be made. Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of the language, that can not be further analyzed.

In traditional grammar the study of the morpheme was conducted in the light of two criteria — *semantic* and *distributional*. The combination of these criteria gives us a classification of morphemes.

Distributionally they can be prepositional (prefix), central (root) and postpositional (suffixes and inflexions). Due to *semantic criteria* roots or lexical morphemes are the bearers of meaning. Prefixes and suffixes have lexico-semantic function.

Morphemes maybe segmental and suprasegmental. *Segmental* are outer grammatical suffixes, as they are opposed to the absence of morphemes in grammatical alternation: e.g.: look+ed, small+er.

The *sound alternation* or suppletion is a way of expressing grammatical category by changing a sound «inside a root»:

see — saw — seen; sing — sang — sung or building a form of a word by different stems: am/is/are/been; good — better — best; go — went — gone.

On the basis of linear characteristics, morphemes maybe «continuous (linear)» and «discontinuous».

The *discontinuous* morpheme is a two-element grammatical unit, which is the analytical form comprising an auxiliary word and a grammatical suffix.

- be ... ing — is/am/are doing (continuous)
- have ... en — has/have/ done (perfect)
- be ... en — is/are written (passive)

Morpheme is the domain of morphology, which studies the structure and content of word forms.

Questions

- What does the morphology study?
- Explain the main unit of morphology.
- Who is B. de Courtenay and what is he? Why is he famous for?
- What is meant by «morphemic structure»
- Define the smallest meaningful unit of morphology.
- Define the types of morphemes. Give examples for each type.
- Explain the notions of lexical morpheme, grammatical morpheme, bound morpheme, free morpheme and use them in sentences.
- Define from what point of view are the zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes formed?
- Explain the notion of «allomorph». Illustrate it with examples.
- Point out the difference of the terms «morpheme» and «allomorph». Prove them with examples.

The Notion of Parts of Speech and its Controversies

I. Classification of words into parts of speech

Principles of classification due to various peculiarities of words

II. History of classification:

- Ancient principles
- Traditional principles
- Structural principles
- Modern principles

III. The constituent parts of word classes as notional and functional: their definitions.

IV. Differences on the status of criteria and number of part of speech between British and Russian grammarians.

Learning about the notion of parts of speech is one of the jobs in grammar study, just as learning the letters of the alphabet is one of the steps to being able to read and write. From learning the parts of speech the would be teacher begins to understand the notions of notional and functional word classes. And how these words are joined together to make meaningful communication.

The parts of speech are categories used to organize or classify words according to how they are used. We use the notional or functional parts of speech to formulate communicative types of sentences.

Early in ancient times people paid attention to the features of words, which were used in their talking. They functioned differently in speech. One *group* of words named the objects and persons; *second* – expressed actions made by persons, animals, insects, and birds; *third* – modified words (articles modify nouns; adverbs modify verbs and adjectives); *fourth* – expressed quality and property of things; *fifth* – indicate persons or objects and so on. These observations gave the ancient philosophers the base to define words into definite classes.

The Dutch linguist Otto Espersen in his «Philosophy of Grammar» writes that «it is customary to begin teaching grammar by dividing words into several classes, generally called *parts of speech*.» (1935, 58).

The classification of words into «parts of speech» is found from the earliest moments in the history of linguistics. The Sanskrit grammarian Yāska in the 5th and 6th centuries defined four main categories of words: (nouns, verbs, pre-verbs, particles) (c.5thc.). These four were grouped into the large classes: *inflected* (nouns and verbs) and *uninflected* (prefixes and particles). Later the Greek scholar Plato wrote in the Cratylis about the «verbs» and «nouns». Another class «conjunctions» (covering conjunction, pronouns and the article), was later added by Aristotle. Both Plato and Aristotle contributed to the design of a language teaching curriculum beginning with good writing (grammar), then on discourse (rhetoric) and so on.

By the end of second century BCE, the classification scheme had been expanded into eight categories, seen in the *Tekhne grammatike* (C.100, BCE) (Robins, 1997):

- Noun: a part of speech inflected for case, signifying a concrete or abstract entity;
- Verb: a part of speech without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person and number, signifying an activity or process performed;
- Participle: a part of speech sharing the features of the verb and the noun;
- Pronoun: a part of speech substitutable for a noun and marked for person;
- Adverb: a part of speech without inflection, in modification of in addition to a verb;
- Article: a part of speech inflected for case and preposed or postposed to nouns;
- Preposition: a part of speech placed before other words in composition and in syntax;
- Conjunction: a part of speech binding together the discourse and filling gaps in its interpretation.

Linguists recognize that the above list of eight classes is simplified and artificial (Fernold, 1963, 6).

The Criteria for Defining the Parts of Speech

The parts of speech occupy the central position in the language system, as they refer to the domains of vocabulary and grammar. It's hardly possible to explain the meaning of the word in the process of teaching/learning a foreign language identifying its part of speech status. The words used in sentences fall into certain classes. Skilled speakers understand the different classes of words.

The problem of defining the words into definite parts of speech is still disputable. *The first* is in the numbers of criteria in defining and classifying the parts of speech, *the second* is in the numbers of parts of speech in the grammatical system of modern English.

There is no unity of opinions or the principles of classification of words into parts of speech.

Early grammarians classified the words from *one* point of view, that is to say, either – *semantics*; or from *morphological*. Later the linguists increased the number of criteria – from *two* points of view. Early Greek philosophers classified the words on the basis of two dichotomical principles – morphological and semantical.

- The *ancient* or *classical* parts of speech classification was based on Latin grammar prescriptions and it had been a perfect model for traditional grammars of other languages as well as English.

Due to Latin grammar classification all words were divided dichotomically into *declinable* and *indeclinable* parts of speech. And such system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars.

The first of these groups – *declinable* words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles; the second – *indeclinable* words – adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

The classical – inflexional classification was quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms;

From the 13th and 14th centuries the scholars of that time expanded the scope of linguistic inquiry from Latin/Greek to include the languages of the day. Those innovations or theses sprung the field of comparative linguistics and historical linguistics.

Early English grammarians R.Lowth and L.Murray proclaimed that Latin grammar system couldn't be applied to the English language, because the principle of *declinability/indeclinability* was not relevant for analytical languages (Исмаилов, 1980, 18-23).

British grammarians usually use eight categories or parts of speech to classify all the words they use in English. This classification is not perfect. Sometimes it is hard to tell which category a word belongs to. One and the same word may belong to different categories depending on how it is used. There may

be better ways to classify English words than by using the eight parts of speech.

W. Frances regrets the principle of classification saying «one trouble with the traditional grammar is that it related heavily on the subjective element in language, meaning, and not always on the most objective aspect of language, *form*» (1963).

But this classification has been used for a long time and many English grammar books use it, so it is easier to keep on using it with little additions. It is possible to speak or to learn a language without knowing the parts of speech, but this is not for pedagogical priorities. But for most of learners – would be teachers and philologists, knowing about the parts of speech makes things easier in learning and teaching foreign languages.

- *The functional approach* to the problem was introduced by Henry Sweet. He took into account the functional properties of the English language as an analytic one. H.Sweet classified the word classes as *nominative* and *particles*. The following word-classes – noun words – (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals-gerund, infinitive, participles), belonged to nominative, while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection, belonged to the group of particles due to their function in sentences.

Though the classification of H.Sweet was considered *innovation* for that period, he failed to run through his view and all in all classified word classes into those, *having* morphological forms and those *lacking* morphological forms.

- Modern linguistics does not begin until the late XVIIIth century. In traditional classic grammar, parts of speech were defined *semantically*, but in linguistic morphology, parts of speech are defined according to their *syntactic function* too. In XIXth and XXth centuries British, Danish and Russian classic grammarians H.Sweet (1892,1), O.Espersen (1935, 91), G.Curme, L.V.Scherba and B.Ilyish in their classification of

words into parts of speech used three criteria or the trichotomical approach:

- Semantic (or meaning)
- morphological (or formal)
- syntactical (or functional).

Another representative of this trend Danish scholar O.Espersen tried to capture three parameters (*form, function and meaning*) in defining words into parts of speech, but he also failed *giving preference* to morphological form.

Semantic classification is based on the «meaning» of words, which denote things, objects, persons and animals. Words with the meaning of «thing (ness)» form «nouns», words with the meaning of «quality of things» for living beings formed «adjectives», or either process or state for the verb and so on. The semantic criteria has been established long ago and services as one of the differential features of defining words into classes in languages.

L.V.Scherba underlined the absolute primacy of *meaning* plane of the language on the contrary to the previous grammarians, that is to say, the sense or semantics. No sense – no meaning – no language (1974, 16).

Ex: a knife, an apple-tree, Karim goes to school.

The *second differential criteria* is «morphological», that is to say, the presence or absence of grammatical forms. *Morphological classification* is based on the changing of words by inflexions or reveals paradigmatic properties, their specific inflexional and derivational features. Grammarians mention that there's no form without content and vice versa (Scherba, 1974, 75). For example, nouns are inflected to express plurality, gender and possessive form:

- Boys are coming;
- The girl's shirt is dirty;
- My neighbor's daughter is an actress.

or to point grammatical categories of each part of speech (or word classes), such as voice or tense and aspect of the verb.

The *third differential criteria* is syntactical. *Syntactical or functional classification* is based on the function of words they perform in the sentence.

- Verb performs the function of a predicate.

Ex.: She runs quickly. Look, she is opening the window. They have brought all their shopping

- Nouns perform the functions of a subject, object, attribute, and an adverbial modifier.

Ex.:

Subj.	pred.	attrib.	obj.	adver.modif.
<u>Mike</u>	<u>saw</u>	the young teacher		at the bus stop

- It may be in the function of predicative

Ex.: Who is there? It's Karim.

If a part of speech was characterized by these mentioned three criteria, the word belonged to notional part of speech. If the part of speech was characterized by two criteria, the word belonged to «functional parts of speech». Nowadays the principle of classification of words is based on the unity of from three to five criteria.

Classification of Words

The words we most commonly use are those which refer to the different objects that exist around us, such as boy, town, river, etc. and are put into the first or most important class called – nouns, a word meaning «names».

- A *noun* is the name of anything; as boy, London, town, street, goodness, etc. (see noun in Modern English)

Substantives: – nouns are often called «substantives», because they usually stand for real or substantial existences.

- A pronoun (comes from the Greek meaning «pro, for») is a word anciently used «for»; or «instead of» a noun, as *I, he, she, it*, etc.

- A verb (comes from the Latin meaning «verbum» – «a word») is a *telling* word and is used to make some *assertion*

about the thing represented by a Noun or Pronoun, as *sings, is, was pleased*, etc.

The *verb* is one of the name of word class in a sentence, for composing intelligible communication.

- An *adjective* (comes from the Latin «*adjectus*» meaning «placed to») modifies the meaning of a noun; or qualifies and distinguishes word class, or express order, number or quality, a strong, weak, this, four, many, etc.
- An *adverb* modifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, or another adverb, as *sweetly, very, rather*, etc.
- A *preposition* (it consists of two parts – «*pro*» (before), «*posetus*» (placed), is a word that joins nouns to other words in a sentence, to show certain relations that exist between them, as *on, under, over, by*, etc.)
- A *conjunction* (comes from Latin «*junctum*» meaning «joining together») is a word that joins words and sentences together, as *and, but*, etc.
- An *interjection* (comes from Latin «*interjectum*» meaning «thrown between») expresses sudden emotion of the mind, as «*Oh! Hurrah! Alas!*»

These eight parts of speech are still observed in British grammars. They are subdivided into «primary» (noun, verb, pronoun, adjective, adverb) and «secondary» (or form) words (prepositions, conjunctions, interjections).

These eight traditional categories are rather arbitrary and most linguists recognize that real language can't be categorized that easy. That's why they questioned the certain number of parts of speech in morphology. To their mind the above list of word classes is drastically simplified and artificial (Zwicky, 2006).

Modern English makes use of 5 criteria in order to classify words into parts of speech. Russian scholars L.S.Barkhudarov, B.Khaimovich and B.Rogovskaya in their scientific writings developed the approach mentioning two more criteria to the previous classification of word classes.

The *distribution* or *combinability* of one part of speech with the other one in speech is the *fourth criteria*.

Ex.: Nouns are usually combined with adjectives and verbs: He is a tall boy. Mike sings French songs.

Adverbs usually combine with verbs. Ex.: He speaks well.

Articles never combine with verbs. They combine with nouns and adjectives. But they stand before nouns, and if there are adjectives before nouns, they'll stand before them.

Ex.: The black dog is lying at the gate.

There are *certain lexico-grammatical morphemes*, which are specific for each word-class. The presence of certain such derivative morphemes considers them belonging to a definite part of speech. This is the *fifth criteria*.

Affixes: -ous, -full, -ish, -less, -ive, etc: (wonder+full, child+ish, home+less, care+full, progress+ive, danger+ous);

Prefixes: il-, un-, re-, pre-, ir-, etc: (il+literate, ir+regular, un+do, re+write, un+natural etc.) characterize the adjectives;

Suffixes -er, -or, -ship, -ment, -ist, -tion/-sion, -dom, -hood are characteristic to nouns: teach+er, doct+or, friend+ship, composi+tion, free+dom, pian+ist.

Thus, when characterizing any word class or parts of speech one ought to describe its *semantic, morphological* and its *syntactic* peculiarities and *two more specificities* – the distribution or *combinability* and the each word class's *lexico-grammatical morphemes*.

The distinction of language units into notional and functional words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In *notional* words the *lexical meaning* is predominant. In *function* words the *grammatical* meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in grammatical literature it is said that in actual speech the borderline between notional and functional words is not always clear cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to function words, e.g. seminotional words - to turn, to get, etc.

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

a) Structural Classification

In the Middle of the XXth century one more type of classification principle was introduced in the linguistic horizon, then soon disappeared. It was the *structural approach* to the question.

American specialists Ch.Fries, W.Francis and A.Hill made an attempt to classify words into word classes according to the *distribution* (or structure) and *substitution*. This approach was entirely different from those of traditional linguists (Irisqulov, 2009). The distribution is the ability of words to combine with other words of different types.

They suggest, *firstly*, not to translate the statements like the traditional materials were done; *secondly*, they tried to avoid the traditional terminology, because their approach was based on formal (distributional), not semantic principle, i.e. the occurrences of words in the utterances. In other words the lexical meaning of words was not taken into account.

Ch.Fries and his co-workers used the words in such sentences as

- Woggles *ugged* diggles
- Uggs *digged* woggles
- Diggles *woggled* uggles

To Ch.Fries the words of the first line – «*Woggles, Uggs, Diggles*», are things, because they occupy positions where the «thing» is placed and the «forms» they have in contrast with other positions and forms (Fries, 1956, 69–70). These are all structural signals or markers of English.

The second line words – «*ugged, digged, woggled*» show the action done by previous words according to their positions and word forms (inflections) they have.

The third line words – «*diggles, woggles, uggles*» show the positions where the *object* of the sentence occupy. These sentences are grammatically correct, but lexically incorrect as they have no sense. We can consider them as sentences because of the «positions» they occupy in the sentence or word order.

In this way Ch. Fries introduced four major classes of words and fifteen form classes (Fries, 1956, 70–76).

One of the opponents of this conception A. Nickols disproved the correctness of the structural classification principle. «The linguists use the term «form class» to refer to nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, rather than the traditional parts of speech in order to emphasize that the words are classified on the basis of *form* rather than *meaning*» (English Syntax, 1965, 7).

The value of American specialists classification was the investigation of 15 groups of function words. Those linguists were first to mention some of their peculiarities. But these functional classes were very much broken into small groups. And specialists warn that «this is good for practice, but bad for theory. Theoretical grammar is more interested in uniting linguistic facts than that in separating them».

An opinion was widely held, and partly still is, that the structural classification principles were *one-sided* either in its meaning, or its form or its functions. Being deprived of the parameter — «meaning», distributional classification was *rejected* as *inconsistent* for language teaching.

There is one more information for would be teachers or philologists for their grammatical proficiency.

British grammarian argues and questions the principle of classification: «Are the traditional *partes orationis* — noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection — still acceptable as valid categories applicable to all tongues? To this question the short answer is that those word classes apply to Indo-European languages alone» (Potter, 1957, 98).

As short survey and interpretation of these questions the «status of parts of speech in morphology» brings to such conclusion — the problem of parts of speech or word classes classification is far from being solved.

The linguistic analysis of these word classes brings the specialists to conclude into these rubrics:

- Words denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, and so forth—words with the corresponding references on the objective reality, i.e. *notional* words.
- Words that have no references of their own in the objective reality, i.e. the words which only help to form objective reality — *function* or *grammatical* words.

Differences on the Status of Criteria

I. There are differences among the linguists on the question which criteria is more important in defining the status of parts of speech. Prof. A. Smirnitskiy suggests three criteria, but the scholar for the first place puts the value of *syntactic function*; second place is the *meaning*, third occupies — the *forms of words*.

Prof. B.A. Ilyish also distinguishes 3 principles, but in the following order: *meaning*, *form* and *function*. Prof. L.S. Barkhudarov and D.A. Shtelling classified the words according to four principles: the *first* is taken by the «syntactic function», the *second* is the «morphological form», the *third* is «combinability», the *fourth* is the «stem-building» or word-formation affixes.

The author does not take into account the criteria of «meaning», considering that it is unnecessary in defining the word classes.

B.S. Khaimovich and B.L. Rogovskaya maintain the following word order or values:

- 1) meaning
- 2) stem-building
- 3) form of words (inflections)
- 4) combinability of words
- 5) their syntactical functions.

But there still exist controversies and difficulties in determining almost all the parts of speech. *One group* of scholars define non-finite forms of verbs as an independent word class, *the others* do not. The status of such types of «stative verbs» as *alike*, *aloof*, *ashore*, *alive* has not been settled yet; the place of «particles, modal words, emotives» are still remaining as problems in the

system of morphology. One may come across with questions in defining the status of certain adverbs.

Some words are not included into any parts of speech (e.g. the «words of affirmation» and «negation» «yes» — «no»). In different classifications they are considered as «word — sentence» and not included into any parts of speech (Kaushanskaya, et al, 1973).

Though there exist a great amount of various books on grammar published in Britain, USA, Russia and other countries, there's not an ideal classification which sets by most of the grammarians. The reasons are seen *firstly*, in the inventory of parts of speech both notional and functional; *secondly*, in the application of the nature and number of criteria or approach in defining the word stock into parts of speech.

b) The British Classification System

Most authors of English Grammars published in Britain assume the three system of parts of speech:

- *Eight parts of speech*: noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, conjunction, preposition, interjection. As to the absence of article in this classification some linguists explain the lack of article in Latin. Those scholars consider «article» as type of adjectives. These authors take into account only two criteria — meaning and function on the sentence.
- *Nine parts of speech*, which encompass — article, noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, conjunction, preposition, interjection;
- *Ten parts of speech*, which mention — article, noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, conjunction, preposition, interjection, particle;

The most spread classification of English Grammar in the XX century in Britain is the Latin one, consisting of eight-nine parts of speech.

Russian grammarians mainly determine from twelve to fourteen parts of speech taking into account from three to four-five criteria: *meaning, form, function, distribution* and *word*

formation morphemes. Time and scrupulous analysis of grammatical material in both directions show which is which.

Questions

- What are the parts of speech? Mention the criteria used by classic grammarians.
- Explain the notions «inflected» and «uninflected». What do they mean?
- Mention the grammatical controversy of parts of speech in literature.
- Define the functional approach to the parts of speech.
- Define the semantic classification of words.
- What is the morphological classification of words based on?
- What is the third criterion used by classic grammarians?
- By whom the rest criteria were proposed? What do they denote?
- Are there any differences on the status of suggested criteria between linguists?
- Point out the shortcomings of certain criteria.

The Notion of Grammatical Category.

Definition and its Types

- History of the concept «Category».
- Definitions to the notion of grammatical category in literature and its types.

The words of every language are divided into several word classes, or «parts of speech», such as nouns, verbs and adjectives, etc. The words of a given class exhibit two or more forms in somewhat different grammatical circumstances. These forms are not interchangeable and each can be used only in a given grammatical situation. The variation in form is required by the existence of grammatical category applying to the class of words.

The term «grammatical category» is the base of grammar. These categories were proposed by ancient philosophers. They divided them into «two types»: the *primary categories* which consist

of parts of speech; the *secondary categories* that characterize the categories within parts of speech. (Michael, 1970, 9; Исмаилов, 1980, 18).

Every grammatical category is the expression of some general idea – some logical category. In this case the grammatical category of «plurality» expresses «more-than-oneness», and therefore falls under the wider logical categories of «number» and «quantity» and the grammatical category «tense» corresponds to the logical category «time» (Sweet. 1955, 10).

By the notion *grammatical category* the linguists understand the «combination of meaning and form».

Ex.: Let's see the interpretations of this notion. English *nouns* are inflected or has inflexions to mark «gender, number and case»; *Adjectives and adverbs* are inflected to form «degrees of comparison»; *Verbs* are inflected to form «voice, mood, tense, number, person». These inflexions are called *grammatical categories*.

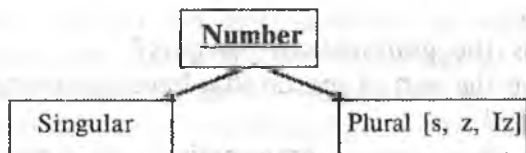
According to one more opinion (Barkhudarov, Irisqulov et al, 2009) in order to call a linguistic phenomena a «grammatical category» there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;
- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;
- the particular meanings must be opposed to each other;
- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Any linguistic phenomena that meets these requirements are called «grammatical category».

- English nouns have a grammatical category of number;
- It consists of 2 particular meanings: singular (a boy, a child), plural (boys, children, foot-feet, man-men);
- Singular is opposed to plural;
- Singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means.

Singular is represented by a zero morpheme; plural has the allomorphs like [s, z, Iz]. Schematically it can be shown as follows:



There are 3 types of grammatical categories: synthetical, analytical and mixed types. *Synthetical* grammatical categories have mostly bound forms and are formed by the help of:

- *grammatical inflections*: book-books, boy-boys. Words like «books, boys» with bound morphemes are called «synthetic» words. They are words both in form and content;
- *root changes*: write-wrote-written, foot-feet, tooth-teeth. Plurality is expressed by vowel change;
- *suppletive way*: the verb «to be» has many as eight forms: am/is/are, was/were/been/being and like other verb in frequent use; to go/went/going/gone; as well as numerals: one/first, he/him; and pronouns: she/her, we/us, they/them, I/me, he/him.

The Analytical grammatical categories have mostly free forms and are formed by means of functional words:

- *Auxiliary verbs*: shall, will; b) prepositions: *on* the table; *in* the box.

The mixed type of grammatical categories are formed by the help of «discontinuous» morphemes. The categories of mood, voice and so on are called a «mixed type» of grammatical categories: to go – to be going (Continuous), to be+ed (Voice), to have+ed (Perfect).

There are some opinions on the number of grammatical categories of verbs:

Prof. B.A. Ilyish supposed 6 grammatical categories in English verbs: tense, voice, person, number, aspect and mood; Prof. L.S. Barchudarov and D.A. Shteling suggest 4 grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, mood; Prof. B. Khaymovich and B. Rogovskaya propose 8 grammatical categories: person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, posteriority and order.

Questions

- What is the grammatical category?
- Mention the part of speech that have grammatical categories and why?
- Explain the types of grammatical categories.
- Is the notion the grammatical category a new concept? If not, why?

The Noun in Modern English: Definition and Classification

- Definition of the concept «noun»
- Analysis of the notion from different points of view
- The grammatical categories of nouns and their controversies
- The notion of Determiners: Traditional and modern approaches to the question

Definition

Parts of speech are the basic word classes that English has. It is important to be able to recognize and identify the different word classes in English, so that the learner can understand grammar explanations and use the right word form in the right place.

In Modern English nouns are one of the main parts of Morphology. As any other parts of speech nouns are considered to be a part of speech because of the following features or peculiarities:

According to their semantic function, a noun is a *naming word*. They name persons, things, idea, living creature, quality or action. Its main attribute is the nominative function of the language. Ex: a cowboy, theatre, tax, thought, tree, kindness, arrival. The words always call up the thing or idea itself.

They fall into several subclasses: «simple, derivative, compound».

According to their morphological forms. They have the grammatical inflexions which characterize categories of *number*

and *case*, but they do not have endings for subject or object. The inflections may be of regular and irregular types.

According to their syntactic characteristics. They fulfill in sentences the functions of a subject, object, attribute, an adverbial modifier and a predicative, but not «a predicate».

Ex.: A stone wall, my friend is a student; I saw his car at the bus stop.

According to their word-formation morpheme. They have their stem-building morphemes, which characterize the nouns: -er, -or, -ist, -hood, -ship, -ment — writer, operator, pianist, neighbourhood, friendship, development.

According to their combinability with other parts of speech nouns can combine with articles, prepositions, adjectives, possessive pronouns, other nouns but pronouns and adverbs.

Ex.: 1) **The** text-book is under **the** box. 2) **His** article is well worth reading.

Classification of Nouns

According to different classification principles nouns fall into several rubrics:

Nouns according to their *semantics or lexical meaning or nomination* are divided into two principal classes:

1. *Common* nouns.
2. *Proper* nouns.

A *common noun* is called a word that is the name of each thing out of a class of things of the same kind, as «horse», «stove», «city», «wheat», «iron», «water», «sugar», «wood». Such nouns name things that can be seen.

Common nouns are divided into:

1. Ordinary class nouns or *concrete* nouns. Concrete nouns refer to definite objects which you use or one of your senses to observe: chair, apple, a horse, a tree, a bicycle, wool, etc.

2. Mass nouns. These nouns can't take plural or combine with number words; -water, gas, milk, oil, etc.

3. Collective nouns. These nouns refer to groups consisting of more than one individual or entity: — school, committee,

people, parliament, government, crowd, peasantry, family, cattle, poultry, jury, deer, sheep.

4. Material nouns. They may be *metals*: iron, gold, silver, etc; *products*: sugar, tea, rice, wheat; *natural phenomena*: rain, cloud, frost, mist; *geological bodies*: sand, rock, stone.

5. Abstract nouns. We can not see them. Such nouns, on the other hand, refer to ideas, feelings or concepts.

Some of them are derived from adjectives by adding -ness (whiteness), -ity (purity), -ice (justice), -dom (freedom), -th (strength) or from nouns (as priesthood). Thus, abstract nouns are the names of quality, action or state: as «science», «growth», «warship», «vacancy», «wisdom», «sadness», «justice», «hate», «happiness», «love», «pride», «thoughts», «hardness», «darkness», «heat».

6. Verbal nouns. Verbs ending in «-ing», when used as nouns, are sometimes called Verbal Nouns; as «singing», «running», «learning». They express state or action.

Ex.: *Writing* is an art. It is good for *curing* a cold.

He will be punished for *doing* it.

SUBDIVISION OF NOUNS

Proper	Common	Abstract	Verbal
Thomas	river	sweetness	walking
London	boy	length	breathing
February	milk	science	doing

Due to their *quantitative* structure they may be countable and uncountable.

Countable and uncountable nouns — such as pen (countable), rise (uncountable) — show article contrast: a pen-the pens; the pens are all possible just as rice-the rice are both possible.

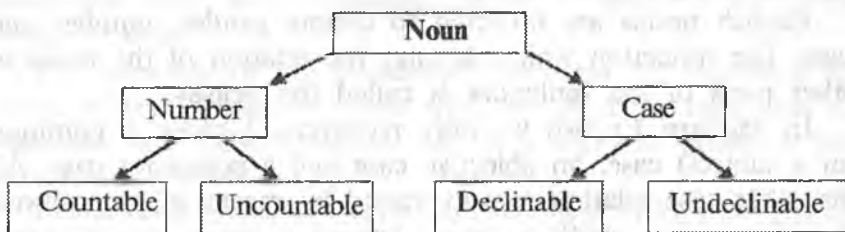
Countable nouns differ from uncountable nouns in that they cannot stand alone, cannot be modified by some, unless they are in plural forms, can be modified by «a», and can be pluralized. Semantically, they generally refer to easily individuated objects — girl, book, horse.

Uncountable nouns, in contrast, can stand alone, can be modified by «some», can not be modified by «a», and can not be pluralized. Semantically uncountable nouns refer to an undifferentiated mass: rice, gold, bread, cheese, music, butter, sugar, hometask, coffee, air, water, literature, rain, snow, walking, literature, ice, peace.

Proper noun is a word used as the name of some particular person, animal, place, or thing as John, London, July, Wednesday, names of ships, hotels, and clubs. The word «proper» means «own». A proper name is a person's own name. They distinguished from common nouns which describe a class of entities (such as city, planet or person). The name of each is an individual.

Proper nouns are not normally preceded by an article or other limiting modifier (such as *any* or *some*). Proper nouns are usually capitalized.

Nouns according to their grammatical meaning are divided into the following groups: (or with regard to the grammatical categories of the parts of speech)



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

- Nouns form the largest word class. According to one opinion they denote or name «classes and categories of things in the world, including people, animals, inanimate things, places, events, qualities and states».

Nouns are not commonly identified by their form; however, some common suffixes such as «-age» («strinkage»), «-hood»

(«sisterhood»), «-ism» (journalism), «-ist» («lyricist»), «-ment» («adornment»), «-ship» («companionship»), «-tude» («latitude»), and so forth are usually identifiers of nouns.

The Grammatical Categories in the English Nouns: The Category of Case

Definition

In linguistic literature the notion of case is used in two senses: semantic (or logic) and syntactic. Due to the first approach case is the semantic relation of the noun to the verb.

Ex.: I opened the door with the key.

In English the semantic case may correspond to various forms in the syntactic structure of the sentence, or marked by the order of words and they use of the preposition «with».

The syntactic case notion dates back to the grammars of ancient Greece and ancient Rome. It is a case whose main role is to indicate a relationship between the dependent words. Thus, genitive is the case which marks one noun as dependent on another: Jane's handkerchief.

English nouns are inflected to denote gender, number and case. The inflection which denotes the relation of the noun to other parts of the sentences is called the «**case**».

In Modern English we only recognize 3 cases: a common (or a subject) case, an objective case and a possessive case. All the other case relations are expressed by means of prepositions as «of a man», «with a man», «about a man», «to a man», «without a man.»

Illustrations

Common: The *farmer* loves the cat.
Objective: The cat loves the *farmer*.
Possessive: We love the *farmer's* cat.

Common Case

The common case is that form in which a noun is used when it is the subject of a verb. The cases are distinguished by their use or distribution.

In ordinary declarative sentence common case precedes the verb.

Ex.: The farmer loves the dog.

The common case is the naming form and names either the person or thing spoken of.

Ex.: Men build houses. The boy was struck by his brother.

Possessive Case

The possessive case is that form of a noun by means of which we can show that something belongs to the person or thing for which it stands. The possessive case is the only case that is marked by an inflexion with nouns or pronouns.

Ex.: I love the farmer's dog.

- The common and objective of nouns are always alike, and they are not distinguished by an inflexion.

- The Possessive Singular is generally formed by adding an apostrophe and an ('s) to the common: as – Common singular – Boy Possessive singular – Boy's

- The possessive plural is generally formed by adding an apostrophe only; as – Common plural – Boys Possessive plural – Boys'

The meaning of the possessive case may be expressed by means of the prepositions «of» with the objective case after it. Thus, for «my father's house», we may say «the house of my father».

The possessive case of Compound Nouns is formed by affixing «the», «'s» to the end of the last word, as «the men- of -wars' crews».

The old Genitive or Possessive suffix in English was «-es» (still preserved in Wednesday, i.e. Wedenes day). The apostrophe to the possessive case singular marks that the vowel of the suffix has been dropped.

As a rule only nouns denoting living things may be used in the possessive case. But in some case inanimate objects and abstract notions (planets, the names of countries) may use possessive case:

Ex.: Yesterday's lecture was worth listening. We were tired after a many hour's walk. The sun's rays warm the earth.

Objective Case

The objective case is that form in which a noun is used when it stands for the object of the action or when it comes after a preposition.

Ex.: 1) The dog loves the farmer.

2) John was riding in a coach.

The noun «coach», which comes after the preposition «in», is in the objective case.

As it is seen by the examples, the common and objective cases are not formed by inflexions. They are like in form.

Thus, the grammatical case of nouns is the system of oppositions such as «farmer – farmer's», «boy – boys» showing the relation of the nouns to other words in speech.

The Problem of Case

In linguistic literature the problem of case is still disputable. This can be seen from the fact that views on the subject differ widely. There are four approaches to the case of nouns. The first group of linguists H. Sweet, C. Nesfield, G. Curme or early grammars consider that there are four-five-six cases. They proposed these cases taking an analogy from Latin grammars.

The concept of case due to H. Sweet is a syntactic relation that can be realized syntactically or morphologically. He speaks of inflected and non-inflected cases (the genitive vs. non-inflected cases), (the genitive vs. common case).

Non-inflected cases, according to the scholar, are equivalent to the nominative, vocative, accusative and dative of inflected languages (Sweet, 48-92, 50-52) such as Latin.

G. Curme distinguishes four cases: nominative, accusative, dative and genitive. He thinks that some prepositions have developed into inflectional particles, e.g. «the man's son» or «the son of the man» (Curme, 1931, 129-31).

The second group (H. Whitehall, M. Bryant, L. Murray) speak about three case systems: nominative, objective and possessive. (Bryant, 1945, 31-32; Whitehall, 1956, 58). These three case system, based on the analogy of the form of pronouns, were popular in the grammars of the 20th century.

The third group (Воронцова, 1960, 180; Ilyish, 1971, 47; Мухин, 1957, № 2) prefer to say that there is no grammatical category of case of nouns in modern English. They say:

a) there is only one inflection («'s») which has lost the property of case inflection in Middle English;

b) it is not always added to nouns;

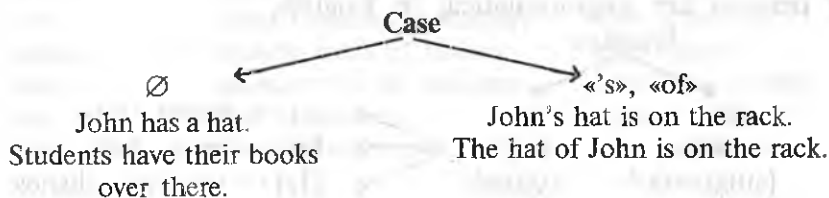
c) it can be added to adverbs (today's), to word-combinations (his and his sister's flat);

d) since the ending «-s» can refer to a phrase, it is no longer a case inflexion, even when it belongs to a single noun.

Thus A. Mukhin advanced a new concept, according to which the «'s» form is not a case form, but a special possessive form from the noun, expressing the «*category of possession*».

Taking into account what has been said about «apostrophe -s» (-'s) has developed into a lexico-grammatical affix with the meaning of «possession». G. Curme treats the preposition «of» and «to» as «inflectional prepositions». B. Ilyish considers that «'s» has developed into a particle denoting «'s» as «form words» or «post-positions» and a «combination of a noun with the post position».

The fourth group (R. Lowth, Transformational grammar adherents, M. Bloch) consider that English nouns have two-case systems: common and possessive. The apostrophe -s, ('s) is added to single nouns, together with the allomorph of «of» they cover all the nouns to make a sensible phrase or a sentence.



There is one more opinion propounded by German Max Deutschbein, that English nouns have four cases: nominative, genitive, dative and accusative. Of which the genitive case can be expressed by the «-’s» inflection and by the preposition «of», the dative by the preposition «to» and also by «word order».

We think that «case» is part of the morphological system of a language. In order to call a grammatical phenomena a category, at least two grammatical correlated systems are needed (like the category of tense, the category of number, or the category of mood).

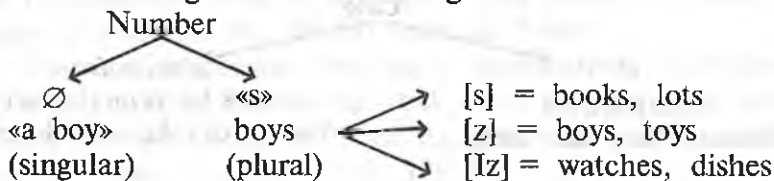
From this angle we will not accept or recognize any cases expressed by non – morphological means.

Nowadays the apostrophe «-s» (-’s) can no longer be described, as a case inflexion in nouns. Because «-’s» is not used only with nouns, (if it is, in this case it may be genitive), but if it belongs to a phrase, it tends to become a syntactical element, – a postposition (somebody else’s child (adverb), My father and mother’s friends).

The Category of Number

Definition: Number is a difference in form which shows whether one is speaking of one thing or of more than one thing. English has the grammatical dimension – number with two values or grammatical categories – the singular and the plural. The category of number is a system of oppositions like: «a boy» – «boys», where singular number is opposed to plural one. In this case singularity is expressed by a zero morpheme. And plurality is marked by a morpheme «-s».

Thus English nouns are inflected for number and number of inflection is obligatory. The examples «two apple» and «lots of person» are ungrammatical in English.



Formation of Plurality

The morpheme of plurality has several allomorphs of expression. One way is regularly by adding the *inflection*, the second way is *irregularly* and third show no difference at all. Nevertheless, we still want to assign these words to the same category because in other respects they behave just like the more regular words.

- Regular way:

- a) «s» or «es»: books, maps; lashes, glasses;

- b) «en»: ox — oxen. This ending remained only in this word. It was quite common in Old and Middle English such writings: eyen (eyes), treen (trees).

- c) «ren»: child — children.

- Irregular way:

- a) by *changing the vowel* sound of the word: tooth — teeth, mouse — mice, foot — feet, goose-geese, man — men, woman — women, louse — lice;

- b) by *leaving the singular unchanged*: sheep, deer, fish, fowl, cannon, salmon, cod, swine.

After numerals we often use the singular to do duty for the plural: «two brace of birds», «six gross of buttons», «a three — penny book». Etc. Horse, i.e. horse — soldiers and Foot, i.e. foot — soldiers have become a sort of collective nouns (Gill's Grammar, 1922, 35; Mason, 1913, 39).

- Words with double plurals, which differ in meaning.

Singular	Plural	Plural
brother...	brothers (by birth)...	brethern (of a community)
cloth...	cloths (kinds of cloth)...	clothes (garments)
fish...	fishes (regarded separately)	Fish (collective)
genius...	geniuses (men of talent)...	genii (spirits)
index...	indexes (table of contents)...	indices (in Algebra)
pea...	peas (separately)...	pease (collective)
cow...	cow (individually)...	cows or kine (collectively)

Some nouns have no plural form. Such are:

Abstract nouns: goodness, wisdom, illness, kindness, friendship, happiness. In English many abstract nouns are formed by adding noun-forming suffixes (-ness, -ity, -ion).

Names of metals: gold, silver, lead, sugar, wine, etc.

Arts and sciences: surgery, geometry, chemistry.

- Some foreign words (Latin, Greek, French, Italian origin) generally retain their own proper plurals.

In Latin: focus, genus, datum, data, formula, series

In Greek words: phenomenon, phenomena, crises, crisis.

Plurals used as singulars:

- Some names of sciences ends in «ics»: (Greek) mathematics, physics, phonetics, politics, optics, mechanics, news, economics, statistics. They are plural *in form* and idea, but are regarded as *singular*.
- Certain words as «wages, pains» are followed by a verb in the plural as «pains were taken», «wages have arisen» (Mason, 1913, 40).

- *Pluralia tantum* (words used only in plural)

a) Instrument or articles of dress: trousers, scissors, tongs, drawers, clothes, stockings, socks, glasses, breeches, pincers, scales, spectacles.

b) Parts of the body, certain disease, games, ceremonies, measles; billiards, ashes, thanks, goods, tidings, victuals, stocks;

c) The nouns «contents, riches, proceeds, potatoes, carrots, onions, oats», having a plural meaning take the verb in the plural (Kaushanskaya, 1973, 243–46).

- *Singularia tantum* (words which are used only in singular): peace, milk, butter, oil, air, gas, water, sheep, fish.

- Plurals of compound nouns. Compound nouns form their plural in several ways:

a) By adding the plural marker at the end of compound: major-generals, car-loads, Field-mice, fellow-servants, fellow-students, statesmen;

b) By adding the plural marker to the principal word: brothers-in-law, fathers-in-law, sisters-in-law, lookers-on, passers-by,

letters-patient, courts-material, commanders-in-chief, men-of-war (Allen, 1920, 44).

c) By adding the plural markers to both parts of compounds: man-child/men-children, woman-singer/ women-singers, fellow-servant/fellow-servants, fellow-student/fellow-students.

- When two or more proper nouns are preceded by a title, the title only is pluralized: Senators Jones and White, Professors Brown and Hill, the Misses Smith (preferable to miss Smiths)

Questions

- How is a noun defined? Point out its criteria in the definition.
- What functions do nouns perform in a sentence?
- What stem-building elements do the nouns have? Use them in examples.
- What is a category? Speak about the categories the nouns have.
- What is meant by the case of a noun? Point out the usages of common and objective cases.
- Mention the opinions on the number of cases in English nouns.
- Speak about the category of number and illustrate it with examples.
- Mention the class of nouns that have no singular form.
- Mention the sciences belonging in «-ics». Do they have plurality of nouns or only singularity?

The Category of Gender

Inflection is a change made in the form of a word to show the relation of the word in the sentence. Old English (Anglo-Saxon) had grammatical gender. Gender in English belongs only to nouns and pronouns. No other words have any distinctions of gender. Gender, in the English language, is a distinction of certain words according as they indicate sex or the lack of it. Nouns in Modern English have no grammatical gender. The

gender of the noun is connected with the lexical meaning of the word.

There's an opinion that logically there are only two Genders in the English language, although most authorities speak of three Genders (Jill's Grammar, 1922, 40).

Nouns are divided into 3 classes or so-called Genders: *Masculine*, *Feminine* and *Neuter*.

1. Names of «male» beings are Masculine Gender; (Latin, *masculus*, a male);

2. Names of «female» being are of Feminine Gender (Latin, *famina*, a woman);

3. Names of neither sex are of Neuter Gender (Latin, *neuter*, neither from *ne*, not, and *uter*, *either*).

In linguistic literature we come across with the following conceptions. Due to some grammarians (Ilyish, Palmer, Morokhovskaya) nouns have no category of gender in modern English. Prof. B.A.Ilyish states that not a single word in modern English shows only peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting male or female being. The difference between such nouns as «actor» and «actress» is a purely lexical one.

Thus, the difference between male and female beings is usually not expressed at all in the words *doctor*, *teacher*, *student*, *sportsman*, *friend*, *etc*; which may denote both mail and female beings.

In other words, the category of sex should not be confused with the category of gender, because sex is an objective biological category. Other scholars (M.Bloch, John Lyons) admit existence of category of gender. Prof. M.Bloch regards that the existence of the category of gender in Modern English can be proved by the correlation of nouns with personal pronouns of the third person (he, she, it). Accordingly, there are three genders in English, the masculine, the feminine and neuter (non-person) gender.

The gender of Nouns is distinguished in 3 ways:

1) by different words: man, boy, father, brother, nephew, king, lord, James, Henry woman, girl, mother, sister, niece, queen, Mary

2) by different endings: lion – lioness, count – countess, host – hostess, actor – actress, baron – baroness, heir – heiress, negro – negress, tiger – tigress.

3) by distinguishing words: man-servant, maid-servant, mister – mistress, he-bear, she-bear, hen-sparrow, cock-sparrow (Allen, 1920, 47).

Stone, tree, house, London, picture, apple, dictionary are *neuter* nouns. We ought to distinguish the two terms: things may be of the male or female sex, but only words can be of the Masculine, Feminine, or Neuter genders. They may be replaced by the pronouns «he», «she» and «it».

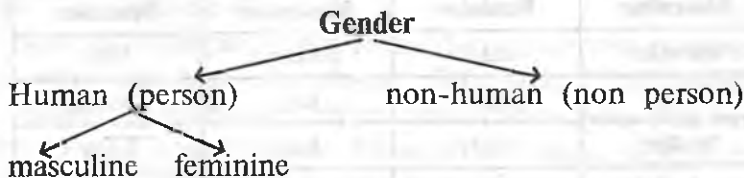
Gender marking is not substantial in modern English. However, distinctions in personal pronouns have been inherited from old English, in which nouns had grammatical gender.

Ex.: John insisted that *he* would pay for *his* dinner.

Julia insisted that *she* would own pay for *her* dinner.

Here, the gender of the subject is marked both on the personal pronouns (he/she) and on the possessive adjectives (his/her). In these examples the use of possessives are redundant. The presence of he or she is enough for gender.

The category of gender is strictly oppositional in English. The oppositional structure of this category can be shown by the following way:



Thus, it is necessary to make a distinction. Though in modern English gender is not mere grammatical distinction, but is coincident with sex.

English nouns can show the sex of their reference only lexically or by means of certain notional words used as a sex indicator or by suffix derivation.

A boy friend	→ a girl-friend
A man-driver	→ a woman-driver
A land-lord	→ a land-lady
A he-goat	→ a she-goat
A cock-sparrow	→ a hen-sparrow
Mister	→ Mistress
A boy (young boy)	→ Miss
King	→ Queen
An actor	→ an actress
A salesman	→ a salesgirl
Waiter	→ waitress
Pea-cock	→ pea-hen
Turkey-cock	→ Turkey-hen

The *neuter gender* refers to things which have *no life*, as house, river, flower.

There are three ways of distinguishing the Feminine from the Masculine:

- By a different word
- By an inflection (or ending)
- By prefixing a different word (a noun or a pronoun)

First way: by a different word

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
bachelor	maid	husband	Wife
boy	girl	king	Queen
brother	sister	lord	Lady
bull	cow	man	woman
earl	countess	nephew	Niece
father	mother	sir	Madam
gentleman	lady	son	daughter

Second way: by the affixes or inflections: -ess, -ix, and -ine

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
actor	actress	governor	governess
ambassador	ambadress	heir	heiress
author	authoress	hunter	huntress
baron	baroness	instructor	instructress
count	countess	lion	lioness
director	directress	lad	Lass
duke	duchess	master	mistress
giant	giantess	monitor	monitress
poet	poetess	prince	princess

-ine and others

hero — heroine sultan — sultana signor — signora
 czar — czarina don — donna

Third way: by prefixing a noun or pronoun which denotes the sex.

he — goat she — goat turkey — cock turkey — hen
 man-servant made-servant cock-sparrow hen-sparrow
 he — bear she — bear male-child female-child
 he-devil she-devil

Note: Sometimes proper names are used to answer this purpose: Jack-ass, Jenny-ass, tom-cat, tib-cat, Billy-goat, Nanny-goat

Note: Names of inanimate objects are of Pea-cock, Pea-hen neuter. In po-etry, sometimes in Prose, a few neuter nouns are personified, that is, considered as the names of males and females.

Note: The noun «child» and «baby» are often replaced by the pronoun «it». The nouns «the Sun, Time, Day, rivers, winds, mountains, the Ocean, seasons» actions connected with strength are considered to be of Masculine Gender, the nouns «the moon, the earth, ships, countries, night, cities», conveying and idea of weakness or beauty are used in the *Feminine Gender*.

Note: Gentler emotions, abstract conceptions as Nature, Liberty, Charity, Victory, Mercy, Religion, etc., as well as «ship, steamer, boat» are connected to be of Feminine Gender when they are personified.

Ex.: We saw a *boat*. She was sailing west. The moon appears in all *her* beauty. Charity drops *her* loving tears.

Sex and Gender

Sex is a distinction between things, not between names. Gender is distinction between names, not between things. That's why it is preferable to speak of a man as a muscular being, or talk of things being of the masculine or feminine gender. Things may be of male and female sex, but only words can be the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender. There are few traces of gender marking in Modern English: some loanwords inflect according to gender such as *actor/actress* where the suffix «-or» denotes the masculine and the suffix «-ress» denotes the feminine.

The third personal pronouns (and their possessive forms) are gender specific. «he/his», «she/her (s)», «it/its» (neuter gender for objects and abstractions «one/one's»)(common gender, for anyone or anything. But these are insignificant features compared to a typical language with grammatical gender.)

The English nouns that inflect for gender are very small minority, typically, loanword from non-Germanic languages (the suffix «-ress» in the word «actress») (Wagner, 2004).

The third person singular forms of the personal pronouns are the only modifiers that inflect according to gender.

The gender of an English pronoun coincides with the real gender of the referent rather than with the grammatical gender of its antecedent. The choice between «he», «she», and «it» invariably comes down to whether they designate a human male, a human female, or something else (Baron, 1986).

The pronoun «she» is sometimes used to refer to things which contain people such as countries, ships and cars, or to refer to machines.

Male and Female Speech

Gender marking is not substantial in modern English. However, distractions in personal pronouns have been inherited from old English, in which nouns had grammatical gender, going speakers of modern English notion of how grammatical gender works, although these gendered pronouns are now ordinary the physical sex.

A full system of grammatical gender involves two phenomena:

Inflexion: many words have different forms for different genders and certain morphological markers are characteristic of each gender;

Agreement: every noun is associated with one gender class. In a phrase or clause, words that refer to a given noun inflect to match the gender of that noun.

English is regarded as not having grammatical gender since they do not make gender distinction through inflection and do not generally require gender agreement between related words.

Grammatical gender is commonly found in Afro-Asiatic, Indo-European, Caucasian and several Australian aboriginal, Slavish languages.

Gender is observed in personal names, personal pronouns and animal recognition (Wagner, 2004).

Personal names:

Common feminine suffixes used in English names are «-a» (Robert – Roberta, Alexander – Alexandra, Justin – Justine (-e, of French origin)). («-a» Latin or Romance origin). Distinct names for men and women are also common in languages where gender is not grammatical.

Personal pronouns often have different forms based on gender. Even though it has lost grammatical gender. English still distinguishes between «he» (male person), «she» (female person) and «it» (object, abstraction, or animal).

But this also does not guarantee the existence of grammatical gender.

Animals:

In English, individual speakers, may prefer one gender or another for animals of unknown sex: – a tendency to refer more often to dogs as «*he*» and to cats as «*she*». If the gender is unknown, when speaking of an animal, «*it*» is used.

As words of conclusion we may brief the following:

While grammatical gender was a fully productive inflectional category in old English, Modern English has a much less pervasive gender system, primarily based on natural gender.

There are certain traces of gender marking in Modern English:

- A number of loanwords inflect according to gender, such as actor/actress, waiter/waitress, where the suffix *-or* denotes the masculine, and the suffix *-ress* denotes the feminine (Baron, 1998).

- The third person singular pronouns (and their possessive forms) are gender specific. «*he/his*», «*she/her(s)*», «*it/its*» (neuter gender for objects and abstractions «*one/one's*») (common gender, for anyone or anything)

- A glint of gender endings live on in the cultural memory of novel terms such as *fella* from «*fellow*» or *blonde* from «*blond*».

- Personal titles concerning gender markings are enumerated for learners' attention. I think the reminding of them for both teachers and learners of English will be useful.

But these are significant features peculiar of English compared to a typical language with grammatical gender.

- English has no productive gender markers. The English nouns that inflect for gender are very small minority, typically, loanwords from non-Germanic languages. In languages with the grammatical gender there are typically thousands of words which inflect for gender.

- The third person singular forms of the personal pronouns are the only modifiers that inflect according to gender.

Some exceptions:

Animals, which can go either way, being referred to according to their sex, or as «*it*».

Certain variants of term use are also suggested which will be helpful for learners.

Questions

- What does the category of gender denote? Is the gender peculiar to English language? If not, give reasons.
- Enumerate the names of genders. Point out the formation of the first two.
- Mention the sciences ending in «-ics». Do they show plurality of nouns or singularity?
- Point out when are the indicators of sex used? Give examples.
- Are there any exceptions to the given rule? If there are, mention them.
- Form two short sentences to show agreement in number and two others to show agreement in gender.

The Notion of Determiners and their Status in Morphology

This word class/part of speech exists in many languages, including English, though many English dictionaries still classify determiners under other part of speech.

Determiners include articles (both definite – *the*, and indefinite – *a/an*), demonstratives (like *this/these, that/those*), quantifiers or quantitatives (like *all, many, some, any, each*), numerals (like *two, first, second*), genitives (like *my, your, his, her, its, our, their*), interrogatives (like *which, what*) and exclamatives (like *such, what*) that modify noun-heads in noun phrases.

The main job of determiners is to function as words that «determine» other nouns, where «determine» is generally conceived of as indicating information about quantification (grammatical or semantic) number, issues involving reference and noun subclass membership (i.e. count, noncount, proper noun subclasses).

Therefore determining functions make determiners quite distinct from adjectives which generally provide «qualitative» information about nouns and cannot provide determining functions.

Ex.:	the	picture	the	big	red	picture
	<i>D.</i>	<i>noun</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>noun</i>
	many	pictures	many	nice	red	pictures
	<i>D.</i>	<i>noun</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>noun</i>
			all	nice	red	pictures
			<i>D.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>noun</i>

As seen in these examples determiners occur at the far left edge of the noun phrase before the noun-head and before any other adjective modifiers.

The distinctness of the determiners and adjective positions relative to each other and the noun had its demonstrable in that adjectives may never precede determiners.

Determiners can be divided into three subclasses. According to their position with respect to each other:

- predeterminers
- central determiners
- post determiners

Free determiners include words like *all, both, half, double, twice, three-times, one-third, one-fifth, such*, exclamation *what*.

Ex.: Twice my age, such a big boy, what a clever suggestion, half a minute.

Central determiners include words like *the, a/an, this/these, that/those every, each, enough, much, more, most, less, no, some, either, neither, which, what*.

Ex.: Those big cartoons, some white apples, every big stone.

While, the, a/an, no, and every only function as determiners, the other central determiners can also function as members of other lexical categories as pronouns. For example, *that*, functions as a determiner in

«*That* item is our suggestion», but as pronoun in «*That* is our suggestion».

Noun phrases with a genitive marker «-'s» can have a determinative function like genitive determiners *his, her, its, their*.

Ex.: My cousin's lovely children;

Both my cousin's lovely children;

All my cousin's lovely children.

Traditional grammarians have recognized two kinds of determiners: the and a/an. It is common to regard other elements as determiners or as parts of determiners. It is convenient to regard «all, any» and the like as part of the determiner (these items are called predeterminers). And finally pronominal genitives such as «his and John's» are shown to behave as determiners by transformational criteria. When the class of determiner is extended to include other items besides «the» and «a/an», the traditional categories of definite and indefinite do not cover all the new cases (Smith, 1964, 37).

A. Nichols calls a possessive proper noun (John's coat, Johnson's foreign policy) out of context as a noun marker. And he defines it a «determiner» and use the letter «D» to symbolize any **determiner** (1965, 4).

Linguists today distinguish determiners from **adjectives**, considering them to be two separate parts of speech, but traditionally determiners were considered adjectives in some of their uses.

In some English manuals determiners were not treated as a special part of speech. They are often recognizable by being listed both as «**adjectives**» and as «**pronouns**».

The term «determiner» has different meanings in works of different authors. One usage uses the term «determiner» as the name of a lexical category, while the term «determinative» is used to refer to words that have a «determining» function. Other authors reverse the definition with determiner referring to function and determinative referring to the lexical category. A third usage uses the term «determiner» to refer to both the lexical category and the function.

As have been mentioned before, because of the use of determinatives both as modifiers of nouns and as pronouns, it is hardly possible to draw any rigid line of demarcation between determinatives and pronouns.

It comes out from that assumption that the most simplest plan would seem to be to consider the personal pronouns alone

as pronouns proper, and to place all others in the general category of determinatives, specifying in each case whether they may be used as modifiers as pronouns or both.

Summing up one may group the determiners into the following rubrics:

- The first class includes the definite and the indefinite, the so-called partitive articles (weak forms of some, any) and a group of words similar in function. They are intermediate in character between the article – like determinatives and the quantitative numerals;
- The second class is the negative determinatives «no», «none». They are also article – like and quantitative numeral like determinatives;
- The third class is the numerical determinatives which form three subgroups:
 - a) the cardinal numbers;
 - b) those other than cardinal numbers which modify nouns without adding «of»;
 - c) those which add «of» when modifying nouns: and the possessive determinatives which may serve as answers to the question «whose».
- The fourth class of determinatives includes the ordinal numbers. They are generally preceded by other determinatives.

Ex.: The last time my second year (H.Palmer, 1955, 32, 42, 50-59, 60-69).

The notion of word classes as «notional» and «grammatical», their linguistic properties and functions is the source of discussion of grammar as part of the education of children and youngsters.

To our mind «determiners» are collection of words from different parts of speech. For pedagogical purposes or priorities in learning and teaching English language grammar processes such diversity of approaches would bring confusions and certain problems in their acquiring as well as using. That's why it's better to retain the constituents of the determiners in their traditional word classes – proper articles, pronouns, adjectives and numerals.

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description. Thus, the school syllabus reflect a traditional approach to determining grammar material for to teaching, pupils and fresher students are given sentences or structures and through these structures they assimilate the English language, acquire grammar mechanisms of speech.

Questions

- What words are included under this notion? Enumerate them.
- Define the determiners and point out their job.
- What words were included into determiners in traditional books?
- How do modern grammarians approach to determiners?
- What is the author's opinion on the status of determiners?

Adjectives in English

- Definition
- Classification principles to the nature of adjectives
- Morphological properties or characteristics of adjective types
- The category of comparison and its problem

Definition: The notion of *adjective* is the third important parts of speech in Modern English after nouns and verbs. When a person speaks of a thing or material he or she often requires mentioning its quality, quantity or state of the thing or its relation to other things. Unlike nouns, adjectives do not possess a full nominative value. They express the categorical semantics of property of substance.

Adjectives are defined to be a part of speech in Morphology according to their following peculiarities:

According to their meaning an adjective is a word that describes a noun. It tells you something about the noun. Ex: big, yellow, thin, beautiful, quick, important. They express quality and property of things, persons. The articles a, an, the and possessive nouns, such as Nick's, Nelly's, are classified as adjectives by some grammarians (Allen, Mason, Gill's Grammar).

Adjectives are in their nature dependent words: they belong to some nouns and pronouns, either expressed or understood.

According to their morphological form adjectives in English do not change for number or case. The only grammatical category they have is the degree of comparison: long-longer-the longest.

The category is constituted by the opposition of three forms known under the heading of degrees of comparison: the basic (*positive* degree), having no features of comparison; the *comparative* degree form; the superlative degree form.

In Modern English adjectives have neither number, gender, no case, although in Anglo-Saxon language, they had the distinguishing adjectives «this» and «that», however, are declined in Number thus:

Singular	Plural
this	these
that	those

In the Anglo-Saxon, the adjective was inflected as well as the noun. Such is also the case with the Latin, French and most other inflected languages.

Semantically three types of comparison can be distinguished.

Degrees of Comparison

Illustrations	{	the Thames is a large river
		the Rhine is a larger river
		the Amazon is the largest river

The positive – unmarked member is the tramping for further study and use. The synthetical forms «-er», and «-est» co-exist with the analytical forms of comparison by the auxiliaries – «more» and «most» and may conclusion on the regular and irregular forms of comparison.

According to their syntactic function in sentences they fulfill two functions: one is an *attribute*, second is a *predicative*. An adjective usually precedes the noun or the pronoun which it modifies. Of the two, the more specific function of the adjective

is that of *attribute*, since the function of a predicative can be performed by the noun as well.

Ex: This is a new book. It is new. She is good.

According to their combinability adjectives combine (stand next to) with nouns, adverbs and link-verbs. Most often they appear before a noun, although they can also appear in their own phrases after certain verbs known as linking verbs:

Ex.: William looks cheerful. They were happy. His opinion is very interesting.

An adjective can be modified by an adverb or by a phrase or clause functioning as an adverb. Ex.: My husband knits intricately patterned mittens.

According to their word-formation morphemes they have their own affix forming suffixes: -ous (dangerous), -ly (carefully), -able (comfortable), -less (homeless), -ish (raddish), pre- (prewar), ir- (irregular), un- (unknown), re- (regressive). As for the variable morphological features, the English adjective, having lost in the course of the history of English all its forms of grammatical agreement with the noun, is distinguished by hybrid category of comparison.

Classification of Adjectives

• *According to their morphological structure* adjectives may be: simple, derived and compound.

a) *Simple adjectives* are ones which have neither prefixes nor suffixes: Ex.: good, big, warm, dry, clever.

b) *Derivative adjectives* are ones which have derivative suffixes or prefixes or both.

Ex.: beauty+ful (beautiful), homeless, unknown, childlike, responsible, wooden, dangerous, troublesome

c) *Compound adjectives* are ones which built from two or more stems. Ex.: sea-burnt, snow-white, sea-born, black and white, four-wheeled

• *According to their meaning* or grammatical characteristics adjectives are mostly subdivided into qualitative, quantitative

and relative. But they may be grouped into four more classes:

- Demonstrative (this, that, these, those)
- Possessive (my, his, her, their, your)
- Numeric (six, three, hundred)
- Interrogative (which, what, whose)

Quality	Number	Quantity	Demonstrative	Interrogative
white horses	twenty horses	some horses	these horses	whose horses

Adjectives of number denote the quantity in bulk of the thing named; as *one; each, either, neither*. These words refer individually to a number of objects.

Demonstrative adjectives point out the thing named by the noun or pronoun, as *this, those, the, a, an, etc.*

Morphological Properties of Qualitative Adjectives

• *Adjectives of quality* denote the quality of the thing indicated by the noun (from the Latin «qualis» of which sort), as: white, good, little, high, beautiful, bold, necessary, important, i.e. size, shape, color, physical and mental quality. The measure of quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient.

They may be also called «Descriptive Adjectives». Participles belong to their group too. Their grammatical or morphological properties are the following:

a) they have degrees of comparison

b) in English the adjectives may be formed from other parts of speech (nouns and verbs) with the help of various adjectives – forming suffixes and prefixes. Typical adjective forming suffixed are:

- y (sun-sunny), watery, scenery
- ish (child-childish, fool-foolish)
- ous (fame-famous, danger-dangerous)
- able (compare – comparable)

The following prefixes change the meaning of the adjectives making them negative: in-correct, in-complete, un-happy, un-equal, un-real, un-certain.

c) from most of them adverbs are formed by the suffix «-ly» gay-gayly, graceful-gracefully.

d) most qualitative adjectives can be used as attributes and predicative.

Morphological Properties of Quantitative Adjectives

• *Quantitative adjectives* (from the Latin «qualis», of which sort) are adjectives which denote «how much» or «how many» or the measure of that for which the noun stands; this class includes:

a) The cardinal numerals – one, two, three, etc. (the words hundred, thousand, million, like «pair» and «dozen» are nouns. They may be used in plural as «hundreds»).

b) The words «all, any, some, half, many, few, much, more, most, less, least, both, several, either, enough, no (= not any)» Some of these relate both to *number* and *quantity*.

Ex.: I have to look through the thirty-nine articles. All people on earth do dwell. I have not slept half a wink. Each day a report came in. Neither side won a point.

Note: Little, less, least. when they denote «size» are qualitative adjectives as a «little boy», not in the least degree.

Note: Many may be used with a noun in the singular, provided by the indefinite article follow it: as «many a flower is born to blush unseen»

Morphological Properties of Relative Adjectives

• *Relative adjectives* as different from qualitative ones, denote the qualities of things through their relation to *material* (wooden, woollen, silken, golden), to *place* (Asian, European, ancient Italian), to *time* (weekly, daily, yearly, monthly), to *some action* (preparatory), the number of them is limited in English

a) Relative adjectives have no degrees of comparison.

b) They have their own adjective-forming affixes: such as -en, -an, -ist, -ic, -ical; wooden, Russian, socialist, synthetic, analytic. Certain lexical words admit endings to form adjectives

-en	-an	-ly	-ist	-ic	-ical
silk+en	Asia+an	year+ly	real+ist	scientif+ic	class+ical
silken	Asian	yearly	realist	scientific	classical

c) They do not form adverbs with the suffix -ly.

d) They are mostly used as attributes.

Ex.: There is a *silken* thread on the cloth.

- Please show us *wooden* shoes.
- To become the champion in boxing is an *historical* event.

Comparison of Adjectives

Though linguists today distinguish the category of adjectives from words such as determiners, that used to be considered adjectives, but that are now recognized to be different.

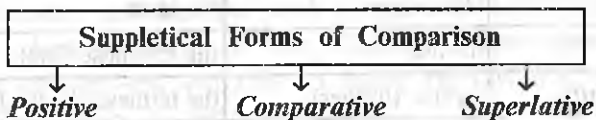
Comparison is a property of adjectives and adverbs; English have two parallel systems of comparison. Not all adjectives in Modern English have the degrees of comparison. From this point of view they may be comparable and incomparable. The *incomparable* adjectives are *relative* ones like «golden, wooden, silk» and so on.

The *comparable* adjectives are *qualitative* adjectives. Most of English adjectives have comparative and superlative forms. These are generally constructed in one of the two ways:

- either by suffixes (or inflexions) -er, -est;
 - by the use of the grammatical particles «more» and «most».
- Comparative and superlative forms apply only to the base form of the adjective.

The general rule is that words with one syllable require the suffix, words with three or more syllables of require «more» and «most» and words with two syllables can go either way.

The quality or quantity indicated by the grammatical category of degrees of comparison is the opposition of three individual meanings:



The basic degree is called *positive*, which is expressed by the absence of a marker. In other way one may say that it is expressed by a zero marker or morpheme. The forms of an adjective used in comparing one object with another is called *comparative* degree. The forms of an adjective which is used to denote the quality or quantity in the greatest degree is called the *superlative* degree.

Some grammarians treat the number of 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 (O. Espersen).

This exclusion would reduce the category to two-members only. But as to me it is not the proficient approach to the question. If the basic form will be excluded, then the status of the category will be chaotic. Rather, it is the presence of the positive form which gives the foregoing opportunity for grammatical analysis as such. It is *unmarked* member, the others are the *marked* members.

The positive – unmarked member is the trampling for further study, use and make conclusion.

The degrees of comparison of one syllable adjectives are formed *synthetically* by the inflexions or *regularly* in their comparison and *analytically*, such as...

- a) -er, -est. Ex.: tall-taller-the tallest;
old-older (elder)-the oldest (eldest);
late-later (latter)-the latest (last)

b) Some adjectives are compared irregularly i.e.; by means of suppletion:

Positive	Comparative	Suppletive
good	better	the best
little	less	the least
Fore	former	the foremost (first)
far (forth)	farther (further)	the farthest (the furthest)
many	more	the most
much	more	the most

bad	}	worse	the worst.
ill			
evil			
old			
	}	older (elder)	the oldest

c) By the *analytical* way of formation: adjectives of two or more syllables are formed by the auxiliary words – «more-most»

Ex.: beautiful-more beautiful-the most beautiful.

These analytical word forms (more – most) are identical in their meaning with suffixes «-er», «-est».

The synthetically forms of comparison in -er and -est coexist with the analytical forms of comparison effected by the auxiliaries «more/most». The analytical forms of comparison perform a double function. On the other hand, the analytical forms of comparison are used to express emphasis.

Ex.: the audience became *more* and *more* noisy and soon speaker's words were drowned.

Which English adjectives are compared by -er/-est and which by *more/most* is a complex matter of English idiom. Generally shorter adjectives (monosyllable), Anglo-Saxon words, and shorter fully domesticated French words (e.g. noble) use the suffixes -er/-est.

Adjectives with two syllables vary. Some take either form, and the situation determines the usage. For example, one will see on the pages of newspapers and magazines, *commoner* and *more commoner*.

Longer adjectives, especially derived from Greek and Latin, and including most adjectives with three or more syllables require more and most. Exceptions include negatives formed with «un-», unfriendly, unfriendlier and compound adjectives such as *well-known*, *better-known*, or *long-lasting*, *longer-lasting*.

The use of -er/-est extends to more polysyllabic adjectives in Am.English than in British English.

English language distinguishes between adjectives, which modify nouns and pronouns, and adverbs, which modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. Not all languages have such distinction, however, and in many languages (including English) there are words that can function as both. For example: English «fast» is an adjective, «a fast car» (where it modifies the noun «car»), but it is an adverb in «he drove fast» (where it modifies the verb «drove»)

One may distinguish the following subtypes of adjectives:

- Possessive adjectives («my, your, his, her, its, our, their») is similar or identical to a possessive pronoun; however it is used as an adjective and modifies a noun or a noun phrase:

- What is your phone number?

Here the possessive adjective «your» is used to modify the noun phrase «phone number».

- Demonstrative adjectives «this», «these», «that», «those» and «what» are identical to the demonstrative pronouns, but are used as adjectives to modify nouns or noun phrases;

- This kitchen needs be furnished.

- An interrogative adjectives («which or what») is like an interrogative pronoun.

- Which plants should be watered twice a week?

- An indefinite adjective is similar to indefinite pronoun, except that it modifies a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase;

- I will send you any mail that arrives after the lunch.

Substantivized Adjectives (the + Adjective)

In English there are «collective» adjectives which are converted into nouns (substantivized adjectives): *the brave, the sick, the poor*. When the definite article «*the*» is combined with an adjective, this case describes a class of group — *the homeless, the gathered*.

They have the syntactical functions of the noun in the sentence. Mainly those of the subject and object.

Ex.: a) Robin Hood helped *the weak*, took from *the rich* and gave *the poor*.

b) We always admire *the beautiful*.

Being turned into nouns these adjectives acquire the morphological characteristics of the noun: they may have plural and possessive case inflexions. Substantivized adjectives like nouns are accompanied with the «article»: an Indian, a relative, the young, the new and the old.

Ex.: *The French* are a Romantic people. She nursed *the sick*.

These adjectives are plural in meaning though they do not take «s» inflexion.

Ex.: *The dumb* use the language of signs.

Among the substantivized adjectives of English the words like *the rich, the unemployed, the initiated*, etc. due to one opinion may belong to the group of «pluralia tantum». Because this group of words expresses sets of people personal multitude.

Ex.: *the rural poor* have been ignored by the media.

But the following sets of words expresses abstract ideas of various types and connotations may include *the invisible, the abstract, the tangible*, etc. may include to the group of «singularia tantum».

Thus adjectives are words that describe or modify another person or thing in the sentence and the adjectives. Unlike adverbs, always appear immediately before the noun or noun phrase. When English adjectives are compared by *-er/-est* and which by *more/most* is a complex matter of English idiom. Generally, shorter adjectives (monosyllable), Anglo-Saxon words and shorter fully domesticated French words (e.g. *noble*) use the suffixes *-er/-est*.

Adjectives with two syllables vary. Some take either form and the situation determines the usage. For example, one will see, on the pages of newspapers, and magazines, the words like *commoner* and *more common*.

Longer adjectives, especially derived from Greek and Latin and including most adjectives with three or more syllables require *more* and *most*. Exceptions include negatives formed with «un-»; such as *unfriendly*, *unfriendlier*, and compound-adjectives such as *well-know*, *better-know*, or *long-lasting*.

The used -er/-est extends to more polysyllabic adjectives in American English, than in British English.

Questions

- Define the adjectives. Do they refer to functional part of speech? If not, why? Give your reasons.
- How are the adjectives classified into? Give examples for each case.
- Due to their grammatical characteristics adjectives are subdivided into three classes. But do you know the other classes of adjectives?
- What is meant by the qualitative adjectives? Illustrate them with examples.
- Define the quantitative adjectives and point out their peculiar features from qualitative.
- Are the relative adjectives synonyms to qualitative adjectives? If not, why?
- Explain the degree of comparison of adjectives. Mention the opinions on the status of the positive degree of adjectives.
- What is meant by the substantivized adjectives? Give examples and compare of such cases in your mother tongue.
- Why are adjectives needed class of words in expressing thoughts?

Pronouns in Modern English

- Definition: traditional and modern
- Classification of pronouns
- Identification of pronouns by their functions

- Cases of pronouns
- Deictic function of pronouns
- The division of pronouns into pro-nouns, pro-adjectives, pro-numerals and pro-adverbs

As have been indicated, words are classified into parts of speech by three main parameters: *meaning, form, function*, then two additional distributive and specific word-building lexicogrammatical morphemes, but for pronouns this principle of grouping *does not work*. The peculiarity of pronouns as a class of words do not coincide with these five said features. What unites them is the way they denote reality: they denote it indirectly. Their nature and number is limited and their meanings are acquired from the context.

Definition: The traditional grammars state the «pronoun» is meant «a word used instead of a noun» (Nesfield, 1924; Curme, 1963). But it is the ancient definition to the term. More than once in the history of linguistics, the very existence of pronouns as a part of speech has been denied. Nowadays in linguistic literature we come across different points of view on the nature of pronouns. Other linguists treat pronouns as determiners, or restrictors (definiting or concretizing), which function as markers of numbers.

Cf.: rich vs. the rich, the writing, a writing vs. his writing.

According to their meaning (or semantics) pronouns constitute a separate functional word class — words that perform various functions in speech: semantic (act as determiners), deictic (act as words), and textable, i.e. with peculiar meanings and references to the world reality.

Pronouns are words which serve to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances not by naming them, but indicating them (Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, 1967, 97). As words of vocabulary pronouns have extremely general meanings, but in fact pronouns using the prefix «pro»-may stand (function) for other parts of speech.

Authors of grammatical books include personal pronouns to noun-pronouns (I, she, he, it, we, you, they); others — to

adjective-pronouns (my, his, her, this, that); third -to numeral – pronouns (all, every,) and to adverb-pronouns. The last group are the adverbs of time, place, manner, direction (such as «then, when, whenever, there, sometimes, everywhere, anywhere, thus, so, how, somewhat»). It is said that pronouns are derived from the adverb roots:

Note:

- 1) that, this = then, there, thus;
- 2) such = so;
- 3) what, which = when, where, why;
- 4) somebody, something = somewhere;
- 5) anybody, anything = anywhere, anyhow;
- 6) nobody = nothing;
- 7) everybody, everything = everywhere;
- 8) all = always.

You use pronouns like «he» «what», «which», «none», and «you» to make your sentences less cumbersome and less repetitive. These references in speech are particular and relative with regard to the speaker and the situation of speech.

According to morphological form they are not united by any morphological categories as the other notional parts of speech are. They lack the grammatical category of gender. They are not changed due to their number.

According to their syntactic function almost all the pronouns are of double nature, i.e. they may fulfill any parts of sentences (subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier and a predicative, but not predicate).

According to their distribution in the syntagmatic plane pronouns may combine with verbs, nouns, adjectives, numerals, articles, prepositions and participles.

Classification of Pronouns

Various grammatical books differ on the number of pronoun groups. If *one grammarian* divides the pronouns into 9 groups (Barkhudarov L.S): 1) personal 2) possessive 3) reflexive 4) demonstrative 5) interrogative 6) conjunctive and relative

7) indefinite 8) negative 9) reciprocal; *second scholar* subdivides the pronouns into 11 subgroups (Kaushanskaya, et al, 1973). Pronouns fall under the following groups: 1) personal pronouns 2) possessive pronouns 3) reflexive pronouns 4) reciprocal pronouns 5) demonstrative pronouns 6) interrogative pronouns 7) relative pronouns 8) conjunctive and relative pronouns 9) defining pronouns; 10) indefinite pronouns 11) negative pronouns; *third authors* propose to subdivide them into 12 subgroups (Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, 1967, 99).

Pronouns and their Identification by their Functions

Personal Pronouns

The personal pronouns are so called because they are used to distinguished the three grammatical persons: the *speaker* (first person), the *person spoken to* (second person), and the *person or thing spoken of* (third person)

• *A personal pronoun* refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender and case.

a) Personal pronouns indicate that the pronoun is acting as the subject of the sentence and such pronouns «I», «you» «he», «she», «it», «we», «you», «they» are called *Subjective Personal Pronouns*. They refer to the person speaking, spoken to, spoken about.

Ex.: *I* study French at school. *We* shall come at 6 o'clock. It is on the shelf.

b) Some personal pronouns — «me», «you», «him», «her», «it», «us», «you» and «them» — indicate that the pronoun is acting as an object of a verb, compound verb, preposition or infinitive phrase. They are called *Objective Personal Pronouns*.

Ex.: He saw her at the bus stop. We have brought *them* by a taxi. Give the list to me.

I am not sure that my cousin will talk to *you*. Mike was surprised to see him at the party.

• *Possessive pronoun* indicates that the pronoun is acting as a marker of possession and defines who owns a particular object or person. These pronouns refer to the parts of the body and

personal belongings. They are «mine», «yours», «hers», «his», «its», «ours», and «theirs». Ex.: The smallest gift is *mine*. Since pronouns form a class chiefly on the basis of their semantic peculiarities, it is but natural that the subdivision of pronouns into groups should be carried out on the same basis. Prof. L.S. Barkhudarov and D. Shteling suggest to combine the pronouns into four groups:

1. Personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns refer to the first group according to their *ability to express person and gender*;

2. Interrogative and conjunctive pronouns refer to the *second group*, as they serve as a *connecting* link introducing subordinate clause (who, which, what, whoever, whatever – subject clause).

Ex.: What was done could not be undone (subject clause);

The plan agreed upon was that each should pay half (predicative clause);

Tell us about what you saw at the circus (object clause);

I'll do just what I say (object clause).

At the same time they perform some syntactical function in the clause they introduce (those of subject, predicate, object, attribute).

Ex.: All that could be done, had been done (attribute clause).

3. *Indefinite, negative and reciprocal* pronouns refer to the third group (everybody, somebody, something, nobody, nothing, all, one, each, some, any, no, none, each other, one another, many, much, few, little). They do not substitute for specific nouns, but function themselves as nouns (Everyone is wondering if any is left).

One of the difficulties we have with them lies in the fact that «everybody» feels as though it refers to more than one person, but it takes a singular verb. «None» can be either singular or plural depending on its context. «Some» can be indefinite pronouns refer to general categories of people or things. Negatives indicate the non-existence of people or things. Reciprocals refer to a mutual action or relationship. They are united by the capability of expressing the same meaning.

4. Demonstrative pronouns refer to the fourth group, which are similar in meaning with articles: this – these, that – those, such, same express number or contrast.

According to one opinion pronouns are «specific words» which may fulfill any grammatical function with the exception of the verb (Aiken, 1933, pp. i, i, i, iv). Due to some grammarians the pronouns are «separate parts of speech». They do so only because of their common meaning (Kaushanskaya, 1973, 53). Pronouns differ from all parts of speech in that «they do not *name* things and objects, they *indicate* to them». While pronouns are not characterized by morphological and syntactical properties, due to others they are hardly to be said a separate word class.

Russian linguists B.Khaimovich and B.Rogovskaya do not consider pronouns as separate parts of speech. They treat them as a collection of words correlated with different parts of speech (1967, 98).

The Cases of Pronouns and their Functions

From the point of view of absence and presence of the case system pronouns are divided into three groups:

- pronouns which have nominative and objective case system;
- pronouns that have common and possessive case systems;
- pronouns that have no case systems at all.

Personal pronouns have 2 case systems – *nominative* (subjective) and *objective*: A *subjective* case form (I\we, etc.), used when it's the subject of a finite verb; an *objective* case form (me\us\you\them, etc.), used when it's the object of the verb or preposition; the system is the opposition between nominative and objective forms of pronouns.

Nominative case – I, he, she, it, we, you, they;

Objective case – me, him, her, it, us, you, them.

Personal pronouns may express the meaning of case, person, number, gender (masculine – feminine), animateness (he, she) and inanimateness (it).

Second case system is the opposition between common and possessive cases in reciprocal pronouns: they are group pronouns

= each other – each other's, one another – one another's. Reciprocal pronouns in this case share the case system of nouns. They are used in a sentence in the function of an object.

Ex.: They often thought of *each other*. Mike and Peter are bosom friends. They always help each other at all.

Possessive pronouns may be of three types:

a) conjoint (my, its, our, your, their);

b) absolute (mine, its, ours, yours, theirs); these forms are used when it's the possessor of another noun – one that's used as a *determiner*, and one that's used as a pronoun or a predicative – adjective.

c) combination of conjoint form with the word form «own», which is called emphatic possessive.

Ex.: My *own* book. The book is my *own*.

Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are used when a person or thing acts on itself and called compound personal pronouns. In Old English the personal pronouns were strengthened by having the adjectives «silf» (i.e. self) – same, compare selfsame.

This combination of pronoun and adjective is still seen in «*himself, herself, oneself, themselves*». They replace the objective-case form in referring to the same entity as the subject. They are noun – pronouns. They have the special forms and the categories of person, number and gender.

1st person

2nd person

3rd person

Singular:

myself

yourself

himself, herself, itself

(masculine) (feminine) (neuter)

Plural:

ourselves

yourselves

themselves

They are used in two ways:

• Reflexive pronoun is as the object of a verb.

Ex.: He killed himself. They told us about themselves.

Who gives himself with his arms feeds three, —
Himself, his hungry neighbour, and me.

• To mark emphatic property.

Ex.: I *myself* heard it. She *herself* will translate the article.
We *ourselves* don't know the answer.

Myself, I don't believe a word he says.»

Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns distinguish the particular objects or people that are referred to from other possible candidates.

English grammar has demonstrative pronouns which have no case system, but they have a grammatical category of number: this — that, these — those. These words (this, that, these, those) are *adjectives* when used with a noun, but *pronouns* when used for a noun.

Ex.: Virtue and vice offer themselves to your choice: *this* leads to misery, *that* to happiness. This must not continue. *This* is the puny; *that* is the tree I want.

Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns ask which person or thing is meant. They behave themselves in two ways: as «interrogative» and «connective». The interrogative pronouns (who, what, which, whose, where, whom, why, how) are used to form definite type of sentence — special questions. They are used in the function of noun-pronouns (who, what, which), adjective-pronouns (whose, which) and adverb-pronouns (where, how, why). In the sentence they may be used as the subject, object, attribute, and adverbial modifier of place and so on.

Ex.: Who is your teacher? Which do you prefer, the red or the blue? Whose horse did you drive? Which is the wind that brings the rain? What have you in your pocket? Who were there? Whom do you think we should write?

In case when they (who, what, which, whose, where, whom, why, how) serve to connect subordinate clauses in complex sentences are called as *connective pronouns*.

It should be kept in mind that one and the same pronoun can belong to more than one group at the same time.

The pronoun «which» treated as *interrogative*

Ex.: Which book is this?

As the *connective pronoun*.

Ex.: The dog which is lying under the tree is Kate's.)

The *interrogative pronouns* also act as determiners.

Ex.: He does not know which ear he hit.

In this «determiner role, they are sometimes called» interrogative adjectives.

Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns

A *relative* pronoun is so-called because it relates to some person or noun already used or mentioned. It is also called a «conjunctive», because it is used to link one phrase or clause to another phrase or clause. The word to which the relative pronoun refers is called its antecedent. The relative pronouns are:

a) who and what; b) which; c) that; d) as.

The compounds «whoever, whomever, whatever» are relative pronouns too.

Conjunctive pronouns serve to introduce subject and predicative clauses. Relative pronouns are used to introduce subordinate attributive clauses.

«That» is the oldest of relative pronouns. «That» is always a substantive; it may relate either to persons or things. It is uninflected and never has a preposition placed before it.

Ex.: Thomas *that* died yesterday.

My cousin *that* is in America greets me with my birthday.

You *who* have done this damage must repair.

I never saw the man *whom* you speak of it.

His character is not *such* as I admire.

You may invite *whomever* you like to the wedding.

Whoever broke the window will have to replace it.

We will read *whichever* manuscript arrives first.

Whoever fights, *whoever* falls,

Justice conquers *evermore*.

Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns point out some person or thing indefinitely. They can be *pro-nouns* (some, any and their compound: somebody, somebody's, anybody, anybodies, someone, someone's, something), *pro-adjectives* (some, any), *pro-numerals* (some, any), *pro-adverbs* (somewhere, somehow, anywhere, anyhow).

Ex.: *Some* are wise and *some* are otherwise (pro-nouns).

It is *somebody* else's turn to go.

Some went one way, *some* another.

Do you need *anything* more?

If *anyone* comes, tell him to wait.

Some said yes, others no.

Some say the world will end in fire,

Some says in ice, other say in water

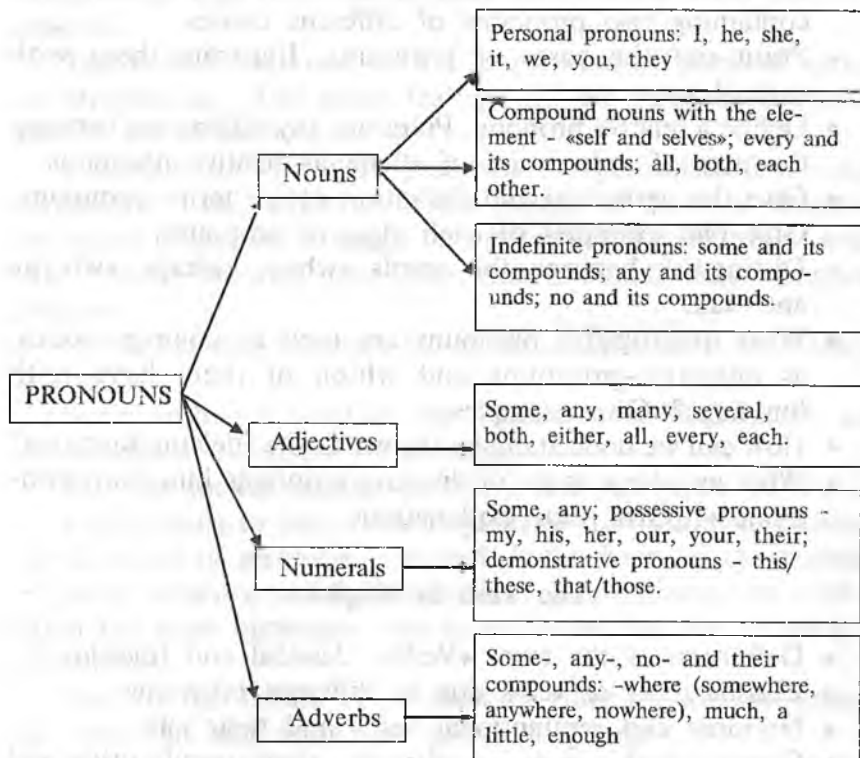
Above interpretations or analysis of pronouns, that said, the different pronouns and the different forms of pronouns, often have overlapping functions.

Pronouns serve the same function in a sentence that nouns do most notably they are the heads of noun phrases. They largely observe the same syntactic rules as nouns, for example, subject-verb agreement. For these reasons specialists consider pronouns to be a special type of noun rather than an independent word classes. Some others call the pronouns as the closed class of words.

The traditional definition is not broad enough to cover all uses of pronouns. This word class, then, are really reference words, pointing out persons and things, rather than standing for nouns (Allen, 1920, 53), that is to say, deictic function.

Using the suffix - «pro-» in its meaning «instead of», grammarians classify them with regard to the parts of speech into *pro-nouns*, *pro-adjectives*, *pro-numerals* and *pro-adverbs* (Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, 1967, 98). Thus pronouns are called words encompassing a number of properties of other word classes.

The above mentioned properties of this word class maybe formulated in the following way:



J.R. Aiken was right when he noted that «pronouns are simply a set list of specific words, more or less arbitrarily chosen, which may fulfill any of six grammatical functions with the exception of the verb» (1933, pp-iii, IV). They are mainly called «indicating words». They are substitute names: it means that they can be substituted for nouns, adjectives, numerals and adverbs.

Questions

- What can be said about the status of pronouns as a part of speech in literature?
- Define the personal pronouns and their peculiarities.
- Mention the functions of possessive, demonstrative, interrogative and connective pronouns in sentences.

- Name the different classes of pronouns, giving one example for each class. Construct three short sentences, each containing two pronouns of different classes.
- Point out the cases of pronouns. Illustrate them with examples.
- Define a relative pronoun. Point out any differences between the uses of «who» and of «that» as relative pronouns.
- Give the derivation and definition of the term «pronoun». Give two examples of each class of pronouns.
- Distinguish between the words «who», «what», «which» and that.
- What interrogative pronouns are used as noun-pronouns, as adjective-pronouns and which of them have both functions? Give examples.
- How can we understand by the words the «deictic function»?
- What are the reasons of dividing pronouns into four «pro-groups»? Give your explanations.

The Verb in English

- Definition of the term «Verb»: classical and traditional
- Classification of verbs due to different principles
- Notional and seminotional verbs and their jobs
- Grammatical categories of verbs: their peculiarities and problems:

The category of tense

The category of person

The category of aspect

The category of posteriority

The category of voice

The category of mood

The category of order

Definition: The term comes from Latin, «Verbium» meaning «a word». The verbs form the second largest word class after nouns. Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. *Firstly*, it performs the central role in realizing predication, i.e. the connection between situation in the sentence or utterance and reality. And this job of the verb is of primary informative significance in syntactic environments; *secondly*, the verb with

its inflexions possesses quite a lot of grammatical categories; *thirdly*, within the class of verb, various subclass divisions based on different principles of classification can be found for discourse analysis.

The verb is also one of the main notional parts of speech in Morphology. The main features of the verbs as a part of speech are as follows:

- *Semantically* the verb possesses the grammatical meaning *verbiality* — the ability to denote action or state or describes an action (doing something), or a state (being something): walk, talk, think, believe, live, like, want, stand, exist, happen, become.

Ex.: Lions roar (action). He looked calm (state). I felt sleepy (state).

Some verbs are used in the expression of both action and state, with a difference of meaning:

Ex.: He looked calmly (state). I feel her pulse (action).

- According to their *syntactic function* they fulfill in sentences the function of *predicate*. The verb is the heart of the sentence — every sentence must have a verb. Recognizing the verb is often the most important step in understanding the meaning of a sentence.

Due to the nature of predication (primary and secondary) all verbs fall into finite and *non-finite* groups.

Ex.: I *study* English at collage (finite). I like *reading* foreign language books (non-finite).

- According to the *combinability* or distribution verbs can combine with nouns, pronouns, articles and adverbs. They can appear after seminotional auxiliaries. Ex.: *We saw the* children near the lake. They spoke slowly. They *will* come after dinner.

- Verbs are also often accompanied by *verb-like* words called *modals* (can, may, must, shall/will, ought, need, etc.) and auxiliaries (do, have, will, etc.) to give them different meanings. These verbal auxiliaries preceding the notional verb constitute special kinds of *modifiers*. They modify the main verb

grammatically, i.e. help the functions of the verb according to the attitudes and feelings of speakers (Whitehall, 1956, 80).

• According to *word-formation* morphemes English verbs are inflected to express the new verbs:

a) by suffixes: -ize (realize), -en (blacken), -ify (signify)

b) by prefixes. They are of greater importance than suffixes. They are more productive: re-, un-, over-, under-, mis-, de, il-, out-;

c) by sound interchanges: such verbs are unproductive (blood-bleed, food-feed); so is the stress in words: to ex'port – 'export, to im'port – 'import, 'transport – to trans'port;

d) by the lexico-grammatical morphemes: up, in, on, off, down, out, etc. as in words: to get in, to get on, to get along; to see in, to see off, to putt off, to put on, to sit down;

• According to its *morphological form* verbs have grammatical categories which can be expressed by means of morphemes or affixes, inner inflexions or by form words. Being partially analytic English regular verbs are not very much inflected. Just as there are some exceptions as to how nouns form plural, there are also some exceptions to how verbs form the past tense. They express the category of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person and so on.

• The common categories for finite and non-finite forms are voice, aspect, phase and finitude. The grammatical categories of the English verb find their expression in synthetical and analytical forms.

Classification of Verbs

Verb is a very complex part of speech, and first of all because of its various subclass division.

• According to the *morphological structure* (stem structure) verbs are divided into:

a) simple: to read, to live, to hide, to speak;

b) derived (having affixes): to organize, to rewrite, to undo, to captivate, to overcome;

c) compound verbs (consisting of two items): to broadcast, to whitewash, to import;

d) composite verbs (consisting of a verb with lexico-grammatical word morpheme): to give up, to give in, to take off, to put on, to go away, to sit down;

- According to their syntactical (semantic) function verbs are divided into *notional* (with the full lexical meaning), *seminotional* and impersonal verbs.

Semantic Classification of Verbs

Notional

(Full meaning of their own)
to see, to write, to go,
to do, to open, to close

Seminotional

(Form Verbs)
Modals – can,
may, must, shall/
will, ought, dare

Impersonal

(Verbs used only with
«it») to rain, to snow,
to blow, to lighten, to
darken

Notional verbs form an open class which includes most verbs (state, action, processes and events). These verbs are those which have a full meaning of their own and can be used without any additional words as a simple predicate. They tell something about some person or thing, action, state and request or command.

Ex.: Come! Read! I see him in the bus.

Seminotional verbs are those which have lost their meaning and are used only as form words, thus having only a grammatical function. They are used in analytical form.

There are 3 types of them:

1) modal verbs (can, may, must, ought, shall, should, will, would)

2) auxiliary verbs (do, does, have, shall, will)

3) link verbs (to be, to become, to seem, to appear, to look, to remain) which have lost their lexical meaning to some extent and are used in compound nominal predicate.

Ex.: She is old. She becomes old. She seems old. His mother looked worried.

▣ *Impersonal verbs*. These are verbs which are used in the 3rd person singular with the subject «it». Ex.: It rains. It snows. It lightens.

• According to the formation of Past Indefinite and Past Participle verbs are divided into three groups: regular-irregular-mixed (to show-showed-shown)

• According to the capability of taking objects verbs may be transitive (which takes an object) and *intransitive* (that does not take an object)

Ex.: He found his book. The horse ran off.

• According to their formal properties there may be 4-5 basic forms of verbs: the Infinitive, Present, Past, Participle I, Participle II (to write, writes, wrote, written, writing), (to ask, asks, asked, asking). The number of these forms depends whether the verbs is transitive or intransitive.

The Grammatical Categories of Verbs

The main distinctive property of verbs is their «inflection». And namely verb speaks or tells what is, was, will be done or happen in the sentence. Thus the verb presents a system of finite and non-finite forms. The verb units – finite forms, possess the morphological categories.

There are some opinions on the number of grammatical categories of verbs: Prof. B.A. Ilyish supposes six grammatical categories in English verbs: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number. Prof. L.S. Barkhudarov and D.A. Shtelling suggest four grammatical categories: voice, aspect, order and mood. B. Kaimovich and B. Ragoyskaya propose eight grammatical categories: person, number, tense, voice, aspect, mood, posteriority and order.

Grammatical category is general meanings that consist of at least 2 particular meanings which are opposed to each other and which have constant grammatical means of their own. In other words by «grammatical category» we understand the combination of meaning and form.

Grammatical meaning is an abstract one which characterizes a whole group of words. It is different from lexical meaning because lexical meaning is typical to each concrete word, while grammatical meaning is typical to a class of words.

Ex.: a boy, a table, a tree

These words have three lexical meanings which characterize each word separated and one grammatical meaning that is «noun».

Grammatical form may be expressed by 3 ways:

- Synthetical
- Analytical
- Synthetical-analytical

The first – synthetical, consists of three types:

a) by *inflections* (read- reads, go-goes). This is the regular forms of past indefinite and past participle forms of verbs:

to walk – *walked*. to want – *wanted*. to look – *looked*.

b) by *root changes* or irregular forms (write-wrote-written; speak-spoke-spoken; lie-lay-laid). Verbs have features that add in their recognition: a) they follow the subject; b) they agree with the subject in number and person.

Irregular Verbs

There are approximately 250 and 300 irregular verbs in Modern English. They consist of two types, based on historical development.

strong verbs

weak verbs

One type (vowel change): (swim-swam-swum, sing-sang-sung, steal-stole-stolen) refer to Jacob Grimm's strong verbs.

Second type dates back to Middle English. Some verbs ending in an alveolar consonants ([t], [d] or [ɪd]), formed past and past participle forms of verbs: meet-met, lead-led, lose-lost, keep-kept;

Irregular verbs include «eat», «sit», «lend», «keep» and so forth.

Suppletive Form

c) by *suppletive* way: to be – am, is, was, were, been, being; to go – went – gone

There is a point of view that «suppletion» is due to the historical development of the copula – (be), which is a merging of the inflexional paradigms of their different verbs: «am-is-are» from one verb; «be-been-being» from second verb; «was-were» are from a thirds Old English verb.

Questions

- Give the definition of the verb. What does the verb semantically denote? Give examples for each case.
- Illustrate syntactically the nature of verbs.
- Due to what feature do the verbs fall into finite and non-finite? Give your reasons.
- Point out the verb forming morphemes. Give examples for each affix.
- Characterize the nature of verbs due to this morphological form.
- Classify verbs due to their semantic function in sentences. Give the definitions of each class verbs.
- Point out the functions of notional and semi-notional verbs. Illustrate them with examples.

A. Auxiliary Verb (or Verbal Auxiliary)

- *The second* is analytical, which is formed:

a) by *auxiliary* verbs. The term «auxiliary» is derived from the Greek word «auxilium» meaning «help». Although auxiliary verbs are lexical verbs as well, their main function is to add information to other lexical verbs. Auxiliary verbs are joined to the notional verbs to make some particular tense, voice, aspect, order and posteriority.

Auxiliaries are so called because they function to give further *semantic* or *syntactic information* about the notional verb. In English an auxiliary verb helps the notional verb to help one or more of the following functions: *passive*, *progressive*, *perfect* or *order* and *dumming* (do).

In English, every sentence (or clause) has a finite verb, which consists of a notional verb and optionally one or more auxiliary verbs, each of which is a separate word. For example: to see (notional), have seen (one auxiliary verb) and have been seen (two auxiliary verbs).

The auxiliary verb has lost its full lexical meaning and its role is purely structural. It may be finite or non-finite.

The analytical forms of verbs are the forms of Continuous aspect, Perfect aspect, Passive forms, Future forms, Future-in the Past, some forms of the Subjunctive mood, interrogative, negative and emphatic forms of the Present and Past indefinite (do, does, did). H. Whitehall mentions when a verb word-group is used, it indicates a particular manner. In which a happening is, was, will be or maybe realized (1956, 80).

The notional verb of a compound is always non-finite, it carries the lexical meaning of the whole verb.

Ex.: He will be a student.

She will be reading at this moment.

The knowledge of the morphological units, their behavior as the grammatical means is important for the distinction of the analytical and synthetic types of languages. When the morphemes with their bound forms are highly significant in *synthetic forms* of verbs, in *analytic forms* the role of inflection is done by the word order and preposition; auxiliary and modal verbs in sentences are used independently to form sensible ideas.

The *auxiliary verbs* in English are not numerous, they are seven or eight: *to be, to do, to have, shall, will, should, would*. They help to form the category of tense, category of aspect, category of order, category of voice, category of mood, category of person, and posteriority.

Tense auxiliary: to be (am/is/are, was/were), to do, shall, will.

Aspect auxiliary: to be + Present Participle.

Order auxiliary: to have + Past Participle.

Voice auxiliary: to be + Past participle.

Mood auxiliary: should + Infinitive.

Person auxiliary: to do (does/did).

Posteriority auxiliary: should/ would.

They have only grammatical function used in analytical forms of the auxiliaries. Out of the seven auxiliaries only «be», «have» and «do» are inflected for tense, number and person.

The learner of English must be attentive that there is a syntactic difference between an auxiliary verb and a notional verb. That is each has a different grammatical function within a sentence. There are some verbs that can act (or behave) either as auxiliary or a notional verbs, such as «be» («I am walking in the garden» vs. «I am a player») and «have» («I have brought the bicycle» vs. «I have a bicycle»).

Verb phrases are formed entirely by verbs. They come in three grammatical types: lexical, auxiliary and modal.

Questions

- Why are the auxiliary verbs joined to notional verbs?
- Give the inventory of the auxiliary verbs and define their jobs.
- What are the irregular verbs and their types?
- Do the grammatical categories have their own auxiliary-models? What are they?
- What auxiliary verbs are called as tense auxiliaries?

B. Modal Verbs (or Defectives)

The remaining auxiliaries are the modal auxiliaries (or modals). The main modals are:

Present:	can	may	shall	will	must
Past:	could	might	should	would	

Modal verbs are not inflected for person, number or tense. They express the speaker's attitude toward the action or state given by the verb, i.e. the degree of necessity, obligation or permission. In some cases «shall/will» preserve obligation (shall) an element of volition. In other cases they are used as an auxiliary verbs.

Like other verbs most of the modals have a tense distinction between present and past (the exception being «must»), but the past forms are often used for present or future time.

The modals express two main types of meanings:

- Human control over events, such as involved in permission, intention, ability, or obligation.

Ex.: You may leave now (I give you permission...).

She could speak Spanish when I was young (I knew how to...).

You must go to bed at once (I require you to...).

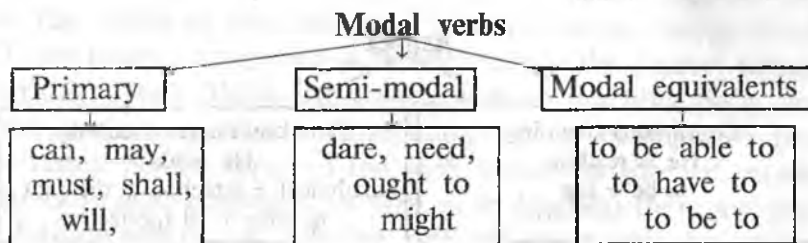
- Judgment whether an event was, is, or will be likely to happen.

Ex.: That knock could be your mother (it is possible that it is...).

It must be the time to set up (it is certainly the time to wake up...).

Modal auxiliary verbs give more information about the function of the notional verb that follows it. They have a great variety of communicative functions. These functions range from possibility (can), certainly (need) to necessity (must).

Modal verbs also form a closed class which consists of the primary, semi-modal and modal equivalents.



The learner must know *when* and *how to use* the substitutes for modal verbs or semi-modals (dare, need, ought to). They are the phrases «be able to», have got to, be to, be supposed to, be going to, and used to». It's important to note that modal verbs do not behave like most other verbs. In particular they lack most of verbs features. This fact has led some linguists to treat modals as a separate word category. (Maksumov, 2009, 770).

Modal verbs are sometimes called «*defective*» verbs, because they do not have all the functions of finite verbs or other auxiliary

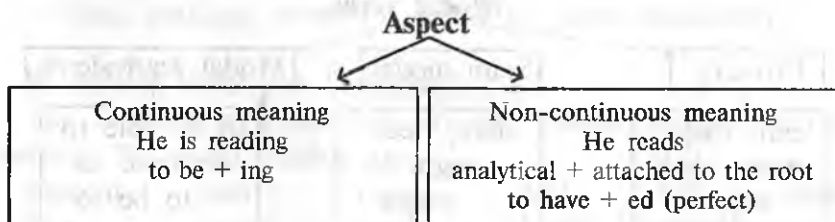
verbs. They can't be used without notional verbs, can't form non-finite forms and do not have any endings to show person, number or tense. Modal verbs form questions without the help of other auxiliary verbs.

These forms of the verbs also have quite a few peculiarities in forming tenses. Mostly they are used in present tense only. They have four forms for past tense (should, would, could, might). The other «shall-should, will-would» for future forms of action.

The use of modal verbs is in most cases independent of the structure of the sentence: the use of this or that modal verb is determined by the attitude of the speaker towards the facts contained in the sentences. In this case one may speak of the free use of modal verbs.

The *second feature*, one may attract the learner's attention that modal verbs are generally used in conversation. In past time contexts they maybe found only in reported speech thought.

• *The third* – synthetical-analytical or mixed form. It is either analytical or synthetical. This type is expressed by discontinuous morphemes. This type is found in the categories of aspect, voice and order of verbs.



Thus the verb is the most needed word in a sentence. It is hardly possible to give an idea expressed without the use of it.

The Grammatical Category of Tense

The categories of tense, person and mood are characteristic of only finite forms of verbs.

Tense is one of the seven qualities, along mood, voice, aspect and person, which verb forms may express. One of the most

important things about verbs is their relationship to time. Verbs tell of something has already happened, if it will happen later or if it is happening now.

The category of «tense» is a verbal category, that is expressed in the varieties of forms in the verbs. The category denotes the relation of the action either to the moment of speaking or to some definite moment in the past or future.

By the «grammatical category» we understand the combination of meaning and form. Thus, the category of tense is a system of three member oppositions, such as «writes-wrote-will write», «is writing-was writing-will be writing». The tense of the verb tells you when a person did something, when something has happened or will happen.

Grammarians differ on the number of categorial forms they observe in English. These numbers vary from two to twelve. This controversy of opinions is related to two main questions:

- The relation between tense, aspect and time correlation (perfect – non-perfect). These three categories of the verb are constituted by two forms of the verb: analytical and *non-analytical*.

- The status of shall/will and infinitive in the future tense.

Tense times a happening with reference to the time of talking or writing about. Verbs express incomplete (or still going on) action; complete (perfect), neither complete nor incomplete action (indefinite). So the tense of the verb shows the time of action.

In Germanic languages (as well as in English) there are only two formed strictly by *inflection*, and all other time formations are *aspects* rather than tenses.

In linguistic literature opinions differ on the number of tenses in English language. There's an ongoing dispute among modern English grammarians regarding whether tense can only refer to inflected forms.

One of the opinions considers that there are *two tenses*: past – non-past (present tense). According to A. Nickols *non-past* is rarely more precise because the present tense is also used for future tense. H. Whitehall maintains also that present tense forms

are used in sentences with future meanings rather than present meanings (1959, 80).

P.Roberts reminds that the student of the grammar must keep firmly in mind is that tense is not the same thing as time (1951, 63).

One might think that the *present* is so-called because it indicates that something happens at the present time. It does, sometimes, but it usually has more complicated meanings.

Past tense refers to something that happens in the past and doesn't wonder through time the way the present tense does. The relative semantic simplicity of past in contrast with the complexity of present has led some grammarians to use the terms «past» and «non-past» instead of more traditional «past» and «present».

Thus, a number of grammarians of both the classical and modern claim that English does not have a *future tense*. O. Espersen denies the existence of future tense (1935, 50-51). Due to Espersen «shall/will» are linked with the meaning of obligation and volition and they are not free from modal shades of meaning. The main argument given by Huddleston and Pullum (2002) is that «will» and «shall» are modal verbs, both in its grammar and in its meaning.

The present tense is the unmarked member of opposition: it is the least specific in meaning and therefore can be used to express a wide range of temporal meaning. This tense is also unmarked morphologically except for the «-s» inflection. The past tense is marked both semantically and morphologically (the process that is visualized as remote, or unreality time). R.Quirk and I others prefer to follow those grammarians who have treated «tense» only as a category realized by verb inflections and in their grammar they do not talk about «future» as a formal category (Quirk et al, 1986).

As to the *future tense* in English it is indicated with a modal auxiliary, not verbal inflection. Although it is undeniable that «will and shall» occur in many sentences that refer to the future. They also occur in sentences that do not. That is why future

tenses are often treated as partly modal (Huddleston et al, 2002, 210).

There are certain *objections* to the traditional future tense usage:

- future tense refers to the process as a non-fact situation, while the past and present tense refer to factive situation or process;
- «will and shall» do not possess the feature reference rather they have modal meaning;
- expression of future meaning by the present tense in certain context (i.e. planning for doing something, arrival or departure by means of transport according to schedule or condition (if), and by means of constructions «to be about to do (doing) something»).

The *second opinion* is that there are three tenses: past-present-future. Proponents of this view maintain the English verbs have three tenses. Traditional grammar usually presents English having a future tense expressed by «will and shall» without the particle «to».

Ex.: I shall go to the classes tomorrow.

After classes you'll have to stay for an hour.

Semantic Classification of Verbs

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
(to be formed by omitting the particle «to» and permits «-s» in the 3 rd person singular)	(to be formed by adding - «-ed, -d» to the root of the verb or changing the root of the word by vowels and consonants)	(to be formed by the auxiliary verbs shall/will, should/would) before the notional verbs)

H. Sweet (1892, 97, 98) and B.Ilyish (1971,187) assert that shall/will had their modal shades in Old English, but nowadays they have lost this feature and has become auxiliary verbs. B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya (1967, 157-164) argue that

the original (former) meaning of «shall and will» has been obliterated and are used as the markers of future (or futurity).

Future Tense?

There are signs that «will and shall» are the turning into a kind of infection (similar to genitive «-s»). Ex.: I'll bring it tomorrow.

The contracted form (clitic forms «'ll-»), which is a feature of the spoken English, neutralizes the distinction between «shall and will» and at the same time turns into marker of futurity.

I follow those scholars who think that the so-called feature form of verbs by means of «shall and will» are demodalized or lost their modality feature and are markers of auxiliary verbs.

Ex.: We'll write a composition on grammar next week.

You'll know the exact time of the wedding party in due time.

By way of conclusion English has no future tense ending. Rather, future time is expressed by a variety of other means. There are in fact the following ways of referring to future time:

- *Shall/will or I'll* followed by the infinitive without «to»

Ex.: «I'll see you tomorrow» or the Continuous form — «we'll be seeing you». This is by far the commonest use.

- *Be going to* followed by the infinitive:

Ex.: I am going to ask him.

- The *present continuous*.

Ex.: the football match is starting at 6 p.m.

- The *simple present tense*, often implying definiteness.

Ex.: I leave soon.

- The use of «be to», «be about to», «have to», and a few others, all expressing a future action.

Ex.: She's to sit here. They are about leave.

- The *modal verbs*, which also convey a future implication.

Ex.: I may/might/could/ should travel by bus.

Though English has no grammatical future tense form still it has a number of constructions which allow the future tense interpretation, the former «shall/will» be used as the markers of future notion.

In the following constructions one may observe the use of future tense:

- Give her my best regards.
- Ask her to come tomorrow morning.
- I'm meeting her tomorrow.
- I think I'll see her tomorrow.

Number of Tenses

One may come across with various number of tenses in grammatical manuals. V.L. Kaushanskya and others suggest *four* groups of tenses: indefinite, continuous, perfect and perfect continuous (1973, 81).

G.O.Curme states that there are six tenses: present, past and future indefinite; present, past and future perfect (1931, 231-32).

The next opinion advocates the notion that English has twelve tenses. But a number of analysts would not accept that approach. It's better to conclude that there are three groups of grammatical tenses and the rest are just the shades of this present, past and future tenses.

Different names were given by grammarians in the history of English grammar, such as Definite and Indefinite tenses; Continuous and Progressive tenses; Simple and Compound tenses; Primary and Secondary tenses (Sweet, 1892, p.1 97-103 and Mason. 1913. 71-72). Expanded tenses (Espersen, 1935, 277-278).

Thus, to know the category of tense of English verbs means to be aware of the notion and status of verbs in morphology, their semantical, morphological, syntactical, distributive and word-formation peculiarities in the formation of different statements, information, directives, then their structure in the composition of sentences. These are the keen objectives to be proficient in composing communicative types of sentences for the pedagogical purposes.

Questions

- There is a grammatical category of tense in verbs. Point out the opinions on the number of tenses in morphology.
- What do you think on the notion of future tense? Observe the points of view on this question.
- Speak about the transitive and intransitive, personal and impersonal verbs. Illustrate their usage.

The Grammatical Category of Aspect

Traditional grammar generally uses the term «tense» for both – in fact, looking through or listing the prescriptive or normative grammar materials. We have never observed the verb aspect in their grammar. The category of *aspect* and tense are linked more closely.

The distinction between grammatical tense and aspect is fuzzy and at times controversial. The English continuous temporal constructions express an aspect as well as the tense, and some therefore consider that aspect to be separate from tense in English. Due to R.Quirk «Tense» is the location of a situation, aspect – the inside of a situation (1986).

The category of aspect concerns with the *internal character* of the process denoted by the verb. It is distinguished from the action as completed.

Ex.: The past tense forms «I wrote» and «I was writing» differ in aspect: the first sentence is *completive* aspect and the second is *durative* aspect. This is *the main distinction* of tense and aspect.

The category of aspect is a linguistic objective category of *manner* of action. Due to A.Nickols it indicates something about the beginning, or continuance, or the completion of the action of the verb. It is realized through the opposition continuous (progressive) vs. non-continuous. (non-progressive). The continuous aspect is grammatical aspect that expresses incomplete action in progress at a specific time: they are not habitual past action.

English can be said to have three aspects:

1. Simple (common); 2. Progressive; 3. Perfect.

Aspect does not relate an event situation to appoint in time, like a tense, but it is rather concerned with the internal temporal constituency of one situation (B. Curme, 1976, 5).

Aspect is itself defines the type, the character of the action (Comrie, 1931, 231-232). An action may be considered a single unit, performed at a point of time, or it may be considered a continuous performance. All these characteristics of the action may be considered aspects.

Non-continuous is expressed by zero morpheme, while the continuous aspect by continuous morpheme «to be = ing.» And one ought to remember that some verbs do not occur with progressive aspect in speech, such «non-continuous» verbs are: think, understand, know, hate, love, see, taste, feel, possess, own, etc. Because these verbs are «stative» – they refer to a state of affairs rather than to an action, event or process.

Generally the continuous form has at least two semantic features – *duration* (the action is always in progress) and *definiteness* (the action is always limited of a definite point or period of time).

It is said the *primary difference* between the two sets of forms (work – is working, wrote – was writing, will write – will be writing, has written – has been writing), then appears to be this: an action going on continuously during a given period of time, and an action not limited or described by the very form of the verb as preceding in such a manner. It is a difference in the way the action is shown to proceed, which is termed «*the category of aspect*».

Due to U. Yusupov «grammatical category is the unity of the category of feature (or marker) and category of form, there's no grammatical category without categorial markers», (2007, 72).

Prof. I.P. Ivanova admits the existence of the aspect category, but she denies the existence of the common aspect (1961, 57-77). Prof. A.I. Smirnitkiy defined in the grammatical system two aspects: «-es» (third person singular) – general aspect referring

to present indefinite with zero morpheme and past indefinite expressing by the morpheme «-ed» or by sound changes like, sit-sat, speak-spoke, and the future indefinite by means of shall/will and the «constituent aspect», which is formed by means of to be + ing has/have been said, the grammatical representation of duration, completion and repetition of events and states is known as aspect.

The *second difference* is the markedness or the non-markedness of the member of an opposition. The continuous aspect is marked both in meaning and in form (to be + P.I), whereas the common aspect is non-marked both in meaning and form.

Thus aspect can mark the stage of an action. Grammatical aspect is more often determined by inflectional morphology. From this point of view English marks the *continuous aspect* through the verb «to be + P.I» and the *perfect aspect* through the verb «to have + P.II». Generally the continuous form has at least two semantic features – *duration* (the action is always in progress) and the *definiteness* (the action is always limited at a definite point or period of time) (Ilyish B.A.) and the perfect form denotes *completion* (the action is done) and the relation of the action to a preceding time (Comrie, 1976, 5).

Therefore the perfect expresses a relationship between a present state and the past situation (Huddleston, 1984, 64).

A short survey of special literature makes us conclude that modern English has two distinct forms for aspect: *perfect* and *continuous* (or progressive aspects, which are marked on the verb).

B. Comrie observes that the perfect aspect in English is different to other aspects in that, it does not tell us so much about the internal temporal situation of an event of state, but relates it to preceding time. Thus, aspect describes the way we look on action or state, in terms of the passing of time. The perfect aspect describes something when we are looking back on it. The progressive aspect describes something happening when we are in the middle of it. Grammatical aspect is distinguished through inflexion and derivational affixes.

In grammatical literature we may observe two points of view on this question. One group of grammarians (G.N. Vorontsova, I.P. Ivanova, B.A. Ilyish) admits the existence of the category of aspect. The second approach (H. Whitehall, O. Esperson and H. Sweet) denies its existence.

They remind the learner of English grammar that aspect resembles mood in that it expresses the speakers or writers attitude toward a happening. In aspect one is primarily concerned with its completion or lack of completion...with the progression of the happening...in aspect, the observer moves around the happening (Whitehall, 1951, 82).

The grammatical representation of *duration*, *completion* and *repetition* of events and *states* is known as aspect. As with the other grammatical morphology, aspect morphology is often obligatory. In English, for example, speakers have to commit themselves to the choice between ongoing, repeated or completed for an event with present reference time.

Aspect is rarely easy to master in any foreign language, mainly because it expresses concepts or relations that are often difficult for the foreigner to understand, but the philologists and the would be teachers of English must acquire the concept. It is their professional job.

Thus English uses two types of aspectual contrast, which it expresses with auxiliary verbs: the perfective and the progressive. Such contrasts were called in traditional grammar (e.g. the «perfect tense»). The semantic analyses of aspect has proved to be one of the most complex areas of English linguistics.

The Grammatical Category of Order

English verb is the part of speech that has morphological system, which is rich in morphological categories. It is *the only part of speech* that uses more or less analytical forms. The status of *the perfect forms* in the system of the English verb is also a *problem*, which has been treated in many different ways.

The perfect group, consisting of the *present*, *past* and *future* perfect, combine them with the time prior to each of these periods.

There are three divisions of time – the present, the past, and the future. There are also three ways in which an action or event may be viewed.

- It may be spoken of as *incomplete*, or still going on. A verb form which indicates this is called *Continuous*.

- It may be spoken of as *complete*. A verb form which indicates that is called a *Perfect*.

- It may be spoken of as one whole, without describing it as *complete* or *incomplete* in relation to other actions. A verb form which does this is called an *Indefinite*.

Prof. B.Ilyish asserts that present, past and future are tense categories, is firmly established and has never been doubted by anyone (1968, 97).*

The «perfect» form of the verb indicates an action performed before the present moment (and connected with it) or before a definite moment in the past or future (to have + P.II) (Kaushanskaya, et al. 1972, 95-100).

The perfect tense is frequently used with the adverbs «already», «recently» or with the «since» clauses.

The English perfect has been the matter of discussion. As the position of the perfect forms in the English verbal system is not fully defined. There are three views on the problem: the question is whether the perfect form is a tense, or aspect, or the *specific category*.

H. Sweet (1892, 97-105), O. Curme (1931, 2, 231-232), O. Espersen (1931, 112-113) and other traditional grammarians treat the perfect as a *tense*. Due to *another view* the perfect is a peculiar *aspect category*. J. Lyons argues that English has two main aspects «which combine fairly freely with tense and mood: the «perfect» (I have/had read the book, I will/would read the book) and the «progressive» (I'm/was reading the book, I will/would be reading the book) (Воронцова, 1980, 191-94).

The third view states that the perfect is *neither tense nor aspect*, but a *specific category* different from both (Smirnitkiy,

* *Note*: some grammarians maintain that there are only two tenses – the present and the past, because these are only ones distinguished by an inflection.

1959, 274-316). The scholar proposed to call this case firstly, as «*the category correlation*» and later «*the time relation*». L.N. Vorontsova mentions that perfect forms have been variously defined as «*retrospective*», «*resultative*», «*successive*», etc. (1980, 191-199). But there were objections to the term until B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya, (1967, 132) suggested the term «*the category of order*». Due to them the new label reveals the essence of the category better. Other grammarians proposed their labels too in their grammatical manuals: «*the category of retrospect*» (M. Bloch) and «*The category of taxis*» (Слюминская, 1975, 98).

The notion of «*Category of Order*» has been in use among the English grammarians as the perfect form really expresses the order of processes. The perfect represents a process as *prior to the moment of speaking* or to some other moment.

The perfect form of the English verb is an analytic construction. Tense auxiliaries are *have*, *had* and *shall have* are used to formulate sentences with the *complete action* of verbs.

Why do we use the perfect? We use this structure of a verb construction to actualize (or formulate) a process that is prior to another process, or another moment of time. This category deals with the meanings of prior actions. It has two particular meanings: prior action — non-prior action. The first is expressed by means of zero morpheme, the second one is expressed with the help of discontinues morpheme: «*to have + ed*».

Ex.: I have been in this place.

She has worked at this college for five years.

Although the label «*perfect tense*» implies a completed action, the present perfect can identify habitual (I have made up toys since the ten years) or (We have lived here for fourteen years) action.

Thus, the *category of order* is built up by two forms: the perfect form and the *non-perfect form*. To know the category of order means to know the notion of completed and non-completed actions.

Completed actions. Examples: a) I have brought some bread, some milk and a pencil-case. Take them, please. b) He spoke of the books she has read with pleasure.

Non-completed actions. Examples: a) I'm going to sleep. b) She bought them on the way home. c) They will finish the work in the evening.

The Category of Person

Person is the modification of the form of verbs. The category serves to associate the speech process with three persons: speaker (first person – I, we), the addresser (second person – you) and the one (ones) not participating in speech process (third person – he, she, it, they).

The category is represented in Russian and Uzbek languages in a set of three – member oppositions:

Russian: chitayu – chitayesh – chitayet

читает – читаеш – читаем

Uzbek: o'qiyman – o'qiysan – o'qiydi

o'qiyimiz – o'qiysiz – o'qiydilar.

In English this category has its own certain peculiarities:

- Three persons do not participate in this category as in Russian and Uzbek languages. This category is practically represented by two-member oppositions: walk – walks; am – is. As it is seen, in English, only the third person present singular form expresses person grammatically by using «-s» in the lexical word. The third person singular in regular verbs is distinguished by the suffix «-s». run – runs, look – looks, catch – catches.

Among the auxiliary modal and helping verbs only «be» and the «shall/should» and «will/would» can be used in this category to show person category (Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, 1967, 149).

Ex.: He, she, it/is-was;

I – am (was); you – are (were)

We are (were);

You are (were); they are (were).

Ex.: I shall walk in the morning. He/she will walk in the morning.

Thus, English has two grammaticalized persons in the singular – first and third person – and no grammatical person in the plural.

In the past tense usage «be» does not distinguish person: without a personal pronoun one can not say which person the form expresses.

Thus, *the category of person* is represented in English by two-member oppositions: third person singular vs. non-third person singular. Firstly, by the help of the verb to be: am-is (I'm sitting – he/she is sitting); *secondly*, by means of shall/should, which are opposed to the usage of will/would. In these examples the learner sees the third person expressed by forms will/would as opposed to the non-third person, expressed by the forms shall/should (Khaimovich, Rogovskaya, 1967, 149).

- Personal oppositions are neutralized when we speak of the plural meanings. The marked member of the opposition is the third person, the unmarked member is the non-third person (first person, second person forms – singular and plural).

Besides the person agreement there exists a number of subjects and verbs agreement the learners ought to know. Thus in English «s» is plural, when it appears on nouns, but singular when it appears on verbs: The two doors are brown; He/she speaks French; The girls sing songs.

The Grammatical Category of Posteriority

In linguistics, grammar is the set of structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases, and words in any language. This term refers to the study of all the components of language, as well as morphology and syntax. English grammar, therefore, refers to the rules of a well defined variety of standard English.

The rules of this grammatical concept are one of the peculiarities of English the learners of the language must acquire.

The concept of posteriority (or sequence of tenses) is based on the following assumptions:

- This grammatical phenomenon refers to the province of English syntax, i.e. the switching of direct speech of speaker into indirect speech. In this case there exist certain requirements the learners ought to keep. Firstly in this phenomenon two clauses take part: the principal and subordinate (or dependent).

- Secondly, the grammatical phenomenon deals with the correct use of verb. Tenses in both clauses and the primary business (job) of this category is a dependence of the predicate-tense form of a subordinate clause on the tense form of its principal clause.

The objectives of this parameter are:

- If the verb in the principle clause is in one of the past tenses, a past tense (future in the past) must be used in the subordinate clause. The rule is generally governed or found in object, subject and predicative clauses.

Ex.: I knew that she worked at a custom house.

We thought that she was working at her presentation.

They were sure that you had more courage than this.

She noticed suddenly that I was not listening.

Our first thought was where they were now.

He did this that he might please me.

- If the past action expressed in the subordinate clause is prior to the action expressed in the principle clause, the past perfect is used in the subordinate clause (Бархударов, Штеллинг, op.sit. p. 407).

Ex.: I was such that she had written in that article.

Suddenly he understood she had been deceived.

- If the past action expressed in the subordinate clause lasted a certain time before, the action expressed in the principle clause, the past perfect or past perfect continuous is used in the subordinate clause.

Ex.: He realized that the old life he had lived in that city since boyhood was ended.

When she came in she seemed upset and pale. I understood something had happened

• If the action expressed in the subordinate clause is posterior to that of the principle clause the future in the past is used. These cases are often treated as formal features of the complex sentences (Espersen, 1938, 261).

Ex.: I thought that she would come.

She said that she would bring the book in time.

• The tenses of the verb in a dependent clause commonly depends upon that of the verb in the principle clause. A present or future in the principle clause requires a present or a future in the subordinate clause.

Ex.: He does this that he may get acquainted with our daughter.

He will do this that he may get good marks on my subject.

He has done this that he may please me.

He says that he is better.

He said that he was better.

• But if the dependent clause states a universal truth, it's better to keep the present time.

Ex.: He promised that he would be on time.

The plan agreed upon was that each should pay half.

He said she was ashamed to tell me.

He allowed that all men are liable to error.

He denied that god exists.

This item of grammar is one of the widely used phenomena of syntax in retelling or concluding, or composing sentences in practical language teaching processes.

The main *essence* of the sequence of tenses in complex sentences or the *category of posteriority* would include such phenomena as the use of tenses of two homogeneous predicates in a sentence, or that of the predicate verbs in two clauses within a compound and complex sentences due to prescriptive rules of grammar (Ilyish, 1971).

• The rules of posteriority concern not only on the predicate of the subordinate clause, but also on the other parts of the clause and refers to the cases of pronoun and the nature of adverbial modifier.

Ex.: She smiled again, sure that I should come up.

He turned his head slightly, well aware that she was watching him.

Due to Khaimovich and Rogovskaya the below examples are not «tense forms». In the sentences: I know she will come; I know she would come; I had known she would come – neither «*will come*» – «*would come*», nor «knew» – «had known» is a tense opposition, because the difference between the member of the opposemes is not that of tense, the second – the meaning of «past tense». The third tense sentence distinguishes only the meaning of «perfect» – «non-perfect» order (1967, 147-48).

- If the predicate verb is in the present tense, any tense may be used due to the context (or sense) in the subordinate clause.

Ex.: My parents never wonder where I am or what I am or what I am doing.

I have never told her I love her.

I don't know what I was waiting for, nor what I was thinking about.

- If the verb in the principal clause is in the future tense, any tense due the context (or sense) can be used in the subordinate clause.

Ex.: We'll tell you how he is to act.

She'll soon find out what the boys are doing in the basement.

To know the category of posteriority and be proficient both in morphology and syntax; be aware of the notional and functional pars of speech, the formulation of compound and complex sentences from the simple declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory ones, be able to change active into passive voices and vice versa.

Questions

- What do we understand by the category of order? Is it a new grammatical rule or well-established verb construction? Give examples.

- Point out the opinions on the status of perfect in English morphology.

- What does the category of aspect denote? Point out the differences between tense and aspect?
- Is there a category of person? Why do the grammarians suggest this category? Point out the objectives of this category.
- What can be said about the category of posteriority? What grammatical rule is it based on?

The Grammatical Category of Voice

By «voice» we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between transitive verb, its subject and object.

Majority of linguists recognize only two voices: the active and the passive (H. Sweet, G. Curme and others). Voice is a two-members opposition. Passive voice is opposed to active one.

Ex.: «to love – to be loved».

The active is expressed by 0 (zero) morpheme; the passive meaning is expressed by a discontinuous morpheme «to be + participle II».

The active voice is used in a sentence where the verb denotes the action done by the subject or the subject is the actor of the verb.

Ex.: The boy strikes the bull.

The passive voice is used in a sentence where the subject stands for the object or when the subject is the undergoer of the action.

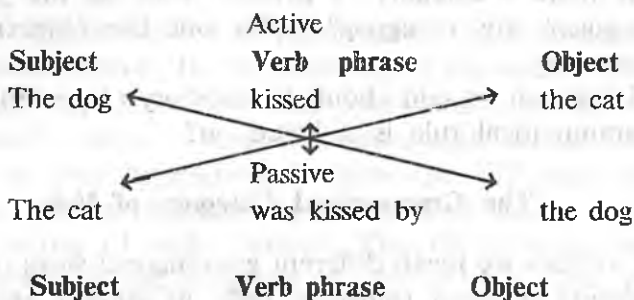
Ex.: The mouse was killed by a cat (The cat killed the mouse).

In active and passive transformation the subject and the direct object switch places.

How to Form Actives from Passives

- Replace or move the subject of the active verb to the end of the sentence, making it the passive agent. Add by.
- Move the object of the active verb to the front of the sentence, making it the passive subject.

- The active verb phrase by a passive one – usually a form of the auxiliary verb «be» followed by the «-ed» participle.



Opinions differ on the number of voices in English. English grammarians H. Poustma (1926, 93-100) and Sweet H. (1892, 92) suggested the «reflexive voice» in which one does something or to feel oneself, or the action is almost performed by the subject and upon himself. This voice is expressed by the «self» – pronouns. If, however, the action is always performed by the subject and upon himself, or acts on itself, this is normally called the «reflexive».

Ex.: He cut himself while shaving.

He got into bed covered himself up warm and fell asleep.

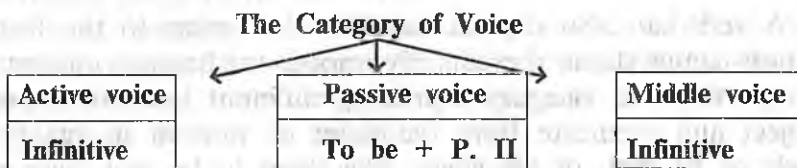
H. Sweet, H. Poustma, B. Ilyish proposed the *reciprocal voice*, expressed by the help of the word «each other», «one another». The action is performed by two or more subjects and if this subject acts upon each other, the relationship of voice is generally called «reciprocal».

Ex.: You have to help each other to finish the work by dinner time.

Some linguists as H. Poustma, B. Ilyish distinguish the *neuter* or *middle voice*.

The *middle voice* due to some grammarians is in the middle of passive and active voice, because the subject cannot be categorized as either actor or undergoer, but has elements of both.

Ex.: The door opens.		The novels sell well.
The tail reads well.		The play acts well.
The table moves.		The poem recites well.
She does not frighten easily.		The bread slices poorly.
The cup breaks easily.		The meal tastes well.



But some grammarians (A. Smirnitskiy, L. Barkhudarov, G. Vorontsova, B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya) objected to the existence of reflexive, reciprocal and neuter voices. They maintain that usually only the categories that are expressed by grammatical means are said to be grammatical categories. In this case only active and passive meanings are expressed grammatically (Воронцова, 1960, 234-235).

As to *reciprocal, reflexive* voices they were expressed by the help of «lexical means» or «pronouns». They do not have any *special grammatical means* of expression. That's why they can't be considered as the special forms of voice. The voice forms, as special grammatical category refer to transitive verbs. *The intransitive verbs have no forms of voice.*

Ex.: See each other. Children help one another.

Due to the existence of the concept «middle voice» I think it deserves supporting. There's no morphological means in expressing the middle voice. The verb denotes a process, which is going on in the subject itself. One can watch in this category the close connection of the notions language and speech. These types of sentences are structurally possible in everyday talk and use.

Questions

- What is the «passive» verb? Why is it so named?
- Explain the difference between the active and passive voices of a verb in meaning and form. Give explanations on the nature of middle voice.

- Give explanations on the notion of reflexive and reciprocal voices. Are they grammatically ruled?
- Try to use this rule to Uzbek and Russian sentences.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

A verb can also express mood, which refers to the factual or non-factual status of events. By «mood» the linguists understand the grammatical category expressing different relations between subject and predicate from the point of view of its reality or likely to be real, or we would like them to be real, wish and conditions.

Mood is thus syntactic, not a notional category (O.Espersen). Mood indicates the psychological atmosphere of the action as reflecting the speaker's attitude (E.Nida). The speaker's or writer's mental attitudes for expressing mood are of great importance. Such an approach to the question is called «modality».

Ex: It is cold today. = Reality, Indicative or Declarative Mood.

It may be cold today = Supposition.

If it were cold = Wish, Subjunctive.

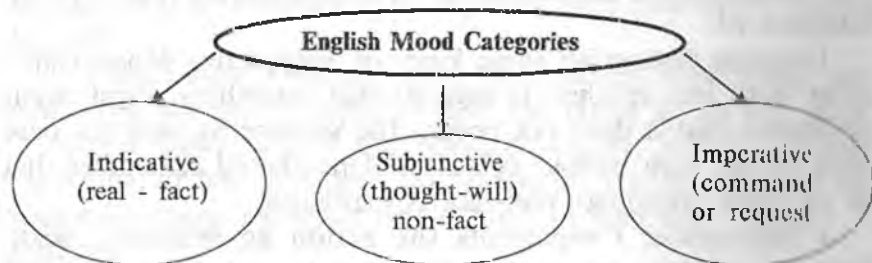
Forget it! Sit still! = Imperative.

There is no unity of opinions on the number of moods in English theoretical grammar. The problem of the category of mood lies in the distinction between the real and the unreal expressed by the corresponding form of the verb. The authors of the Readings in the history of the grammar, 1967 see the main difficulty is due, *firstly*, to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical form of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of irreality; *secondly*, consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries *should/would*, *may/might*, which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

According to one opinion there are only 3 moods – Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive (Espersen, 1935, 313; Curme, 1931, 223-226). The *second opinion* is that there are 4 moods (Борон-

цова, 1960). The *third point of view* is that there are 5 moods (Indicative, Subjunctive, Conditional, Permissive and Compulsive = what am I to do?) (Sweet 1892, 105-111). The *fourth point of view* is that there are 6 moods (A. Smirnitkiy and others). This case denotes that the category of mood is one of the most controversial category of the verb.

But most language teachers conclude on the existence of three moods: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative. Among them the imperative and subjunctive moods represent the action not as real, but as desired or imagined.



The *Indicative* (Latin *indicare*, «to point out») Mood is the basic and most common mood of the verb. The Indicative mood indicates that a person says must be regarded as fact. Morphologically it is the most developed system including all the categories of the verb. *Semantically* it is the *fact mood*. It indicates that something occurs, occurred or will occur. And this meaning is expressed by a zero marker. It uses the base form without inflections. Mood constructions involving the various choices of person, tense, number, aspect, modality are the *indicative* mood.

Ex: Yesterday I saw a new Indian film. They have just arrived in.

I'm walking home. They are singing.

They may be considered the normal form of verbs. It is used to state facts seen, done or spoken. It is the usual mood in declarative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences (Greenbaum, 1985, 58)

The *Subjunctive* (Latin *subjungere*, «to join on to») Mood represents an action as a non-fact or thought-mood, will-mood

respectively (Espersen, 1935, 313). This mood implies that he is doubtful or uncertain of something or irreality.

Ex: He wants to park his car near the window so that he might see it.

If he came earlier we should begin the discussion.

If I were you I shouldn't pay attention to this gossip.

In Old English the subjunctive mood was expressed by a special system of forms with a special set of inflections (synthetic way, different from those of the indicative). In the course of time, however the difference between the forms of the subjunctive and those of the indicative has almost disappeared.

Linguists distinguish some kinds of Subjunctive Mood which differ from one another. It suggests that something might occur or implies that it does not occur. The subjunctive uses the base form of the verb *without inflections*. One should remember that in all these meanings non-fact is expressed:

- *Subjunctive I* represents the action as desirable, wish, demands, desires, etc. and is indicated by not using the third person, singular.

Ex.: May successes attend you! May you live long and die happy!

- *Subjunctive II* is indicated by the Past tense of the notional verb which represents the present action. It is an unreal action.

Ex.: I wish she felt as I do. If you taught me, I would learn properly.

- *Subjunctive III* (Suppositional) is indicated by using «should» for all persons. The Subjunctive Mood is used in subject clause after a principal clause of the type: It is necessary, It is important, etc.:

Ex.: It is necessary that it should be here. It is time she came home.

It was important that he should come. Ring me up if he should be there.

- *Subjunctive IV* (Conditional) is used to express conditional statements and is often found in – «if – then» statements: it

is typically marked in the present tense by the auxiliary «were» plus «-ing» form of the verb and verbal auxiliary «should» for the first person singular and «would» for all the persons, as well as «could, may and might».

Ex.: If they were eating they would sit.

If I were here I should read more magazines.

If he came here, they would go to the theatre.

If I knew him, I'd write to him. But for the rain we would go for a walk.

If he were not so absent-minded, he would not have mistaken you for your sister. If they lived here they would answer the bell.

If I were here I should open my business department and bank. You should be more careful. He could go to the store.

Subject clause follow the principal clause, which is either impersonal or has no subject (exclamatory). The predicate of the principal clause expresses some kind of modality: should + infinitive.

The choice of the subjunctive mood form in object clauses depends on the meaning of the verb standing before the object clause.

Ex.: I suggested that she give up smoking. I wish I knew something of the veterinary medicine. We wish you come earlier, your help will be needed.

The Subjunctive Mood is also used in *attributive clauses* modifying the noun «time» in the principal clause *It is time, It is high time*. In this case the past Subjunctive (Mood) of the verb «to be» is used; with other verbs the same meaning is expressed by the Past Indefinite of the Indicative Mood.

Ex.: It's cruel that I should make him cry.

It's funny that they should have forgotten about it.

It's high time he were more proficient in this speciality.

It is time we went home.

It's high time we were off.

It's time you learned you are in the army.

The Subjunctive Mood is used in *adverbial clause of comparison* (or manner) introduced by the conjunction «as if».

Ex.: 1) She speaks about him as if she knew him well.

2) She greeted him as if he were her brother.

The Subjunctive Mood is used in *predicative clauses*, introduced by the conjunctions «as if», «as though», after the link verb «to be, to feel, to look, to seem» etc.

Ex.: He looked as if he knew it to be true. I feel as if we were back seven years.

It was as if she were angry with him.

Imperative Mood. The term comes from Latin «imperare» meaning «to command», is also a non-factual mood and represents an action as a command, request or instructions. It is morphologically the least developed of all moods. In Modern English the Imperative Mood has only one form which coincides with the infinitive without the particle «to». It is used in the *second* person (singular and plural).

Ex.: Be quiet and hear what I tell you. Open the window to air the room.

Hush! Don't make a noise. Come to me at 11:30 tomorrow.

It may be used with the *third* person too. In this case it is used with the verb «to let». It may be used with the *first* person too.

Ex.: Let's go and have some tea or coffee. Let me do the digging. Let the sleeping dog lie.

To sum up, moods may be divided into Realis moods and Irrealis moods. Realis moods are category of grammatical moods that indicate that something is actually the case or actually not the case. The most common Realis mood is the Indicative mood or the declarative mood.

Irrealis moods indicate that something is not actually the case, such as necessity, possibility, requirement, or is otherwise far removed from the real course of events.

Ex.: If you had done your homework, you wouldn't have failed the class.

The Subjunctive mood functions as an irrealis. Some also preserve as optative mood that describes events that are wished for or hoped for but not actual.

To know the mood and its types means to be able to express one's own feelings or thoughts as well as wishes in the form of statements, questions, commands and instructions.

Questions

- What is a mood and category of mood? How many moods do the linguists distinguish in literature?
- What action does each mood express?
- What does the term «Indicative» mean? Point out the difference from the other-two.
- Which mood is considered the most developed? And why?
- Is the Imperative mood limited by being used with the first person?
- Explain the aims and the usages of the subjunctive mood and its varieties.

Non-Finite Forms of Verbs

English verb is that part of speech that has verbal forms, which occupy a peculiar position in the system of morphology. There are several verb forms which are often classed together as the Non-finite verb.

Non-finite verb (or a verbal) is a verb form that is not limited by a subject and more, generally, is not fully inflected by categories that are marked inflectionally in language, such as tense, aspect, mood, number, gender and person. As a result, a non-finite verb cannot generally serve as the main verb in an independent clause, rather, it heads a non-finite clause.

The *main job* of a non-finite verb acts simultaneously as a verb and another part of speech, i.e. the functions of noun, adjective, or adverb in a number of contexts. This is the reason for the term *verbal*. Non-finite verbs have traditionally been classified as verbal nouns, verbal adjectives, or verbal adverbs.

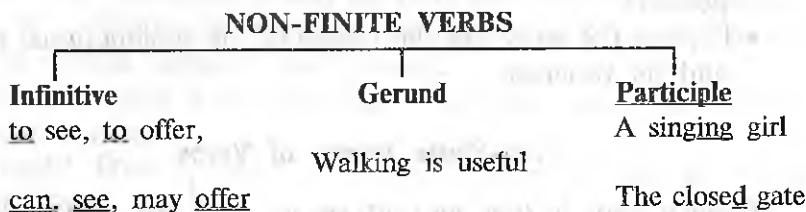
Due to H.Sweet «Verbals are a class of words intermediate between verbs on the one hand, then nouns and adjectives on the other; they do not express predication, but keep all the meanings and grammatical functions of the verbs from which they are formed» (1892, 35-38).

There are two approaches to the notion of verbals. *One group of manuals considers that English has three kinds of verbals:*

The *Infinitives*, which function as noun-like, adjective-like, and adverb-like status;

Gerunds, which function as nouns, and participles, which function as a verbal nouns status in *-ing*.

Participles, which function as verbal adjectives, they in turn function as attributively and predicatively.



The *second asserts* that non-finite forms (or verbals) are four in number; they are the infinitive, the gerund, participle I and participle II.

The gerund and infinitive combine the infinitive verbal features with those of noun, participle, in addition to verbal features, possess some adjectival and adverbial features.

The Infinitive

The term comes from Latin «*infinitus*» meaning «unlimited». Noun-verbals comprise *infinitives*, such as *go*, in I will *go*, I wish to *go*. The infinitive expresses the action or state devoted by the verb without reference to person, number or type.

In English the infinitive verb form, is often introduced by the particle «to», as in «to read, to run, to listen, to hear, to write» denotes the meaning of verb as an act or a state, but has

not the function of the verb, rather puts them in the form of a noun or a verbal noun. Some of them, however, are distinct from the uses of ordinary noun, others are equivalent to prepositional phrases. Due to grammarians the infinitive, like the participle and the gerund, has a double nature, nominal and verbal (Kaushanskaya et al, 1973, 185).

Omission of «to»

The infinitive is usually preceded by «to» particle, which has come to be regarded as the part of it. It is the form that is listed in dictionaries. But the infinitive is used without it.

After the auxiliary modal, sense, perception and certain other types of verbs — «do, shall/will, can, may, must, dare, need; see, hear, feel; let, make, help, have, please and go».

Ex.:

Nelly, go and <i>see</i> where the child is.	They heard him lock the door.
Will you <i>make</i> him come?	We never saw her look so pale.
You <i>dare</i> not do it.	We felt her heart jump.
You <i>need</i> not wait.	Let her go away.
I heard him <i>call</i> .	What makes you think so?

Note: But in passive constructions the «to» is regularly used:

He was heard <i>to say</i> it,	He was seen <i>to do</i> it.
In certain idioms — had better, had rather:	
I had rather be a doorkeeper.	You had better go and see.

Infinitive may be in sentences:

- As subject:

Ex: *To be good* is to be harmony with oneself.

To see her again did not give him the usual pleasure.

To find him still at home was luck.

To be lazy means to be lost in the genuine.

To be walking through the dessert all alone is not a good pleasure for everyone.

What we want to do is to take up our notes and remember the rules.

- As predicate.

Ex: To see **is to believe**. His wish *is to have a son*.

His plan *was to talk to her*. Our aim *was to call on her*.

- As object. The infinitive can have the function of object after verbs, adjectives, adjectivized participles, and statives.

Ex: She agreed to *come at ten*. I remembered to have met him once. Max wanted to learn painting.

Do not stop to chat (Here «to chat» functions as an adverb modifying «stop»).

She asked him *to come* (object). He made up his mind to *answer* her letter. Tell him to *hurry*. We asked her *to keep an eye on the baby*. They advised me to go on (conjunctive phrases). We decided *to begin at once* (conjunctive phrases). She intends *to teach a foreign language*.

- After the prepositions: *about, but, except*.

Ex.: They were about *to leave*. He did nothing but *read*. As an attribute.

Ex.: He was someone *to admire*. She was the first *to come*. We were the last *to reach the hill*.

- As an adverbial modifier.

Ex.: In august I'll go *to England to improve my English* (purpose). I shudder *to see you here* (time). He came *to see us*. Give me something *to eat*. He came *to see us* (adv. mod). Give me something *to eat* (adv. mod).

- As parenthesis:

Ex.: *To begin with*, she has been lying to me all the time. *To be quite frank*, I don't like him at all. *To be sure*, I have not known him long. *To tell you truth*, I do not understand a word of word of his speech.

Questions

- Due to what feature the verbs are subdivided into finite and non-finite? Give the reasons.
- How many verbal forms are there in English? Explain the main jobs of verbals in grammar.
- What is meant by an Infinitive?
- What functions does the infinitive perform in sentences?

The Gerund or Verbal Noun

A Gerund is a verbal noun that refers to the action of the verb. It also ends in «-ing» and functions as a noun. The term «verbal» indicates that a gerund, like the other two kinds of verbals, is based on a verb and therefore expresses action or a state of being.

Nevertheless the gerund, as H.Sweet says, is less of a verb than the infinitive,... as it does not join in the conjugation of the finite verb (1892, 116).

Objectives of the Gerund are:

- It can form a plural.
- It can form a genitive.

Since a gerund functions as a *noun*, it occupies certain positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would. It can serve in place of a noun phrase.

It can be the subject, predicative, attribute, adverbial modifier, and object of a sentence:

- *As subject:* (as a rule gerund as a subject stands in front positions in a sentence)

Ex.: *Fencing* is good exercise (Here «fencing» is the subject of «is»). *Swimming* is wonderful fun. *Running* is healthy exercise. *Growing* roses in the garden is my hobby. If you want me to help, it's no good *beating* about the bush. Making promises is not *keeping* them. Mike expanded his skills by *studying* (Here «studying» is the object of «by»). *Speaking* is not always wise. *Eating* the meal is easy.

- *As predicate* (compound verbal predicate):

Ex.: Mike *was against your joining*. Again you *start arguing*. They *kept on arguing* till twelve o'clock.

- *As object:*

Ex.: The police arrested him *for speeding*. They don't appreciate my *singing*. He enjoyed *reading* the new novels. I'm fond of *smoking* a pipe. She educated herself by *reading* widely.

- *As attribute:*

Ex.: There is a *chance* of catching the train. *The idea of him being in Paris* was not a pleasant one.

• *As an adverbial modifier:*

Ex.: One day, *on returning to the hotel*, he found a note in his room. So you see I could not sleep for *worrying*.

I had had a lot of thoughts since learning the office. So you see I couldn't sleep for *worrying*.

We lost ourselves through not knowing the way. Gerund is a verbal noun, which governs another noun.

Ex.: Its good for *curing* a cold. He will be punished for doing it.

In *discovering* America, Columbus did a great work.

The gerund phrase functions as the *subject* of the sentence.

Ex.: *Finding a needle* in the ground in such weather is great thing.

Being the leader of the company in travelling through Asia made Nick uneasy.

Flying above the lake in such stormy weather was a little dangerous.

Using possessives (genitives) with gerund

Ex.: I can't stand *him* singing in the shower.

We noticed *your* standing with Nelly in the drug-store last night.

I was shocked by *somebody's* making that remark.

Gerund is identical in form to Present Participle and can believe as verb within a clause, but the clause as a whole acts as a noun within the large sentence.

Unlike the participles the gerund maybe preceded by a preposition: e.g. a hall for dancing, a stove for cooking, shoes for walking, a table for writing (Kaushanskaya and others, 1973, 185). In speech we may watch the use of such expressions: I am fond of walking in the wood or garden. Her niece is fond of rowing in the water. His hobby is to be fond of boxing in sport-yard.

Thus the term «verbal noun» is a noun formed from a verb: I like singing in the hall.

Questions

- Explain the notion of gerund and its properties.
- Distinguish the following sentences by its appropriate «-ing» form:
 - a) Writing yesterday he mentioned the matters to me;
 - b) The writing of impositions sometimes spoils a good hand.
 - c) Writing imposition sometimes spoils a good hand.
 - d) Lend me your writing-desk.
- Show the differences between the participle and the gerund.

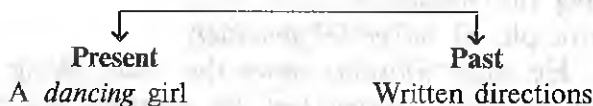
The Participles or Verbal Adjectives

The term comes from Latin «pars» meaning «part» and «capio» – «I take». It is called because it partakes partly of the *nature of a verb* and also of *an adjective*.

A participle is that form of a verb which may be used *adjectively* as well as *verbally*, or partly as *verbs* and partly as *adjectives*. Participle is also non-finite form of the verb which is defined as follows.

- A participle is a verbal adjective or attributive verb that describes a noun as being a participant in the action of the verb.

English has two kinds of participles:



In these examples we speak of the girl that dances as *dancing* girl, and the directions some one write as the *written* directions. The verb uses in this manner, as an adjective is called a participle.

A *present participle*, which ends in «-ing» and which originally describes the actor of the action;

A *past participle*, which ends in «-en», and in «-ed», and which ordinarily describes the undergoer of the action.

They stand in the same relation to other adjectives that verbal nouns do other nouns.

The present participles always ends in -ing, as «loving, writing, «etc; and the past participle usually ends in «-ed» or «-en», as «loved, written».

Ex.: I bring fresh showers for the *thirsting* flowers.

If a participle used as an *attribute* the person denoted by the noun *unlike the gerund*, the noun performs the action expressed by «-ing» inform.

Ex.: a dancing girl, a singing child (Kaushanskaya, et al, 1973, 185).

The present participle is used *attributively*:

Ex.: A *smiling* face. The *gathered* mushroom. The *swelling* river hurries to the sea. The horseman, *sinking* from hunger, dropped on the road. I saw him *driving* his motor down the hill. He was out in the *driving* rain.

In English *present participle* is used in forming the continuous aspect (to be doing), the *past participle* is used in forming the passive voice (to be + done), and *perfect passive* (to have been done).

Ex: The children stood *watching* them out town. There is nothing either good or bad, but *thinking* makes it so. Leave *writing* plays and choose for the command.

- Participle as part of a *predicate*.

Ex.: They were *talking* on the way home. We have been *considering* the matter.

- Participle as *adverbial modifier*.

Ex.: He went *whistling down* the road. *Being a newcomer*, he fell ill at once. *Seeing her*, he dropped the cup. *Leaving alone*, one becomes self-centered. *Returning to his village*, Mike had thrown himself into the work. *Don't forget using function words* when speaking English. They *came running*. *Being hungry*, I ate everything on the table. *Hoping to catch* the train we took a taxi.

- As objective *participle* construction.

Ex.: I saw *John playing* tennis. I saw *him* playing tennis. We heard them *singing*.

Past participle may function as *attribute*.

Ex.: First of all they went to the *bombed* building. It was a nearly *written* letter.

• As *predicate*.

Ex: You *seem surprised*. The door *remained locked*. The sun *is not risen*. Jane *was heard* working in the garden.

The learners of the English language ought to be careful not to mistake a gerund phrase for a present participle phrase. The gerund is generally distinct from the participle in meaning and in construction. Gerund and present participle phrases are easy to confuse because they both begin with an «-ing» word. The *difference* is that a gerund phrase will always function as a noun, as «*I like eating*», while a present participle phrase *describes* another noun in the sentence, as «*we like eating apples*».

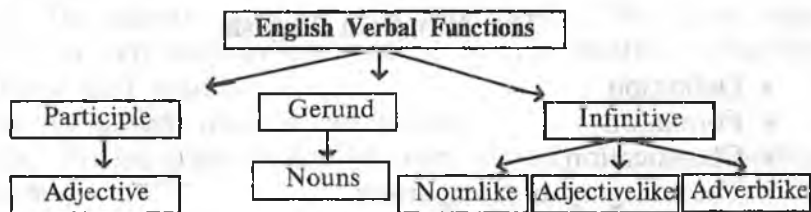
Thus is «I saw her dancing», *dancing* is a participle belonging to her, the object of *saw*. In «I am sure of her coming in time», coming is a verbal noun in the objective case after of, and *her* is a possessive case modifying *coming*.

Participles maybe used mainly as adjectively as well as verbally

Illustrations

Adjectively: I felt my own dogs *watching* me aside

Verbally: The horseman *sinking* from hunger, dropped on the road.



Summing up we may say, the verb in every language is «the most complex and capacious system in morphology» (Виноградов, 1947, 422). This part of speech consists of two main divisions: finite and non-finite. Each needs due attention to their use.

Thus English has three kinds of verbals: *participles*, which function as adjectives, gerunds, which function as nouns and

infinitives, which have noun-like, adjective-like and adverb-like functions.

Due to classification principles verbs consist of subsystems, such as notional, semi-notional, impersonal on the one hand, simple, compound and composite on the other hand. Then they may be transitive/intransitive, regular/irregular and the verbals, such as the infinitive, the gerund and the participle. Thus, the notion of verb is a system of systems.

When the would be teachers have mastered the «intricate» nature of the English «verb» (Smirnitkiy) theoretically and applied it practically earnestness and care, only then they would be proficient in this domain.

Questions

- What is participle? How may it be distinguished from a verbal noun?
- Point out the functions of participle in sentences.
- Find a number of sentences when a participle is as a Continuous aspect.
- Point out the types of participles and their usage.
- What parts of the verb may be used as a) nouns, b) adjectives? Apply your answer in the verb «splash» by making short sentences.

The Adverb in English

- Definition
- Formation
- Classification
- The category of comparison
- The verb-adverb construction and its problem

Definition: The adverb is also a member of morphology. It describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, clause or sentence. Adverb as a word tells us some or more about a verb. It is considered as a part of speech because of the following features:

1. *Semantically* adverbs express the degree of property, property of an action, circumstance under which action takes place (half,

much, hardly, too, well, badly, slowly, now, then). Adverbs typically answer questions as «how?» «when?» «where?» «why?» Semantically adverbs denote the secondary feature – the «feature of feature».

2. *Morphologically* adverbs have inflections which help to form the grammatical category of degrees of comparison, which are expressed in two ways:

a) by inflections;

b) by suppletion:

Ex.: soon – sooner – soonest; actively – more actively – most actively.

They lack the form of word change. That's why they are called «invariable».

3. *Syntactically* adverbs function as adverbial modifier in sentence. Though they perform a wide range of functions, adverbs fulfill the following functions.

Adverbs are characteristically used to modify verbs. That is, they perform the same function for verbs that adjectives do for nouns. And indeed, adjectives and adverbs are often closely related, but they do not appear in the same function.

Ex.: A suddenly change. It changed suddenly.

• The principal job of an adverb is to modify (give information about) verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

a) The adverb modifies an adjective. *Ex.: We know your teacher is very serious and justful («very» modifies adjective «serious» and «justfull»).*

b) An adverb modifies an adverb.

Ex.: Nadya plays basketball very cleverly («very» modifies «adverb»).

c) Adverb phrases can also be modifiers of noun phrases and prepositional phrases.

Ex.: She stayed out in the middle of the wild sea and told then that was quite the loveliest place (noun phrase).

About the half way through the movie, He decided to return home (prepositional phrase).

d) Adverbs modify a sentence.

Ex.: Suddenly she stood up, and left the room («suddenly» modifies a whole sentence).

Today, we are going to the tennis competition («today» modifies a whole sentence).

4. *Combinability*. They combine with adjectives, verbs, adverbs, statives.

Ex.: This is the most (adverb of degree) popular (adjective) show. She writes fairly *well*. This article is *rather* different. Our teacher speaks *quietly*. We have read a *very* ridiculous story.

5. *Stem-building affixes* (word-forms): «-ly», «-ward», «-ways». Adverbs are mostly formed by inflexion, derivation from nouns and adjectives (by adverb-forming affixes or morphemes).

Ex.: Helen spoke to Nick in a *sharp* manner. Helen spoke to him *sharply*.

The suffix «-ly» is a typical marker of the adverb. However, many adverbs related to adjectives may not be necessarily use with the suffix «-ly».

Ex.: fast, hard, clear, close, loud, firm, quick, slow, etc.

Mike drives his car *fast*. Mother works *hard*. We *hardly* recognize her.

Some suffixes that are commonly found in adverbs are «-ward(s)» and «wise»: homeward, downward, lengthwise.

Many adverbs are especially important for indicating time, manner, place, degree and frequency of an event, action or process.

Adverbs have two main types of function:

- Modifier of an adjective or an adverb in phrase structure.

Ex.: The description was *scramcably* accurate.

- Modifier of an adverb.

Ex.: I *entirely* agree with you.

Formation of Adverbs

Adverbs are mostly *formed* by inflexion, derivation or composition from nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

In Old English adverbs were distinguished from adjectives by the addition of «-e». In the course of time the «-e» was dropped,

leaving the adverb identical in form with the adjective. This simple form of adverb is still in use and is quite common in poetry:

Ex.: Don't talk so loud. Walk fast.

Old English suffix «-lice» (-ly) came to be treated as an adverbial suffix: true-truely.

However, many words and phrases not ending in «-ly» serve an adverbial function and an «-ly» ending is not guarantee that a word is an adverb. The words lovely, linely, friendly, neighbourly, for instance, are adjectives.

Ex.: That lovely woman lives in a friendly neighbourhood.

If a group of words, containing a subject and verb, *acts as an adverb* (modifying the verb of a sentence), it is called an *Adverbial clause*.

Ex.: When this class is over, we're going to the movies.

When a group of words not containing a subject and verb, *acts as an adverb*, it's called an *Adverbial phrase*. Prepositional phrases frequently have adverbial functions (telling place and time, modifying the verb).

Ex.: He went to the movies. She works on holidays.

Most adverbs are derived from *nouns* and *adjectives*: sometimes, always, meantime, midway, yesterday.

Some adverbs are derived from *base of pronouns* «he, that, who, some (body), every (body), any (body), no (body), all».

It's worth to note that Modern English grammarians recognize that words traditionally grouped together. Adverbs serve a number of functions. Some would go so far as to call adverbs a «catch-all» category that includes all words that don't belong to other parts of speech.

he = *here, hence*;

that = *there, thence, then, thus, the (degree)*;

who = *where, when, how, why*;

somebody = *somewhere*

everybody = *everywhere*

anybody = *anywhere*

nobody = *nowhere*

all = *always*

In English adverbs of manner (answering the question why?) are often derived from verbs. In some cases the suffix «-wise»

(likewise, lengthwise) may be used to derive the adverbs from typical *nouns* and «-wards» (homeward, downward).

Classification of Adverbs

Adverbs may be classified in two ways:

- Morphological structure
- Semantics or Meaning

Morphologically they may be:

- 1) simple (long, enough, then, there);
- 2) derivative (slowly, likewise, forward);
- 3) compound (anyhow, sometimes, nowhere);
- 4) composite (at once, at least)

This type of adverbs are ones which do nothing more than modify the word with which it is used.

Ex.: *We arrived yesterday. He speaks secondly.*

There are 2 more types of adverbs – conjunctive and circumstantial.

A conjunctive adverb is one which not only modifies some verb, adjective or other adverb in its clause, but connects the clauses (where, when, how, why). This type of adverb must be carefully distinguished from conjunctions. They do not modify any verb, adjective or adverb in the clause which they introduce.

Ex.: *Come, when you are ready*, (here «when» modifies the verb «are») *If I go, you can't come*, («if modifies «go»)

Circumstantial adverbs are not always connected with the verbs, but name certain circumstances. Unlike the other adverbs, they may occupy different positions in the sentence. They are mostly used in the function of adverbial modifier of time and place.

Ex.: See you *to-night*. I am going *down-town*.

They may be used as an attributes too.

Ex.: See the notes *above*. The room *upstairs* is vacant.

Semantically they may be classified as adverb of:

time: now, today, yesterday, when, soon, early.

place: here, there, where, off, etc.

manner: quickly, quietly, kindly, etc.

degree: very, much, enough, too, almost, little, less, more, most, somewhat.

In these examples adverbs give information about the time, place, manner in degree of the action.

cause: therefore, wherefore, why, otherwise

order: once, twice, secondly, next, last

affirmative: yes, etc.

negative: no, not, not at all

Time: He came *yesterday*.

Place: He came *here*.

Manner: He came *slowly*.

Degree: He came very *slowly*.

Cause: He *therefore* came.

Order: He came *once*.

Affirmation: *Yes*, he came.

Negation: *No*, he did *not* come.

Degrees of Comparison

By meaning and grammatical characteristics adverbs are divided into two groups: qualitative and relative. The first group is gradable – comparable, the second one is non-comparable.

Adverbs can have comparative and superlative forms to show degree.

Ex.: Walk *faster* if you want to keep up with me.

The student who reads *fastest* will finish first.

We often use *more* and *most*, *less* and *least* to show first degree with adverbs.

Ex.: She worked less confidently after her accident.

Most of the adverbs of *manner* and *degree* like adjectives have a grammatical *category of comparison*, though not all of them. They may be called *qualitative* adverbs.

These adverbs usually modify verbs and are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix «-ly».

Ex.: fast – faster – fastest; wisely – more wisely – most wisely.

Some adverbs are formed by suppletive way: well-better-best; much-better-best:

Some adverbs are never compared. They express qualities unsuitable for comparison. Some of them are: again, almost, before, ever/never, here, there, now, then, thus, too, twice, very.

Positions of Adverbs

One of the properties of adverbs is their *ability to move around* in a sentence. Adverbs of manner are flexible in this regard.

Solemnly the minister addressed her voters.

The minister *solemnly* addressed her voters.

The minister addressed her voters *solemnly*.

Quickly he finished his test exam.

He *quickly* finished his test exam.

He finished his test exam *quickly*.

The Verb – Adverb Constructions and their Status

The verb-adverb combination may denote, *firstly*, place: *in, out, on, of, over, up, through*, etc; *secondly*, they denote direction: *to go out, to go in, to go away*; *thirdly*, change the *aspect* of the verb: *to eat – to eat up; to stand – to stand up; to speak – to speak out*; *fourthly*, intensify the meaning of the process: *to end – to end up, to finish – to finish up (off), to cut – to cut of, to talk – to talk away*; *fifthly*, lose its lexical meaning and form an expression: *to fall out (to quarrel); to give in (to surrender); to leave off (to stop)*.

There is one problem connected with this part of speech. In literature we come across such types of words as «to get up», «to get on», «to give in», «to give out», «to get down», «to put off», «to get along», to look at, look for, look through, look after, and etc.

The *question* is whether the second element of these types of words belong to *preposition, adverb* or to some *other parts of speech*. Opinions differ: *one scholar* refers them to adverbs (Смирницкий, 1959, 376), *second* maintains that they may be

«half a word, half a morpheme», *third* calls them «post-positives» (Amosova, 1963, 35), *fourth* regards them as words «preposition like adverbs, or postfixes» (Zhluktenko, 1954). Prof. B.A.Ilyish considers them as «postposition» (1948, 243). But he later (1971, 148) changed his view and termed them as «phraseological units». M.Bloch calls the second element «a special particle» (1983, 125). Other grammarians name them «adverbial post position» (Anichkov, 1977). And one may say that this problem requires further research.

By way of conclusion we may say that many different words are called adverbs. One can usually recognize an adverb by its *function, form* and *position*.

- The main job (or function) of an adverb is to modify (give some information about) verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.
- Many adverbs end in *-ly*. Some adverbs have no particular form: well, fast, very, soon, never, always, often, still.
- Adverbs have three main positions in the sentences: *front* (before the subject), *middle* (between the subject and the notional verb), *end* (after the verb or object).

Thus, an adverb is a part of speech that describes or modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, clause or sentence.

- The easiest adverbs to recognize are those that end in *-ly*.
- An adverb can be placed anywhere in a sentence.
- The adverb mainly goes with the verb, just as the adjective goes with the noun.

Questions

- What is an adverb? Give examples for each criterion.
- Enumerate what of the adverbs describe or modify? Give examples.
- How are the adverbs classified? Point out their differences with examples.
- What difficulty would arise in conversation if there were no adverbs?
- How are the adverbs formed? What parts of speech are prone to adverb – endings? Give examples.

- Explain the difference between the qualitative and relative adverbs.
- Explain the problem connected with this part of speech.
- From what parts of speech are the adverbs derived? Give examples and state to which class each belongs.
- Show by examples that «after», «before» and «since» may be used as adverbs, as prepositions, as conjunctions.
- What positions do the adverbs occupy in the sentences?

The Statives in English

- History of formation
- Definition
- Morphological, syntactical, distributive properties of statives
- Different approaches to the notion of statives

Definition: In the Middle English period a certain class of words began to take shape which in Modern English developed into a separate part of speech called «statives».

Verbs as category of state appeared in New English period from the combination of preposition «on» (weakened to «a») and a «noun» as «a foot» (on + foot), alive (on + live) and etc. The part-of-speech interpretation of the statives in the system of English Morphology is not shared by all linguists working in this domain.

The concept of signifying words specifically used as predicates, were first identified as a separate word class by Russian scholars Л.В. Щерба (1974, 90-91) and В.В. Виноградов (1972, 30).

In English, the lexico-grammatical analysis of this type of «a + words» (alike, afraid, ahead, asleep, etc.) was first subjected and treated by prof. B.A. Ilyish and then other grammarians. The term «words of the category of state» was later changed into «stative words» or «statives».

This grammatical notion has found both its proponents and opponents. One of the vivid proponents of this concept is B. Khaimovich and B. Rogovskaya. Their supporting arguments

on the nature and status of these (about 200) words are the following:

- The statives *semantically* express the lexico-grammatical meaning of state (i.e. statives-adlinks denote states) (1967, 200), such as:

- a) psychic state of a person (afraid, ashamed, aware);
- b) physical state of a person (asleep, ahead, aloft, afoot, astir).
- c) Physical state of an object (aglow, afire, ablaze).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya assert that the meaning of «state» is merely special variety of the meaning of «property of typical adjectives».

Ex.: He is asleep. = He is in a state of sleep.

- *Morphologically* they have the productive prefix «a»: a + swim, a + shiver, a + shore, a + shame, a + like, a + afraid, a + live, a + sleep;

Statives do not possess the category of the degree of comparison as they do not permit endings as adjectives do (tall-taller-the tallest). Stative words do not use any inflections or word-building lexico-grammatical morphemes as other notional word classes do.

- *Syntactically* the stative verbs fulfill in sentence one function-*predicative*.

Ex.: He is *ashore*. The child was fast *asleep*. He felt *ashamed* of himself. The house was *astir*.

One may find some phrases in which statives are in the function of an *attribute*.

Ex.: His *aloof* attitude, an *aloof* manner.

- Due to their *distribution or combinability* stative words stand next to link verbs (be, fall, keep, feel) to be alive, to fall asleep; and adverbs: *painfully* alive. They may be modified by prepositional phrases (alike *with stars*).

There are 2 points of view on the nature of statives. One group of grammarians (L. Scherba, B. Khaimovich, B. Rogovskaya, and others) considers statives a separate word class or part of speech.

One of the opponents of the «re-consideration» of the lexemic status of English statives was L.S. Barkhudarov. His arguments on the concept were the following:

- Due to their *meaning* this class of words express «stative property» and position of state. Semantically it is the same «property» which is expressed by adjectives such as «quality of something» (psychic and physical states).

Cf.: the living predecessor — the predecessor *alive*; eager curiosity — curiosity *agog*; a half-open-door — a door *adjoin*; the burning house — the house *afire*; a vigilant man — a man *awake*; similar cases — cases *alike*; an excited crowd — a crowd *astir*.

- Due to their *morphological form* statives do not take the synthetical forms of the degrees of comparison as the adjectives take. Statives rarely may be expressed by analytically with the words «more» and «the most».

Ex.: More ashamed, the mostly ashamed.

- The *syntactical functions* of statives and adjectives are also almost same: the predicative and the attribute. But the predicative function of statives is predominant.

Ex.: She is good. This is a good fountain-pen. She is asleep.

- The number of *inventory* of stative words does not exceed several dozen in comparison to thousand of words-attributives.

Some grammarians think that this group of words may develop rapidly, because of their economic character. The below complete sentence «He has gone to the shore» may be replaced by the simple one: «He is ashore».

- Their stem or *word-building morphemes* are different. The statives take the prefix «a-», adjectives besides prefixes use other suffixes «-full», «-less», «-ive», «-able», «un-», «ir-», «pre-», etc.

The *combinability* of statives-adlinks is different from that of adjectives in that they are not used in the prepositional attributive function, i.e. are characterized by the absence of the right-hand combinability with nouns.

Ex.: The wounded would lie *awake* for hours. How lucky we are to be *alive*. He had been *afraid*. The above remark is *nice*.

Having analyzed the nature and functions of stative words prof. L.S.Barkhudarov, though identifier the existence and functions of stative words in the communication, the scholar puts the status of this class of words into question (*Inostrannyi yaziky v shkole*, 1958, 5, 111).

The problem is not on the identification of this group of words structural and functional peculiarities, but the reason of dispute is: whether the statives refer to adjectives (or subclass of adjectives) or special notional word class. L.S.Barkhudarov does not constitute the statives as the separate word class, but as a subclass of adjectives (1958, 5, 114).

Thus, the deep study of statives not only surface correlations, but inner properties and in the discovery of their historical productivity makes me follow the proponents of the concept and regard them as a *peculiar notional word class* in the morphological system of English.

For this case the would be teachers of English and philologists have to study the nature, meaning and use of the stative verbs, compare their behavior or function in comparison with adjectives. Their mother tongue grammar knowledge must be included for the correct understanding and acquisition the problem.

Questions

- Define the characteristics of the statives as a part of speech.
- Who was the first to mention on the existence of stative verbs in English?
- Illustrate the statives with a number of sentences.
- Who are the proponents and opponents of this grammatical notion?
- Interpret the adjectives of considering the statives as a special word-class.
- Point out the opponent's denying thesis on the status and usage of stative verbs.

The Function Words

The notion of Function words and their difference from notional ones on the definition and terminology.

Morphology is the study in which words are constructed. The study of morphology necessitates the discovery of form classes. These form classes will often correspond roughly to what are ordinarily called «parts of speech».

The parts of speech are divided into two groups: *notional* and *functional*. The problem of *functional words* in English has been a matter of discussion of older and newer linguistic periods.

H. Sweet in his «A New English Grammar» (1892, 22-24) wrote that «It's not always easy to draw a definite line between *full words* and *form words*: firstly, there is a terminological difference: one group of linguists call them «particles» (Espersen); second group names them «semi-notional words»; others prefer to use them in literature as «empty» or «tone words» (H.Whitehall); secondly, one scholar considers each function word as a separate part of speech (Espersen, 1935, 87-88), another one include 3,4 x 5 of them into a single part of speech, attempting to give a theoretical basis to the treatment of function words.

O.Espersen in his «Philosophy of Grammar» came to such conclusion: «In nearly all grammars adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections are treated as four distinct parts of speech. I propose these four classes as one called «particles» (1948, 11). H.Whitehall prefers to subdivide the function words into *two types*:

- *connecting words* (conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, etc.);
- *tone words* (articles, intensifiers, auxiliaries, etc.) (1951, 55).

Z. Harris added prepositions, conjunctions and relative pronouns (who, whom, whose, which) into a single part of called such classes of word as «function words».

We think that «form» words and «notional» words are not so distinct categories of parts of speech, but rather they form continuum. Certain classes of words can thus share features

with both notional words and form words (Maksumov, 2008, 245-48).

The *main differences* of function words from the notional parts of speech are the following:

- Notional words are associated with some thing, action, colour, quality, number, etc.

Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs supply the bulk of meaning in a sentence and belong to the lexical group. This group is called «open», because languages can freely add new words to the inventory of vocabulary. Function words do not have their own lexical meaning as the notional words have.

- *Notional words* always carry some emphasis and stress, while *form words* are generally unstressed. Therefore function words are *prone to contraction*. For example: the auxiliary «have» in «I've seen it», and «shall» in «We'll come late». Function words do not name the objects, features, actions and so on. They do not perform any nominative functions.

- *Function words'* grammatical function is only to connect words of the notional parts of speech in communication. They can not be used alone without the notional words and they are not the parts of the sentence.

Ex.: at the table, the handle of the door, throughout the country, with a pen.

- *Function words* do not perform any syntactic function as subject, object, attribute and adverbial modifier. Prepositions and conjunctions function of *linking* words in sentences. *Particles* give *modal* or *emotional emphasis* to various words using «even, only, also, etc.» The functions of articles are to *substantivize* (to make nouns) = «to play» – «the play» and distinguish the category of *definiteness* or *indefiniteness* in English.

- *Function words* do not have any morphological paradigms (inflexions) which form grammatical categories as the most of the notional parts of speech have.

- In such languages like English many grammatical functions are served by function words: small units that have some

independence, occurring with more freedom of position than affixes, but which have grammar-like meaning rather than concrete lexical content. Some function words in English are «the, an, if, although, etc.» They free the notional words from fulfilling the expression of grammatical features (Maksumov, 2008, 247).

- *Function words* can be thought as right in between roots and affixes. Prepositions (over, in, through) are sometimes classed as function words and sometimes as roots – because they are, again intermediate in form, they are free morphemes.

In terms of function, they have more concrete lexical content than most grammatical elements, but their meaning is still rather abstract and relational.

- *Function words* are words that have little lexical meaning, but instead serve to express grammatical relationship with other words within a sentence, or specify *the attitude* or mood of the speaker. Dictionaries define the specific meanings of content words, but can only describe the general usages of functional words. By contrast, grammars describe the use of function words in detail, but treat lexical words in general terms only.

- Due to their functions these grammatical words come close to the status of affixations, but in difference from them they can't form new words and parts of words.

- *Interjections* (or emotive words) are sometimes considered function words, but they belong to the group of open – class words.

- Most of the notional words have their morphological paradigms in certain grammatical categories. They are changed in communication. In this reason these notional words are called «changeable» in contrast to unchangeable «form words».

Ex.: I've *seen* him just now.

He went to the competition on Wednesday.

- Function words do not have their own word-formation affixes as notional parts of speech have. Ex.: *beautiful*, *writer*, *warmly*.

English form words, on the other hand, include *determiners*, such as, «the and a (an), that, my, much, more, either, neither»; *auxiliaries*, such as «can, must, may, will, would, should, have and be»; *conjunctions*, such as, «and, that, when, while» and «or» and *degrees of adverbs*, «such as, «very and too»; *particles*, such as, «no, not»; *prepositions*, such as, «of, at, in, without, between, for». These words carry little meaning and typically «help» another word.

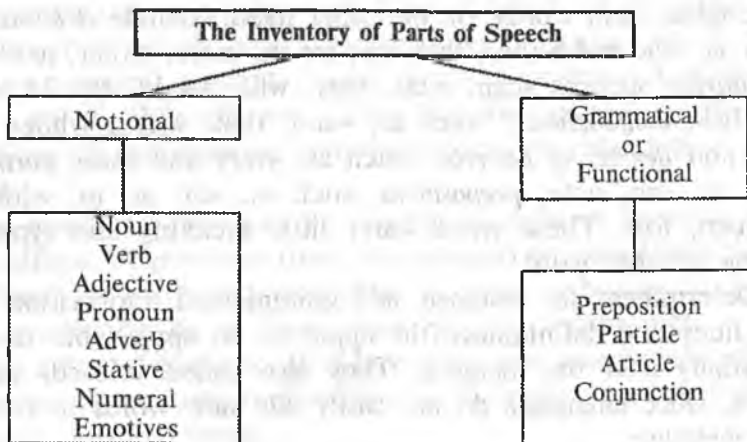
Determiners, for instance, add grammatical information and specificity and definiteness (the apple vs. an apple), but do not essentially alter the meaning. They also called «closed» group words, since languages do not easily add new words to the set of vocabulary.

Thus form words are closed /only 300 in English/, while notional words are open groups. Therefore new words (neologisms) in different parts of life are being added to every languages.

Form words add mainly grammatical information, which means that they are defined above all which by their syntactic behavior. Most traditional grammars assumed that the structure of sentences and phrases is determined mainly by notional words. Form words are regarded as mere additions to notional phrases.

- The number of functional parts of speech vary from one grammar to another. According to L.S.Barkhudarov and D.I.Shteling they are 6 (prepositions, conjunctions, modal words, interjections, articles, particles); Kaushanskaya and others suggest 4, which are prepositions, conjunctions, articles, particles; Khaimovich and Rogovskaya propose 7: prepositions, conjunctions, articles, particles, interjections, modal words, response words.

Thus analyzing the properties of both notional and functional words we may say that each form word expressing a grammatical function was soon regarded as a main structural building block of the sentence.



First, sentence structure could now be divided into three statuses:

- A *notional status* around the verb, which establishes semantic relation between the main sentence constituents;
- A *grammatical status* around the auxiliary, which establishes grammatical relations, such as – agreement (he is/I am/you are reporting).
- A *discourse status* around the form word «that», which links a subordinate clause to a main clause (he knows that this is right or she wanders whether this is right).

Second, languages exhibit great variation on the use of grammatical meaning: some express all grammatical meaning via independent function words and are called «analytic»; So-called «synthetic» languages, on the other hand, employ inflection and other markings on lexical words throughout.

One more property of words is their *duality function*. One and the same lexical word can function as either *notional* or *grammatical* depending on its behavior in an utterance.

Ex.: We *have* come to greet you. «Have» is as a grammatical word (tense auxiliary verb).

We *have* ten books for the group. «Have» is a notional word (main verb).

We have *no* money with us. «No» is a form word (a negative particle).

No. we are not leaving. «No» is a notional word (yes/no answer).

Grammatical words are words that lack the *nominative function*. They free content words from fulfilling the *expression of grammatical features*, but they serve to express grammatical relationships with other words within a sentence or specify the attitude or mood of the speaker (Maksumov, 2008, 247).

But for sensible speech both forms of words are needed. For this case we may mention the following utterance done by a scholar: «Function words are the blood and bone of language (English); content words are fillers which can fit into particular types of slits. We learn nearly all the function words of native language at a very early age; we shall keep on learning content words throughout our lives.» (Moulton, 1993).

Questions

- What words belong to function words? Point them out.
- Mention the terms which are used in linguistic literature on this type of words.
- Point out the opinions on the nature of this class of words.
- Explain the functions these classes of words fulfill in sentences.
- Point out the grammatical peculiarities of function words:
a) Prepositions; b) Articles;
c) Particles; d) Conjunctions;

The Prepositions and their Status in Morphology

- Peculiarities of prepositions.
- Classification of prepositions.
- Functions of prepositions in sentence.

Definition: The term comes from Latin «pre» meaning «before» and «positus» meaning «placed». Etymologically it is a word that joins nouns to other words in a sentence, to show certain relations that exist between them.

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

- Due to the *semantics* (or meaning) a preposition is a word used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence. When we say, «The dog ran round the house», or «through the house», or «under the house», or «behind the house», the words «round, through, under, behind» show the relation of the house to the running, of «house» to «ran».

Noun or pronoun dependent on the preposition is in the objective case, and is therefore called the object of the preposition.

The *preposition* is so-called from the fact that it is usually placed before its object; but it sometimes follows the object.

Ex.: All the world over. What are you looking *for*?

- It has left-hand combinability with nouns and right-hand combinability with almost every part of speech. Prepositions precede the nouns, but, follow other parts of speech (Khaimovich-Rogovskaya, 268).

Ex.: A little girl is painting *with* a pencil. As *to* me, I am out.

- *Morphologically* they do not use any grammatical inflexions and naturally grammatical categories. They are invariable.

- *Syntactically* prepositions function of a linking word. Prepositions express two kinds of relations or functions – *adjectival* and *adverbial*.

Illustration	}	Adjectival	A piece <i>of</i> cheese. The house <i>of</i> my aunt. A man <i>of</i> high rank. A person <i>of</i> great health. Man <i>of</i> the match. She is fond <i>of</i> playing music.
		Adverbial	The ship sailed <i>after</i> the storm. They came <i>to</i> dinner. The horse goes <i>before</i> the carriage. The horse ran <i>in</i> the carriage.

- The relation is *adjectival* when the sentence formed by the preposition and its object is used like an adjective as, «He's fond

of music». «Of» denotes the relation of the attribute «fond» to «music».

The relation is *adverbial* when the words are used without nouns or pronouns to modify the meaning of a verb or an adjective, as «The ship sailed after the storm».

«The sun came up», «up» is an adverb (or when the preposition is joined to a verb and is not followed by a noun or a pronoun).

a) «He runs *about*», «He goes *in*». «The kettle boiled *over*». «The lazy boy lagged behind». «Did you ever see him *before*?»;

b) the same preposition may express different relations or grammatical functions;

Ex.: The horse in the carriage is fat (adjective).

The horse ran in the carriage (adverb).

Some of the prepositions are homonymous with other parts of speech:

As *conjunctions* (before, since...) Ex.: It was almost a year before he began to see her again.

As *postpositives* (in, on, at, for, up, etc.) Ex.: It's time to get up for you.

According to their structure prepositions are divided into:

1) simple (in, at, of, off, by, with, for)

2) derivative (below, beside, along)

3) compound (inside, within, into, throughout)

4) composite (instead of, in accordance with, owing to, in front of)

We can enumerate the types of preposition and in this case they look like an abstraction. They can have their status «relation» when they are in connection with a noun or an adjective.

Ex.: I saw them standing at the window.

Bring me the book under the bag.

At 6 o'clock you must be here.

Not in vain prepositions are termed as «semi-notional words.»

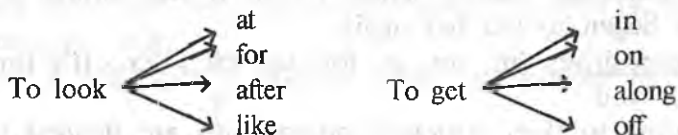
However, not all scholars admit the existence of composite prepositions. Dueto B.A.Ilysh «preposition is a word, not word group, (as at «the cost of», «by means of», «ahead of», «with

the reference to», etc.) and it is essential to keep up the distinction between words and word groups». (1971, 89).

Classification

According to their *meaning* prepositions may be classified as «*general*», which can be used almost with any noun (in, at, on, by, etc). They may be called as «*special*», which may be used only with certain semantic groups of words. They are divided into «*temporal*» (prepositions denoting time / before, after, during, since, till /); «*local*» prepositions denoting place – across, along, in front of, behind; «*casual*» prepositions – because, due to, owing to.

We should mention one more function of prepositions. There are a number of prepositions which are used with verbs to make combinations. They are homonymous with postpositions.



- Thus, prepositions as well as postposition do not perform any independent function in the sentence. A preposition denotes the relation between objects and phenomena, a postposition is part of a composite verb.
- One should remember that a preposition is *not* usually *stressed*, while a postposition is usually pronounced with an accent.

Ex.: Whom are you looking for?

Your status in a society depends on your ability and behaviour.

Your duty is to look after the ill man.

One may say that prepositions show the relation of one notion to another, and do their job to formulate sensible communication. (Maksumov, 2008, 245-47).

By way of conclusion a preposition may join (or show the relation between):

- Two nouns (or pronouns), as I saw the *horse* in the garden.
- A verb and a noun adverbially, as Thomas *fought* in the battle.
- An adjective and a noun (or pronoun) adverbially, as He is *ready* for work.

Questions

- Define the semantical morphological and syntactical properties of the prepositions.
- Classify the prepositions.
- What is the problem of preposition?

Particles and their Status in Morphology

- Peculiarities of Particles
- Functions of Particles
- Function of Particles in sentences

Definition: The particle is also a function word. It is a catchall term for a heterogeneous set of elements and lacks a precise universal definition. The particle as a part of speech is characterized by the following features:

- Due to *semantics* particles have a set of nature: the *first* of this is giving modal and emotional emphasis or prominence to other words, phrases or sentences.

Ex.: The skirt you have chosen, *just below* my knees.

They *even* offered her higher wages, but she refused.

We had *yet* another discussion.

The particles «even, yet, still, just» intensify the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs.

The *second* is the *singling* out the word or phrase they refer to or limit the idea of expression by them.

Ex.: I *only* wanted to ask you the time. Man cannot live on bread *alone*. Time *alone* will show who was right. She is still but a child, she wants to play. He had *barely* arrived when he had to live.

- *Morphologically* particles have no paradigms and grammatical categories. They are invariable in nature, no form, i.e. they do not change.

- *Syntactically* particles have no independent function in the sentence as the notional words. Their function consists of defining the grammatical meaning in sentences rather than the lexical meaning. They neither adopt endings, nor change their vowels and consonants. In simple sentences they specify various words and combinations by intensifying their meaning (even), by singling them out (only, just, but, also, merely), by showing that something similar was already mentioned (also) and negation (not, never) (Kaushanskaya, 1973, 219-220).

Illustrations { (singling out the word or phrase or sentence)
 Time *alone* will show who is who.
 Man cannot live on bread *alone*.
 (emotional emphasis to words, phrases or sentences)
 When she phoned we had not *yet* finished the discussion.

Ex.: No, he was *not* afraid of that. *Not* a word was said about it. *Not* saying anything was a bad idea. *Not* everyone like this book.

- As to its *combinability* particles may combine with any part of speech.

Ex.: I should *just* think so. Isn't that *just* beautiful? They live *just* round the corner. I said *just* I thought.

Particles generally *stand before* the word they refer to, but they may *also follow it*.

Ex.: This manual is for advanced students *only*.

One more *property* of particle is its *additivity*. The word «else» combines only with indefinite, interrogative pronouns and interrogative adverbs: something else, nobody else, what else, who else, where else (Kobrina et al, 1985, 286).

- The next *property* of particles is the «connectiveness» (too, also), which may function as conjunction.

Ex.: I went there *too*. Won't you come *too*?

Note: Some of the particles are polysemantic, for instance: «just, only».

Ex.: That is *just* his way of talking (limiting particle).

Why, I think, that's a terrible price to ask for it, just awful (intensifying particle).

Its worth mentioning that all the particles are homogenous with other parts of speech, chiefly, with adverbs (simply), but also conjunctions (but), pronouns (all), adjectives (only, even), statives (alone).

Ex.: She is *too* old to study (adv.)

He's *just* the man I'm looking for (particle).

We have *just* arrived (adv.)

Though particles refer to the secondary word classes, without their usage it is hardly possible to express *ones emotion, feelings and ideas* in different types of communication:

Ex.: I *only* wanted to make you laugh. They did not *even* know that he was married. She *also* takes off her hat and overcoat.

Questions

- What is a particle?
- Define the semantical and syntactical properties of the particle.
- Why are the particles used in grammar? Give your explanations.

The Articles and their Status in Morphology

- Classification of articles
- Functions of articles in sentences

Definition: Linguistics describes and explains features of language and grammar without the subjective judgments on whether a particular feature is «right» or «wrong». English grammar as «repertoire» of means with the help of which the relations between the independent objects, the ideas are expressed, and as well as the «new words» are formed.

The notion of *article* refers to the «repertoire» class of grammatical means. The article comes from the Latin «articulus» – meaning «joined». Articles are traditionally considered as types of adjectives, but some grammarians placed them in the class of determiners, as a separate part of speech. This separate classiness is characterized by the following features:

- *Semantically* the article can be viewed as a *significator* or *indicator*, i.e. a linguistic unit representing some conceptual content without naming it. There are three types of them:

«A» is an indefinite article (a book, a dog). It is indefinite because it is not referring to a single thing or animal, as it could be many.

The *definite article* typically arises from demonstratives meaning «that». The English definite article «*the*», written «*þe*» in Middle English, derives from Old English demonstrative, which, according to gender, was written «*se*» (masculine), «*seo*» (feminine), or «*þat*» (neuter) (McArthur, 1992, 72-76).

«*The*» is a definite article as it tells us that it was that single object and therefore definite. The definite article is used to refer a specific instance of a noun, often already mentioned in the context or easy to identify.

Ex: *The* black horse looks pretty.

Definite articles are slightly different from demonstratives which often indicate the location of the nouns with respect to the speaker or audience. (Maksumov, 2012, 181).

The articles for foreign learners often course stumbling blocks for those whose first language is synthetic, agglutinative and not analytic.

- *Morphologically* articles are not changed to form inflections or grammatical categories. They are invariable.

- Due to their *combinability* articles stand next to nouns, adjectives and adverbs. They never combine with verbs and pronouns.

- *Syntactically* articles specify only nouns and in this case *resemble attributes*. In most European languages there are rules about when to use (or not to use) indefinite and definite articles. These rules generally depend on the nature of nouns (countable/uncountable) and on whether it is singular or plural. Also in English word order, articles precede any adjectives that modify the applicable noun.

But in some cases no article is used at all in English. The non-use of article is also important that grammarians give it a name, the *zero* article.

The pedagogical objectives in acquiring the notion of article and its usage as definite, indefinite and zero properties are:

- The cognition of the basic principles of their functioning develop the necessary communicative skills through repetition in different situation and language context. It retains a pronominal (reference) force in almost all of its modern uses or functions.

- One of the functions of article is the *determination*. English as an analytic language is famous for the use of articles as a separate part of speech.

Ex.: He *is* the person I spoke to you.

He *is the* person who helped me to cross *the* street.

The sun. *The* Pacific. Give me *the* change.

- The *second* function of this form word is a «*Theme*» and «*Rheme*» marker. We know that the «*theme*» is the information already known and the «*rheme*» is the semantic point of the utterance, the new idea or information that is being introduced.

Ex.: A *man* entered the hall.

The man entered the hall.

Traditionally the grammatical subject coincides with the «*theme*» and the grammatical predicate is the «*rheme*» of the sentence (or an utterance).

In Russian the final position of the word in the sentence is «*rhematic*» and the initial position is «*thematic*».

Ex.: V komnatu *voshyol* chelovek.

Chelovek *voshyol* v komnatu.

In English the same function is performed by the indefinite and the definite articles correspondingly. In other words English *definite article* is mostly used to refer to an object or person that has been previously introduced, by contrast, the *indefinite article* is used in situations where a new subject is being introduced,

and the speaker assumes that the learner is not yet familiar with the subject.

Ex.: There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.

The *third* function of article is to *substantivize*, i.e. make the words to become nouns by the use of «*the*».

Ex. In English: to play – the play; to show – the show;

In German: schreiben – the schreiben;

In French: diner – le diner, super – le super;

Prof. B.A. Ilyish mentions of the two distinct meanings of the definite article in sentences.

- It means that *the* as object is singled out from all objects of the same class;

- It means that *the* whole class of objects as distinct from other classes, is referred to.

Due to the second view the definite article has one meaning only, viz, that of something *singled out* from other entities.

But whether the essence thus singled out is a separate object or a whole class depends not on the article at all, but on the other elements in the sentence usually on the predicate (1971, 55).

Ex.: The mocking-bird is sometimes called the American nightingale.

Indefinite article:

The indefinite articles typically arise from adjectives meaning «one». The indefinite «an» is derived from the same root «as one». The «-n» came to be dropped before consonants, giving rise to the shortened form «a».

It serves to denote as individual objects without reference to its individual peculiarities:

- Any object of a given class (Ilyish, 1971, 56).
- Distinguish the number of things, persons, animals, birds or insects.

Ex.: Give me a book to read.

The picture books they have bought are worth reading.

Determination or Singling out

- Look man! He is the boy who helped me to bring the heavy suitcase.

Definiteness and Indefiniteness

- Nelly, give a book to read.
- Mike, the picture-book you are holding costs very much.

Theme and Rheme

- Where did you sell your toys?
- I sold them at Sergely market.

Substantivization

- Robin Hood helped the weak, took from the rich and gave to the poor.

Prof. B.A. Ilyish goes on, pointing to learners, what relation the absence of article stands to the meanings of the definite and the indefinite articles.

The absence of the article with a noun in the plural corresponds to the indefinite article with the noun in the singular (p. 59).

The absence of the article with a noun in the plural is the only possibility in sentences expressing general statements, such as *Dogs are domestic animals* (p. 60).

Note I. The indefinite article is used idiomatically with *few*, *great many*, *hundreds*, etc. to form an adjective phrase limiting nouns in the plural: *A few days*. *A great many words*. *A hundred times*.

Note II. The «a» in «asleep», «afishing», «aboard» is not the article, but a reduced form of the preposition «on» (see Stative verbs).

Basic Uses of the Zero Article

- Before the three types of nouns:
 - a) Plural countable nouns, e.g. *beans*.
 - b) Uncountable nouns, (always singular) e.g. *water*, *gas*, *milk*.
 - c) Proper nouns, e.g. *John*, *Anne*.
- Zero article + plural countable nouns (People – Women; Places – Museums; Food – Beans; Occupations – Doctors;

Nationalities – Uzbeks, Russians; Animals; Insects; Plants; Products)

- Zero article + uncountable nouns (always singular)

Food – Sugar; Drink – Water; Collections – Money; Colours – Red, Sports, Games – Football, Tennis; Abstract – Life, Art; Politics – Socialism, Capitalism; Languages – English, Russian, Uzbek.

- Zero article + names of titles

Mr., Mrs., Miss, Dr. (Full stops may be used optionally after the abbreviations Mr. Mrs. and Dr.)

- Zero article for days, month, seasons and holidays.

Ex.: Spring is a lovely season. Monday is always a difficult day.

- Zero article for academic subjects.

Physics, mathematics, geography, linguistics, English.

- Zero article for meals.

Breakfast, lunch, tea, dinner, supper.

Ex.: Dinner is served. Enter the hall (Alexander, 1998, 68).

In grammatical manuals the linguistic status of the article is still *a problem*. The question is whether the article is a separate part of speech (a word) or a *word morpheme*. One opinion is the article is a word (Ilysh, 1971, 57), second regards the article as a special type of grammatical auxiliary (Bloch, 85). Grammarians are only agreed on the function of the article that it is a *determiner*, or a *restrictor*. The second question refers to the number of articles in as part of speech, whether the English grammar has two articles – «the» and «a/an» or we shall have three articles – the, a/an, and zero. There is *no unity* of opinions.

- Zero article for transport.

By air, by bicycle, by boat, by buss, by coach, by lend, by sea, by ship, by train, on foot.

- Zero article for fixed phrases.

Arm in arm, come to light, face to face, hand in hand, keep in mind, make friends.

- Zero article after «what» and «which» what means do they use (Alexander, 1998, 65-69).

Articles appears not in all the languages. They do not express relation between the parts of sentences, does not fulfill syntactic function as notional parts of speech.

The learners of English language must develop the necessary comparative skills through repetition in different situations and language context.

Questions

- What is an article? How many articles are there in English?
- Explain the areas of usage of definite, indefinite and zero articles.
- Why do the English people use the articles? Give your answers.

Conjunctions and their Status in Morphology

- Definition
- Classification of conjunctions
- Functions of conjunctions

Definition:

The term comes from Latin «con», meaning «together», and «jungo», meaning «I join».

Conjunctions, as well as prepositions and particles, is a part of speech which are discriminated on the basis of the following criteria: semantic, combinability (or distribution) and functional.

There are lots of definitions of conjunctions. Due to its *semantics* (or meaning) a conjunction is a word used to join words or sentences together (Latin «con» – «together», «jungo» – «I join»).

In the dictionaries and encyclopedias one may find the following explanations:

- the words that connect sentences, clauses, phrases or words, and sometimes paragraphs;
- an uninflected linguistic form that joins together sentences, clauses, phrases or words;
- a part of speech denotes connections between objects and phenomena. It connects parts of the sentence, clauses and sentences.

Thus, due to their mentioned criteria conjunctions are characterized by the following features:

1) its lexico-grammatical meaning is the relations between the objects, actions, properties, situations;

2) as to its combinability a conjunction connects two units words as parts of sentences and clauses;

3) its function of a linking word (Khaimovich & Rogovskaya, 1967).

This grammatical word class as well as prepositions lack any grammatical inflections (or grammatical categories), which attached to words and where stem-building affixes. Conjunctions or connective words, which have neither a pronominal nor an adverbial signification. Conjunctions are so called because they join words and sentences together.

Classification

According to their *morphologic* (stem or root) *structure* conjuncons are divided into the following groups:

a) simple (and, or, but, till, after, so, where, when, etc). Some of them are homonyms with prepositions, adverbs and pronouns.

b) derivative (until, unless, etc)

c) compound (however, whereas, wherever, etc.)

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

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

As to the function they fall under two classes: *coordinating* and *subordinating*.

Illustrations

Co-ordinate: Jane plays *and* she sings.

Jane *either* plays *or* sings

Subordinate: Jane plays *because* she is learning music.

Jane plays *for* she loves music.

Coordinating conjunctions (Jane plays *and* she sings). In this case there are two distinct sentences which are independent of each other, that's neither sentence is dependent on the other. In other words it joins coordinate clauses in a compound sentence. The function of the conjunction is therefore called «co-ordinate».

Subordinating conjunctions (Jane plays because she is learning) in the second case there are likewise two distinct sentences, but they are not independent of each other; rather the second sentence depends on the first, it shows why «Jane plays». The joining word «because» which couples the depended clause with the principle clause. This function of the conjunction is known as «sub-ordinate».

The meaning of the conjunctions is closely connected with the relations they express. According to their meaning the clauses of co-coordinating conjunctions correspond to different types of compound sentences (Kaushanskaya, et al, 1973, 213):

- Copulative conjunctions – and, nor, as well as, both...and, not only...but, neither...nor – denote that one statement or fact is simply added to another/or link together: Ex.: Mike *and* Jane were friends;

- Alternative conjunctions – or, either...or, or else – imply a choice between two statements or offer between the statement and another;

Ex.: *Either* he is mad *or* he is affected.

- Adversative conjunctions – but, while, whereas – disconnect the meaning of words and clauses they link/or show the contrast of one statement against another; Ex.: Harold fought in Hastings, *but* he was killed.

- Causative conjunctions – so, for – link together two sentences. One of which is the ground or reason and the other is the result of the cause; Ex.: Jane plays, *for* she likes music.

In linguistics conjunctions belong to a closed word class. A word class to which no new items can normally be added. The closed class may get through the usual means such as compounding, derivation, coining, borrowing, etc., but the change takes

much more time. The closed class is normally viewed as part of the core language.

Thus English conjunctions are often used by all people both in oral and written form. They serve for better understanding and expressing thoughts, feelings and emotions. Conjunctions show the relation of one thought to another. Hence conjunctions for the most part join one sentence to another.

Questions

- Give the definitions of the term «conjunction».
- Classify conjunctions.
- Illustrate the function of conjunctions in sentences.

Emotive Words in Morphology

- Definition
- Classification
- Opinions on the nature and usage of emotives in sentences

Definition: The word «Interjection» literally means «thrown in between» from the Latin «inter» (between) and «iacere» (throw). They are included in a sentence usually at the start to express a sentiment, such as surprise, disgust, joy, excitement, or enthusiasm.

In literature such form of «*Emotive Words*»¹ has been a matter of discussion. The question is whether they are words of sense of a definite language as the parts of speech or whether they are just outcries of feelings of joy, pain, surprise, (Ilyish, 1971). Due to O. Espersen «An interjection is a word or sound thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind» (1935, 59-60).

The notion of interjection is also included into the morphology. As a part of speech it is characterized by the following properties:

- *Semantically* it expresses sense, emotion of the mind or will without naming them.

¹ I prefer to use label «Emotive» or «Emotive words» instead of the term «Interjection», because the nature of the words denote certain feeling of a human being.

These words express different kinds of feelings, such as, joy (Hurrah!); grief, sorrow (alas, dear me, oh, dear); approval (bravo, hear); contempt (poor, peh, bah, fle); triumph (aha); impatience (bother); anger (damn); surprise or annoyance (goodness, gracious, my God). Some emotives are used merely to attract attention (Hello, Hallo, hi, hey, here) (Kobrina et al, 1985, 287).

Illustrations

Emotional emphasis of the mind and body

Hurrah! Ah! Phew! Oh! Um!

Imperative sense of the mind

Shh! Po! Come! Go! Stop!

• *Morphologically* emotive words have no morpheme form or ending of their own, which is attached to the root. They are generally uninflected function word.

• *Syntactically* emotives function as a sentence-word or as parenthetical element. In other words emotives do not enter into the construction of sentences.

Semantically emotive words are usually divided into two groups:

- emotional (Oh! Ah! O! Ugh! Phow! Well!)
- imperative (Hash! Come!) (Kaushanskaya, 1959, 207).

According to their syntactical force emotives are of two kinds:

- Simple (Oh! O! Ah! Aha! Ha! Alas! Hello! Come! Dear).
- Derivative (goodness, Hurrah)
- Compound (fiddlestick)
- Composite (Hang it! Dear me!)

In written language emotive words are usually followed by what is called a mark of admiration (!).

Conventions like «Hello», «Bye», and «Goodbye» are interjections as are exclamations like «cheers» and «Hurrah». In fact is like a noun or pronoun, very often they are characterized by exclamation marks depending on the stress of the attitude or the force of the emotion they are expressing. (Maksumov, 2008, 246).

An emotive word or exclamation describes a noun without a grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence and simply expresses emotion on the part of the speaker, although most interjections have clear definitions.

There are certain opinions on the nature of emotives. *One opinion* is that such words form a peculiar type of the sentence like that of the response words «yes» and «no». But differing from it in the distinct emotional, colouring (Смирницкий, 1957, 392).

Second opinion supposes them as uninflected function words, but they belong to the group of open-class words. Emotive words sometimes called «filled pauses», such as, «Uh», «Er», «Um». Emotives have sometimes been seen as *sentence-words*, because they can replace or be replaced by whole sentence. In certain books they are classed as well as sentence connectors – *particles*.

Some linguists consider the pro-sentences «yes», «no», «amen» and «o'key» as interjections, since they have no syntactical connection with the words and rather work as *sentences* themselves.

There are voices that such expressions «Excuse me», «Sorry», and similar ones often serve as emotives. So emotive words can be phrases or even sentences, as well as words such as «Oh!», or «Wow» («Ow»).

Several English emotive words contain sounds that do not, or very rarely, exist in regular phonological inventory: «Shh» («quit»), «Ps» [pss:] («quite» or «here»), also spelled «Psst» are consonant syllable words, as well as «Ugh» (disgusting), «Whew» or «Phew» [fu:] (what a relief), «Yah» or «Ah» (there is nothing to do) and «Yeah» (yes).

Emotives are used in the following sentences.

Ex.: Hello, is that you? Oh, what a pity? Hurrah! Our boys have won the match. Bah! These apples are sour. Aha! I have caught you. Hey! Bob, wait for me. Over the river and through the wood, Oh! How the wind does blow!

We may conclude that emotives is an unusual kind of word, because it often stands alone. They are words which express emotion or surprise because of the different reasons. The sources of such emotion are associated with mood, temperaments, personality. They are the result of love, anger, pain, hunger, curiosity, change of situations, the suffer as a fan for sport games, success and so on.

The list of emotive words is probably never ending as it belongs to the open-class word category and is subject to new creations at all times.

The emotive word forms no essential part of a sentence. It is simply thrown into it as an exclamation of the above mentioned feelings.

Questions

- Define emotive words from the semantic point of view.
- What are the functions of emotives in literature?
- What groups are the emotives included in? Point them out.
- Are the emotives a part of speech or a sentence? Give your explanation.
- What emotive words are there in your mother tongue?

SUMMARY

The term «Grammar» refers to the whole structure of the language including the names of its parts and rules. They are the morphology and syntax.

Morphology is the science of the lexico-grammatical classes of words, grammatical meanings, grammatical forms of words and grammatical categories, just as syntax is the study of architecture of sentences, in which words are put together in sentences.

English grammar is a unity of rules specifying how word forms, phrases and sentences are constructed in the English language. It has to deal with two jobs: the *descriptivist*, which describes the grammatical system of English and the *prescriptivist*, which does not describe English Grammar, but rather sets out a small list of social regulations that attempt to govern the linguistic behavior of native speakers.

This part of grammar also concerns itself with the certain, open disputes in English grammar, i.e. the changes in the usage over time.

Some of the general observations on the structure of words in English are;

- Words are made up of meaningful units (morphemes);
- Some morphemes have meaning in and of themselves (lexical morphemes);

Boy, men, while others specify the relationship between one lexical morpheme and another bound morphemes (grammatical).

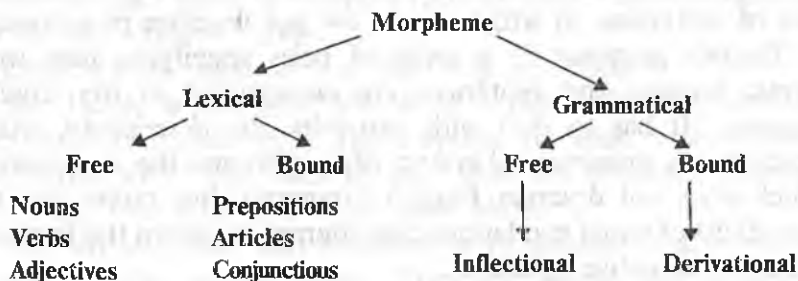
- Some morphemes, called «free morphemes», can stand alone as words, while others are called «bound morphemes», cannot.
- Bound morphemes can be divided into two ways: inflectional and derivational.

All of these phenomena are essentially morphological in nature. They have to deal with the internal structure of words. These observations are governed by a system of rules:

Firstly, morphemes are distinct from semantic features, in that morphemes more or less constant form, which is usually reflected by their spelling;

Secondly, it is important to mention that identical spellings do not necessarily indicate identical morphemes. One type of morpheme performs an action, the second type denotes case or person, the third type performs plurality or non-finite forms of verbs, the fourth type indicates degree of comparison.

A summary of these phenomena is presented schematically in the following way:



Lexical morphemes have a sense in and of themselves. *Grammatical* morphemes, on the other hand, don't really have a meaning (or sense) in and of themselves. They express some sort of relationship between morphemes.

The Philosophy of English Morphology

The short overview of morphology is: the *central matter* of morphology is the *concept of morpheme*, as well as the distinction between lexical and grammatical morphemes, bound and free morphemes and inflectional (zero, empty, discontinues and derivational categories and new words.)

The *second important matter* of morphology is the *classification principles* of defining words into «parts of speech». This notion goes back to Greek scholar Plato, who first mentioned the «word classes». Noun, verb and sentences, using the Greek terms «*nomos*, *rhema* and *logos*, respectively».

Still there are voices in special literature on the traditional notions of parts of speech and on how the traditional account is somewhat misleading as well as inaccurate. As a result modern grammarians try to create new categories for certain parts of speech. Different manuals make conflicting statements on articles, prepositions, certain pronouns and so on (i.e. the notion of determiners, aspect, order).

Grammatical meanings, expressed by the system of forms constitute the grammatical category of the parts of speech.

Nowadays these categories are subdivided into notional and functional. In linguistic literature there are still certain concepts on the number of part of speech and their morphological properties, categories and functions the would be teacher of English ought to acquire and applicate in the pedagogy of grammar.

A short resume of the part of speech shows that according to the five criteria suggested by grammarians — «meaning, morphological features, syntactical functions, combinability and word-building morphemes», words fall under certain classes called «parts of speech»: nouns, pronouns, numerals, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, statives, articles, prepositions conjunctions, particles, emotives and etc.

These parts of speech are divided into «notional» and «functional» ones. According to one of the criteria or *semantic* classification of words, that is to say meaning;

A *noun*, notionally, is the name of anything: as «the boy, London, square, flower, river, goodness». It also describes persons, places, things or ideas.

A *pronoun* is a word which have double nature: firstly, it functions its peculiar meaning – *indication*; *secondly*, used for instead of noun: 1) (I, she, he, you, her, us, they, it); 2) an adjectives (my, his, her, our, this); 3) a numeral (all, every); 4) an adverb (somebody, anybody, something, everybody, etc).

A *verb* is a telling or *doing* word, and is used to make some assertion about the thing, the person, etc. They are used with a noun and pronoun: as «William dances: It is there; Henry was pleased: She has just come in».

An *adjective* is a word added to a noun to *qualify*, *distinguish* or to express the order, number, quantity: as «strong, this, four, many, etc».

They are attributes to the noun in a sentence.

Adjective noun verb adverb

Ex.: Fierce dogs bark loudly.

An *adverb* *modifies* the meaning of a verb, adjectives or another adverb; as «sweetly, very, rather». They may function as an attribute to the verb.

A *stative* is a word denoting the *temporary* state or condition of persons or things: as «afraid, asleep, awake, alone, ashamed».

Ex.: He came fully awake.

I saw Kate enter the bathroom half asleep.

A *preposition* is a word that *joins* the noun (or pronoun) to other words in a sentence.

A *conjunction* is a word that joins words and clauses together: as «and, but, etc.»

A *particle* gives modal and *emotional* emphasis to word or group of words: as «only, just, simply, even, never».

An *article* is a word that shows *definiteness* or *indefiniteness* of noun: «the, a, an», *theme* or *rheme*, and make some words to become nouns.

Ex.: The pen you are holding is Kate's.

An *emotive* expresses a *sudden emotion* of the mind: as «Oh, O, Ah, Hurrah», etc.

Semantical Values

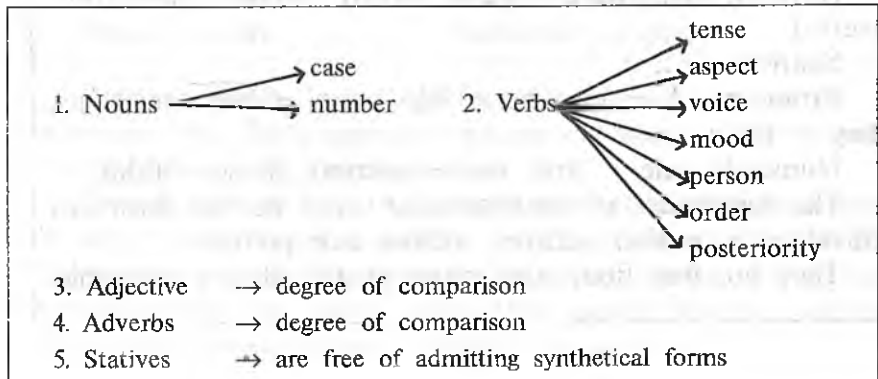
I. The parts of speech are thus semantically may be grouped as:

1. Nouns	<i>Naming</i>	Numerals	Verbs	Pronouns
2. Pronouns	<i>Indicating</i>	Numerals		
3. Adjectives	<i>Modifying</i>	Adverbs	Articles	Pronouns
4. Conjunctions	<i>Joining</i>	Prepositions		
5. Emotives	<i>Emotive</i>	Particles	Modals	
6. Statives	<i>Physical</i>	or	<i>Physiological</i>	
		State		

Morphological Values

II. The parts of Speech are thus morphologically form categories

Notionals are inflected by their word forms for the following grammatical categories:



Functionals are invariable i.e. they do not admit any word forms to their stem.

Conjunctions	}	They are invariable. Their job is only link the words, objects, actions and situations for the composition of sentences.
Prepositions		
Particles		
Articles		

Their presence is also obligatory for sensible types of sentences.

Word (or Stem)-building Values

The parts of speech that admit the following word-formation forms

Notionals: each notional part of speech has its own lexicogrammatical morphemes for word formation.

Nouns: -er; or; -dom; -ship, -ment; -ist, -hood, -tion/sion.

Verbs: *outer* (-ige, -en, -ify; re-, un-, over-, mis-, ir-, el-, out-) and inner root changes.

Adjectives: -ous, -able, -ish, -full, -less.

Adverbs: -ly, -word, -ways, -where (some-, any-, no-, every-).

Statives: a+...

Pronouns: I - me, he - him, she - her, we - us, they - them.

Numerals: one - first, two - second, three - third.

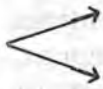


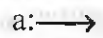



The *functionals* are invariable, i.e. they do not form any affixation - neither suffixes, infixes, nor prefixes.

They are free from such property and always invariable.

Syntactic Values

According to their Syntactical properties the parts of speech (or word classes) perform different functions.

Notionals

1. Nouns as a:  Subject, Attribute, Object,
Predicative, Adverbial Modifier
2. Verb as a:  Predicate
3. Adjective as a:  Attribute
Predicative
Subject, Object
4. Pronouns as a:  Attribute, Predicative
5. Adverb as an:  Adverbial Modifier
6. Statives as a:  Predicative
Attributive
Subject, Attribute
7. Numerals as a:  Predicative

Functionals

1. Conjunctions as a: — joining property
2. Prepositions as a: — linking property
3. Particles as an: — emotional emphasis
- Articles as an: — attributive property

Function words do not perform any syntactic function as notional words. They only serve to connect words of the notional parts of speech in communication.

The prepositions and conjunctions denote the relations between the objects, actions and situations. They perform as linking words. The particles add emphasis to the words or clauses of sentences. Articles modify the nouns, show their definiteness or indefiniteness, and theme-rheme functions (see Article).

Distributive Values

The parts of speech distributively combine with the following ones:

Notionals

1. Nouns stand next to: — verbs, numerals, adjectives, articles.
2. Verbs stand next to: — nouns, pronouns, adverbs, articles, modals.
3. Adjectives stand next to: — nouns, adjectives, adverbs.
4. Adverbs stand next to: — verbs, adjectives, adverbs, statives.
5. Pronouns stand next to: — verbs, numerals.
6. Statives stand next to: — link verbs, prepositional phrases.
7. Numerals stand next to: — verbs, adjectives, prepositions, articles, conjunctions.

Functionals

1. Conjunctions stand next to: verbs, pronouns, nouns, prepositions, joins words, phrases, sentences.
2. Prepositions are placed before or after the object and denote relations between objects and phenomena, i.e. verbs, nouns, pronouns, numerals.
3. Particles may combine with any parts of speech: intensify various words, singles, the words out in the sentence.
4. Articles stand next to: nouns, adjectives, adverbs.

The question of how well we are aware of morphological units, i.e. — morph, morphemes, allomorphs, morphological categories, the behavior of grammatical words and how the words can (or can not) be combined in sentences is an important part of grammar.

The concept of pedagogical grammar refers that the learner must be able to be aware of three main dimensions of grammatical structure: *form*, *meaning* and *use*. Often well-intentioned books

and teachers attempt to simplify or broaden, and complicate the nature and usage, even theorize grammatical notions, but in so doing, ultimately make the students more confused and importantly, perpetuate «grammar anxiety».

So the would be teachers of English come away with the same awareness of a descriptive approach to grammar, but if then they are faced in the books of the auditorium with a set of new standards or hypothesis of syntactical and morphological phenomena that often conflicts with what they have learned about language.

To have grammatical competence demands that the students must be informed on the theoretical approaches of grammarians of older and newer periods on certain grammatical categories. The learner must know what parts of speech have such grammatical categories, their forms, meaning and use.

The learner must be able to explain the nature, number and functions of nouns, verbs, adjectives, pronouns, adverbs and statives, their mute points existed in special literature. The students auditorium is unique arena to present, use and analyze the learned theoretical materials through a variety of activities which involve students in investigation.

Teaching grammar and concepts such as parts of speech can give students a firm educational background to help them communicate more effectively both in written and verbal form.

We should teach the parts of speech one at a time in this way: noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, article, particle and conjunction.

The students — the learners of the English language need clear meaningful, appropriate definitions, presentations and usages of linguistic means & materials for their acquire.

Part III

The English Syntax: Definition and its Constituent Parts General Characteristics of Syntax

- Definition and general characteristics
- Basic syntactic notions of syntax
- The notion of phrase and its attributes
- The structure of phrases
- The notions of phrase, clause, sentence and their differences

In linguistics «syntax» (from ancient Greek «syn» from (together) and «taxis» ordering arrangement) is the study of the principles and rules for constructing sentences in natural languages.

One can't imagine that communication in a language would be held without the use of grammar in a variety of situations. The more one knows the grammar of the learning language, the more intelligibly he/she speaks in the language. That is why the two areas of grammar (morphology – syntax) are interdependent and together they constitute the *study of grammar*.

The question of how well we are aware of the *internal* structure of words, their relationship to other words and word forms (paradigmatic) – morphology, on the one hand, and syntagmatic (functional properties), syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the *external* functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units – word groups, sentences and texts.

Syntax studies the way in which the lexical and grammatical units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts. Typically in English a sentence contains three units: a subject, a predicate and an object. Placing words in that order can generally ensure that one's syntax is correct.

Syntax describes the order of words. Many grammatical relationships between the parts of sentences will be shown in the order of words – *syntax*.

Syntax is primarily concerned with the structure of different types of sentences. The constructions of the active/passive voices, declarative, interrogative, exclamatory sentences in different moods, the rules of posteriority and order, the behavior of one-member and elliptical sentences are the «province of syntax».

Thus language words and types of sentences without grammar would be chaotic, non-understanding and non-intelligibly.

In order to be proficient in grammar the learner must be able to be aware with the nature, types, and patterns of phrases, sentences, then the agreement between the syntactic elements within the domain of syntax. In short, it means sentence-making.

The term «Syntax» is also used to refer directly to the rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of any individual language. Without rules, there would be no foundations what a language community considers grammatical or non-grammatical.

For centuries, work in syntax was dominated by a framework known as *grammaire generale*, first expounded in 1660 by Antoine Arnauld. His book was based on the assumption that language is a direct reflection of thought processes.

There are a number of theoretical approaches to the discipline of syntax. One of them is *Generative grammar*. This concept was pioneered by Noam Chomsky and assumes that syntax is based upon the constituent structure of sentences. Such grammar types are among the theories that focus primarily on the form of sentence, rather than its communicative function.

The second one is *Categorial grammar*. This concept is an approach that attributes the syntactic, not to rules of grammar, but to the properties of the syntactic categories themselves.

The essence of the theory is that sentences are constructed by a rule that combines a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase (VP) (the phrase structure rule $S \rightarrow NP VP$). In categorial grammar such principles are embodied in the category of the «head word» itself. So the syntactic category for the intransitive verb is a complex formula representing the fact that the verb acts as a functioner which requires a NP as an input and output. The

category of transitive verb is defined as an element that requires two NP'S (its subject and its direct object) to form a sentence.

Tree-adjointing grammar is a categorial grammar that adds in partial tree structures to the categorial.

The third one is *Dependency grammar* approach, in which structure is determined by the relations between a word (a head) and its dependents, rather than being based in constituent structure. Syntactic structure is described in terms of whether a particular noun is the subject or agent of the verb, rather than describing the relations in terms of phrases.

The next one is the *Functionalist theory* and its subtypes, which are focused upon form, are based on the function of a sentence (i.e. its communicative function). They include the following functionalist theories: Functional Grammar, Prague Linguistic Circle, Systemic Functional Grammar, Cognitive Grammar, Construction Grammar, Reference Grammar and Emergent Grammar.

However in the XIX century, with the development of historical-comparative linguistics, linguists began to realize the diversity of human language and to question fundamental assumptions about the relationship between language and logic. It became apparent that there was no such thing as a most natural way to express a thought and therefore logic could no longer be relied upon as a basis for studying a structure of language.

The central role of syntax within theoretical linguistics became clear only in the XIXth century, which could reasonably called the «century of syntactic theory» as for as linguistics concerned.

Basic Syntactic Notions

The levels of grammar are morphological and syntactical. If the morphological level primarily concerned with the three dimensions – *form*, *meaning* and *usage*, the syntactic level deals with the following linguistic terms and notions, which must be distinguished: a *phrase*, a *clause*, a *sentence* and a *text*. No

discussion is possible without their understanding of these constituents of syntax.

Syntactic unit is usually a combination of at least two constituents. Their main features are the following:

- they are hierarchical units — the units of a lower level serve as the building material for the units of a higher level;
- syntactic units as well as morphologic are of dual structure: syntactic meaning and syntactic form.
- syntactic units are of communicative (sentences) and non-communicative nature. Word groups or phrases and clauses are of non-communicative nature.

Questions

- What is syntax and its units?
- Mention the basic syntactic notions.
- Define the notion of phrase and their usage.
- What are the constituent parts of the phrase? Give examples using them.
- Enumerate the types of phrases with illustrations.
- Is there any difference in the forms and meaning between the phrases and clauses? Point them out.

The Notion of Phrase and its Types

Definition: There are certain levels of grammatical analysis in which we looked before at morphemes and words individually and classify them according to definite criteria. The classification is important because it forms the basis for the next level of analysis — phrases, which is larger than individual words, but are smaller than sentences.

If we pay attention to the history of English grammar, early English Syntax concerned itself only with the study of *word groups*. In the second half of 18th century the term «phrase» was introduced to denote a word group. At first this term denoted any combination of two or more words. Later when the term «clause» came to be defined as a syntactic unit, containing a subject and a predicate, the term «phrase»

began to use for any word-group words except the «clause» (Jofic and Chahoyan, 1967, 124).

In linguistic literature there exist a number of definitions to the notion of phrases. According to one definition «word combination or phrase is syntactically connected group of notional words within the limits of which is not a sentence itself» (L.S. Barkhudarov); second definition is that «phrase is a combination of two or more words which is a grammatical unit» (B.A. Ilyish).

The other definitions are:

- a phrase is a syntactic structure which has syntactic properties derived from its head;
- a phrase is a group of related words that does not include a subject and a verb;
- a phrase is a group of words that functions as a single unit in the syntax of a sentence;
- a phrase is a group of related words that lack a subject or a verb, or both.
- a phrase is a syntactic construction which typically contains more than one word, but which lacks the subject, predicate structure usually found in a clause.

H. Sweet regards the phrase as follows: «when words are joined together grammatically and logically without forming a full sentence, we call the combination a word group». (1892, 16-19). Another scholar E. Kruisinga states that «a syntactic group is a combination of words that forms a distinct part of sentence» (1931, 177).

The survey of definitions make us conclude that a phrase is a combination of notional and functional words without predicate, which performs the function of a part of speech.

English scientific grammar did not elaborate this part of syntax and rejected even the term «phrase». (Sweet, op. cit. p. viii). Phrases combine words into larger units that can function as a sentence element.

The words in a phrase may belong to different parts of speech.

Ex: *hot milk, a silky shirt, Mukhsina's bag, a health certificate, a sack of potatoes, a knock on the door, a book on Linguistics, a gift for languages, clever at Physics, fir for duty (зоден к сlyжбе), chapter ten, to work hard, to stop crying, to try to understand, to wait for her.*

Thus words combine to form phrases which themselves can take on the attributes of a word class. These classes are called «phrase classes» or «attributes».

For this case different terms are used: word group, syntactic group, a phrase, a tone group, etc. Phrases are divided into simple and complex. The simple one consists of two notional words; if there are more than two notional words, the phrase is called a complex phrase.

Phrase Attributes and Types

Most phrases have a central word which defines the attribute of phrase. This word is called the *head*. Thus, according to their nature of *heads* dependent word groups fall into noun-phrase (NP), verb-phrase (VP), adjective-phrase, pronoun-phrase and adverbial-phrase. Noun and verb phrases are considered the main types of phrases.

The most general relation between words in sentences from a logical point of view is that of «head-word» and «adjunct-word» or as one may also express it of «modifier» and «modified». *Head* is obligatory. It's the only part which cannot be omitted from the phrase.

The Basic Structure of a Phrase

Phrases consist minimally of a Head. This means that in a one-word phrase like (Children), the head is *Children*. In longer phrases a number of elements may appear before the head. They may be called as the pre-head (*the small children*) or post-head elements (*in class five*).

So we may have a basic three-part structure.

Pre-head element	Head	Post-head element
The small	children	in class five

Noun phrase is the most usual type of phrase in Modern English. It consists of a noun which is the «head» of a phrase and the second noun which is the «adjunct» of a phrase. They function grammatically as nouns within sentences. The «head» can have modifiers or a pre-head, a complement (post-head element) or both. Modifiers can occur before the head.

Ex.: The burnt-out ends of smoky days. Long and dirty road.

Noun phrases are divided into two types:

1) when the first component of a phrase is a noun in the common case + another noun.

Ex.: *a stone wall, a speech sound.*

2) when the first component is a noun in the possessive case + another noun.

Ex.: *My sister's hat.*

Verbs form the second largest word class after nouns. They have features that aid in their recognition: they follow subject noun phrase, they agree with the subject noun phrase in number, they agree the subject noun phrase in person.

Verb phrases are formed entirely of verbs. The verbs can be lexical, auxiliary and modal. The head is the first verb in the verb phrase. In a verb phrase, the modal comes first, then the auxiliary or several auxiliaries, and finally the lexical verb.

Verb phrase structures may be of two types: finite verb phrase and non-finite verb phrases.

1) verb phrase with a notional verb which is the head of the phrase.

Ex.: *speaks fluently, plays fast, studies languages, sleeps soundly, reading a book, sees a house, eat cheese, jump up and down.*

2) verb phrase with an auxiliary verb. Ex.: — is a pupil.

Adjective phrases are very common type of phrases too, which are used to express almost all the possible kinds of things with their properties. Ex.: *a heavy bag, a new bicycle, a clever pussy, full of toys.*

An adjective phrase may consist of just one adjective or an adjective which has been modified by adverb phrases.

Pronoun phrase: *some of the girl*: it comprises pronoun + preposition + noun.

some of us: it comprises pronoun + preposition + pronoun,
nothing to do: pronoun + preposition + verb

Numeral phrase: *five of them*: it includes numeral + preposition + pronoun.

An adverb phrase acts as an adverb within a sentence, it modifies a verb (or verb phrase), an adjective (or adjective phrase).
Ex.: *high in the air, far from it, so quickly, six weeks ago, very careful.*

A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and can act as a noun, an adjective or an adverb. Prepositional phrases: they consist of a preposition, a noun or a pronoun that serves as the object of the preposition. The prepositional phrases usually tell «when» and «where»: Ex. *For a while, forty minutes, in the sun against the side, everybody but John, everywhere but a piece of bread.*

Infinitive phrases. It is a noun phrase with an infinitive as its head. Ex: I like to bake cakes. Unlike the other noun phrases, an infinitive phrase can also function as an adjective or an adverb and nouns. Ex: *The first man to walk on the moon, To know her is to love her, To sleep late on Sunday is a real treat.*

Gerundial phrase is just a noun phrase with a gerund as its head. Ex.: *I love baking cakes, John enjoyed swimming in the lake, partying heartily requires great endurance, walking in the rain, going for bread.*

Participle phrase. A participle phrase begins with a past or present participle. Verbals ending in «-ing» and past participles, verbals end in «-ed» (for regular verbs) or other forms (for irregular verbs). They always act as adjectives. Ex.: *The road following the edge of the frozen lake. Eating slowly, the child was finally quite.*

The formation of the depended word-group depends on the valency of its constituents. Valency is a potential ability of words

to combine. Actual realization of valency in speech is called combinability.

General Characteristics of the Phrases

Linguists warn that one should not confuse the term «sentence», «clause» and «phrase» as there are some differences on their structure and function:

- a phrase consists of two or more notional words; a sentence may consist of one word too. *Fire! Morning! Winter!;*

- a phrase doesn't express the meanings of person, tense and Mood simultaneously, a phrase usually expresses one of these meanings, while a sentence comprises all of these at the same time. Ex.: The happy cat. It is not a sentence, it is a phrase.

- a phrase cannot stand alone as a sentence, but used in sentences as single parts of speech;

- a phrase isn't furnished with intonation, an every communicative type of sentence has its own intonation pattern. Thus phrase and sentence are independent syntactic units. They are differentiated in meaning;

- a clause is a group of related words that contain both a subject and the verb predicate, thus it may be able to stand alone as a sentence, a phrase doesn't;

- a clause is also distinguished from a phrase by the fact that it contains a subject and predicate like a sentence, a phrase doesn't. a phrase or clause is a part of sentence.

- a clause is also distinguished from a sentence by its use, which is always some part of speech in a sentence and functions as nouns, adjectives or adverbs. Ex.: «I know that you are right». *You are right* is a clause and it is used as the object of the verb «know», that is, as a noun.

As shown in the example, a subordinating word is used in dependent clause. Dependent clauses are used as single parts of speech.

Sentence in English: Definition and its Classifications

- The study of sentence structure in English
- Definition
- Classification and the types of sentences

According to the meaning

According to their construction

According to their structure

According to their presence or absence of all parts of the sentences

- Sentence differences of style and emphasis

Definition: The study of sentence structure is called «*Syntax*». One of the difficult theoretical problems due to the opinions of many linguists which remain unsolved is the problem of the definition of the notion «sentence».

A *sentence* is an expression in natural language, often defined to indicate a grammatical and lexical unit consisting of one or more words, that represent distinct concepts. A sentence can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, request, exclamation, grief, wish or command. They also contain semantic and logical elements (word, parts of speech) and also action symbols that indicate stops, pauses, rise or fall of voice, etc.

There are five principal types of definition of the sentence:

1. *Logical*
2. *Psychological*
3. *Semantic*
4. *Grammatical*
5. *Phonetic*

But none of them are generally accepted. That's why this problem is still disputable.

One of the essential unit or component of syntax is the sentence. Traditionally sentence means: «A sequence of words whose first word starts with a capital letter and whose last word is followed by an end punctuation mark (full stop or question mark or exclamation mark)». In difference from a word or a word group (phrase), sentence expresses some complex sense.

Above the mentioned idea made prof. B.A. Ilyish write that the notion of «sentence» has not so far received a satisfactory

definition. One of the definitions of the sentence is as follows: «Sentence is the minimal syntactic structure used in communication and is characterized by its predicativity, which expresses thought and has its intonation pattern. Any sentence should express the meanings of tense, person and mood».

If a linguistic unit has these features, then it is considered a sentence. Ex.: *We can't live without language. We fight for peace. We breathe, eat, drink and act for living.*

In these sentences the above mentioned meanings are found. It is the present tense, first person, in the indicative mood.

A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality, but also a means showing the speaker's attitude to it.

The term «grammar» refers to the whole structure of the language including the naming of its parts, its rules of tense, voice and its sound system. It is important to make a distinction between grammar and syntax and to realize that syntax is a component of grammar.

Syntax only refers to the relationship between the grammatical components of language in use. In other words it's the nature quality or type of relationship between terms in any given statement which is the province of syntax (ХАШИМОВ, 2002).

Thus, one may say Syntax is that part of Grammar which *deals with the principles controlling the relations of words within the sentence*. The sentence is the most complicated unit of the language because it may contain a number of components. Every type of sentence is characterized by its form, meaning and function.

Sentence may consist of *primary* (subject and predicate) parts. They are independent and grammatically equal, all other words are grouped around them. Sentence may contain not only subject and predicate, but other words or word groups. These words are dependent grammatically on the subject and predicate. They are called *secondary* parts of the sentence.

Sentence structure could now be divided into three status:

- a notional status around the verb, which establishes semantic relation between the main sentence constituents;
- a grammatical status around the auxiliary, which establishes grammatical relations, such as agreement (he is/I am/you are reporting);
- a discourse status around the form word «that», which links a subordinate clause to a principle clause (He wants to know whether Jane Miss or Mrs. He is asking whether the melons in the field are ripen).

Classification Principles: Types of the Sentences

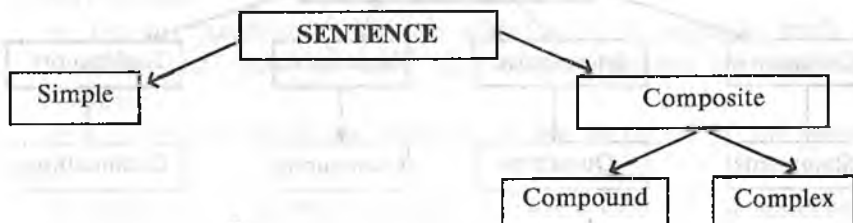
Sentences are constructed according to a system of rule known by all the adult mother-tongue speakers of the language and summarized in a grammar. A sentence formed in this way is said to be «*grammatical*». Thus a sentence is a grammatical unit, consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked.

The classification of sentences is based on four principles:

- according to the aim of communication
- according to the structure
- according to the completeness in the utterance
- according to their construction or presence of other sentences in one sentence

Classification of Sentences and their Functions

Most authors of English grammar retain the threefold traditional classification of sentences into *simple*, *compound* and *complex*, established in the mid-19th century.



A sentence is a group of words that are put together to mean something.

The *simple* sentence is the minimum unit of communication. Such sentences are characterized by having only one predicate. It is the main of syntax.

The *composite* sentence is the combination of two or more clauses based on either on *coordinate* (a compound sentence) or *subordinate* (a complex sentence). They are characterized by having more than one predication.

The sentence is a many-sided phenomenon and may be studied from several items or grounds.

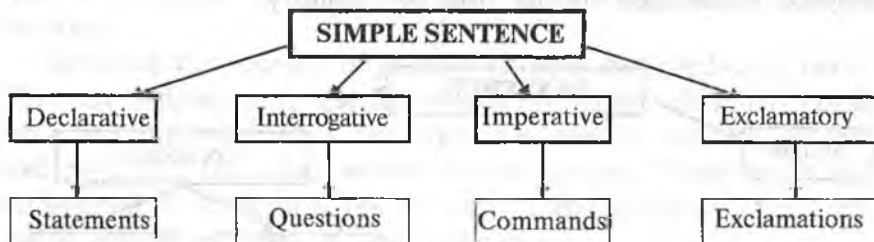
Its principal grounds are:

- *form* (which deals with the question *how* the sentence is built);
- *meaning* (which informs *what* the sentence is about);
- *function* (which is correlated with the question *what for* the sentence is, was or will be pronounced).

From the first point of view (i.e. *form*), the sentence is defined as a group of words based on *predicative* relation. From the point of view of *meaning* the sentence is defined «as an *expression* or *complete thought*». From the functional point of view the sentence is defined as a *minimum unit of communication*.

Thus sentences can be classified from different view points.

I. *According to their meaning* (aim, purpose) or the category of presentation whether a sentence makes a statement, asks a question, gives a command or expresses emotion, it is called declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentence.



Traditional grammar recognized four types of sentence functions: statement, questions, command and exclamation. The sentence goes from one function to the next through a combination of changes in word order, intonation, the addition of certain auxiliaries, particles or other verbal form.

Statement

A *statement* is a sentence whose primary purpose is «to state» – to convey information. These sentences are traditionally said to have a *declarative structure* – a structure which «declares or makes something known». When a language modifies a sentence in order to form a question or give a command, the base form will always be the declarative. The declarative sentence conveys some statements, or tells something, usually have falling intonation and usual order of words or placing the subject before the predicate. Ex.: *We study English at the high school.*

Such sentence usually ends with a full stop or a small (.) dot.

Questions

Asking questions is the feature of generating communication. Be able to both ask and answer questions and their value need due attention as it is an art and science.

Questions are sentences which seek information. They fall into three main types, depending on the kind of reply they expect, and on how they are constructed. Sentences formed in these ways are said to have *interrogative structure* – a structure which «interrogates».

- Yes-no questions allow an affirmative or negative reply – often just «yes» or «no». The subject follows the auxiliary verb.

Ex.: Are you ready to answer? Is the monitor of the group here?

In addition, a questioning tone of voice can turn a statement into a «yes» – «no» question. These questions have the structure

of declarative sentence, and only the question mark shows their function in writing.

Ex.: They've gone home? Mike's outside?

- *Wh.* – questions allow a reply from a wide range of possibilities. They begin with a question word, such as *what, why, where or who*.

Ex.: Why are you leaving the hospital?

Who doesn't have breakfast?

- *Alternative* questions require reply which relates to the options given in the interrogative sentence. They always contain the connecting word «*or*».

Ex.: Will you have some tea or coffee? Have you done the job or not?

The meaning of «interrogation» is expressed by the rising tone and placing the auxiliary part of the predicate before the subject.

Exclamatory Questions

Some sentences resemble questions in their structure, but are actually being used as *exclamations*. They express the speakers strong feelings, and ask the hearer to agree. Despite the presence of a negative element, they are strongly positive in meaning.

Ex.: Hasn't he come yet? Wasn't she pretty?

Tag Questions (or Disjunctive)

Sometimes the interrogative structure is left to the end of the sentence, in the form of a tag question, which expects disjunctive question or a yes/no kind of reply (Alexander, 1998, 256-57).

Ex.: It's there, isn't it? They are not in, are they? The «n't» ending of some tag questions is replaced by «not» in formal English. If we change the intonation, we alter the meaning of a tag question. When the melody is rising, the sentence is «asking»: when it is falling, the sentence is «telling». In writing the punctuation can indicate the difference.

Ex.: They're not in, are they? (I really want to know).
They're not in, are they? (I told you so).

The Interrogative sentence inquires something, using a rising tone and requires answer. There may be a special interrogative word and usually there is an inversion.

Ex.: Have you learnt this poem? Yes, I have. Where do you work?

There are four kinds of questions: general, special, alternative and disjunctive.

Imperatives (or Directives)

There are sentences which instruct someone to do something. They are often called «commands». Some specialists prefer to use the label «directives» (Bell, 1991; Crystal, 1991). Due to them commanding is just one of the many uses of directive sentences:

- Commanding: Sit down! Come here!
- Inviting: Have a drink.
- Warning: Mind your head!
- Pleading: Help me!
- Suggesting: Let's walk at the river.
- Permitting: Help yourself.
- Requesting: Open the window, please.
- Mediating: Let me see.
- Expressing good wishes: Have a nice day! May you live long!
- Expressing and imprecation: Go to hell!

In each case, the verb is in its basic form, with no ending, and there is usually no subject element present. Structures of this type are called imperatives – from Latin *imperare* «to command».

The learner ought to know that some directives do not use the basic pattern:

- They allow a subject, with a strong stress.

Ex.: 'You be quite! 'Nobody move!

• They begin with «let», followed by a subject with the first, second and third persons. Ex.: Let me see. Let us pray. Let her go home.

- They begin with «do» or «don't».

Ex.: Do come in. Don't laugh. Do not leave.

The **Imperative** sentence makes the listener to perform some action, so it expresses a command, a request, an invitation to do something, etc. In the imperative sentence in English, the verb takes the initial position in the sentence, usually directly before the noun which is the object. There may be oral or active response.

The verb is always in the infinitive form without the particle «to». The subject of the sentence is usually the personal pronoun «you» and in zero option, i.e. the subject is not expressed, being sufficiently understood.

Ex.: Open the door of that room! Do these exercises for the next lesson.

The **Exclamatory** sentence expresses some kind of emotion or feeling, wish or desire. Their first elements begin with «*what*» and «*how*», and is followed by a subject and a verb, in that order.

Ex.: What a lovely garden it is! How lovely pussy it is!

They also occur frequently in a reduced form, using only the first element.

Ex.: What a lovely party! How nice!

Such sentences refer to our feelings and a form of self-talk because they are directed at the speakers themselves or at nobody in particular.

Sometimes the sentence begins with the word «*may*». Such sentences are always in the declarative form with a falling intonation. Sentences of this kind are said to possess an exclamatory sentence.

Ex.: May your dreams come true!

Long live our sunny motherland!

Questions

- The preliminary job of syntax is the structure of sentence. What is meant by this notion?
- Point out the main unit of syntax and its definition.
- Mention the principles according to which the sentences are classified.

- What are the communicative types of sentences and their features?
- Explain the functions and structures of imperative and exclamatory sentences.

Sentence Types

Sentences are the largest construction to which the rules of grammar apply. Levels of the constituents of sentence structure are word, phrase, clause, sentence. They compose the grammatical hierarchy.

According to their construction sentences are divided into simple and composite (H. Poutsma, 1926), the term «composite» is a common term for compound and complex sentences.

So, sentences that have one subject and one predicate (or contains single independent clause), are called **simple** sentences (Khaimovich & Rogovskaya, 1967); or a simple sentence contains only one finite verb as:

Ex.: *Clouds arose; Black, threatening clouds arose. She left the house. The dog barks.*

The Simple Sentence

A simple sentence may be unextended and extended: The dog barks. The dog barks at the gate.

Unextended sentence

subject	predicate	object
The ship	is gone.	-
The dog	barks.	-

Extended sentence

Subject	predicate	object	adverbial modifier
a) He	left	the house	at eight
We	left	the house	

- b) Clever boys quickly learn these texts
 Clever boys learn quickly these texts
- c) Clever boys learn these texts quickly.

There are five simple sentence patterns. Within each of the five groups there may be different sub-patterns. Each initially consists of two, three or four elements:

- Subject + verb: I get up. We laughed. Dogs bark.
- Subject + verb + compliment: He is a driver. I'm ready.
- Subject + verb + direct object: Parents see off the guests.
- Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object: He presented her a diary. I gave her a fountain-pen.
- Subject + verb + object + compliment: I got my shirt wet.
- Subject + verb + object + adverbial modifier: I put the present on the terrace.

Composite Sentences

But many sentences can be analyzed into more than one clause: they are *composite sentences*. In fact composite sentences form the majority of the sentences in formal writing, and are common in everyday conversation too. These constructions are often classified into broad types, both recognized in traditional grammar: compound and complex sentences.

Compound Sentences

Compound sentence is one containing two or more principal or independent clauses, that have equal status, with no dependent clause, it is said to be a **compound**. They are coordinate or joined by conjunctions «or», «but», «so», «for».

Ex.: I don't like dogs, and my sister doesn't like cats.

Mike is a student and Nelly is a shop-seller.

A man eats, but he also works.

Compound sentences may be of two types:

- Asyndetically connected
- Syndetically connected

In this type of sentence the speaker or the addressee need to join ideas, information, decisions. The joining or linking is achieved by:

- A semi-colon (or comma).

Ex.: Children played all day, they did not have dinner.

- A semi-colon, followed by a connecting adverb.

Ex.: Children played all day indeed; they did not eat anything.

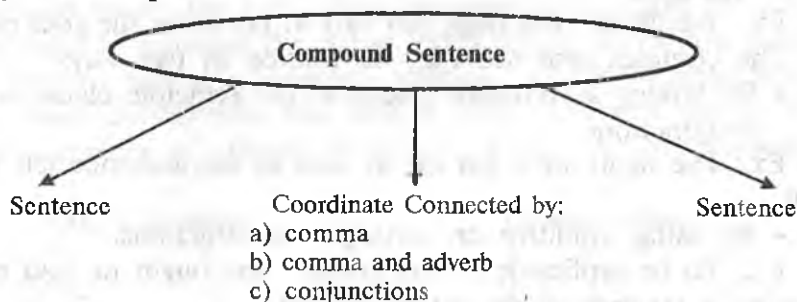
- By coordinating conjunctions (and, but, so, yet, etc.)

Ex.: Children played all day so they had no time to have meals.

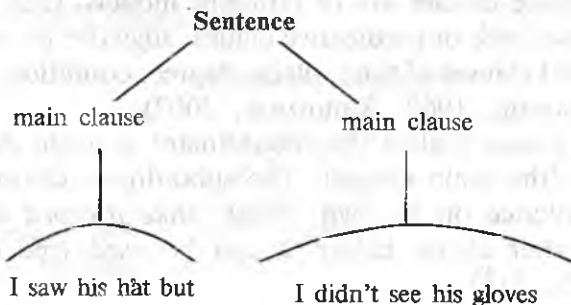
I called *but* he did not answer. I felt headache, *but* I didn't run away from the class.

The lock was broken, the things were spread over on the floor.

In these sentences both clauses are independent. Therefore they are compound sentences.



The sentences are linked to distribute the meanings. Compound sentence, in which there is no connector.



Compound sentence is one containing two or more independent clauses with no dependent clause. Each clause can in principle stand as a sentence on its own – in other words, act as an independent clause. Thus, a clause is a sentence within a sentence.

Ex.: I cycled as far as Tower and Mary as far as two miles. The girls had a little quarrel, Makhmuda soon forgot.

Complex Sentences

In *complex sentences* there are two types of clauses: principle clause or main and subordinate or dependent. The principle clause demonstrates a complete thought, the subordinate is not.

Ex.: *I am sad, because I have no friends.* The clauses are linked by «subordination». When a sentence contains not only a principal clause, but also other dependent or subordinate clauses which have subject and predicates of their own, the sentence is said to be **complex**.

Ex.: She doesn't like dogs that bark at her when she goes past.

The complex sentence may be formed in two ways:

- By linking subordinate clause to the principle clause with conjunctions.

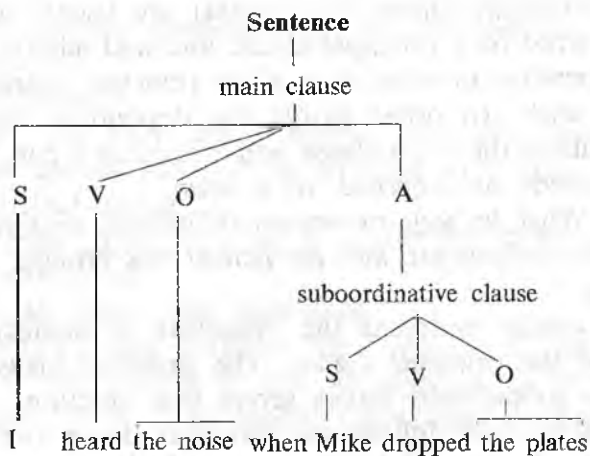
Ex.: The lights were put off *as soon as* the audience left the hall.

- By using infinitive or participle constructions.

Ex.: To be proficient in this domain one ought to read and acquire a number of theoretical subjects.

According to their *grammatical structure* many different sentence constructions can be present in a complex sentence, as the subordinate clauses are of different models, such as noun or subject clause, verb or predicative clause, adjective or attributive clause, adverbial clauses of time, place, degree, condition, purpose and so on (Strang, 1962; ХАШИМОВ, 2002).

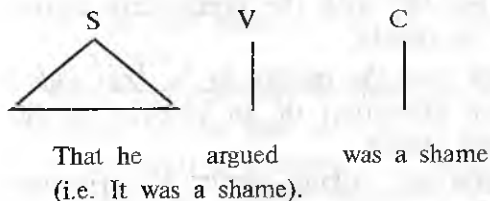
Here, one clause (called the subordinate) is made dependent upon another (the main clause). The subordinate clause cannot stand as a sentence on its own. *When Mike dropped the plates* needs some other clause before it can be used (see diagram) (Crystal, 1995, 217).



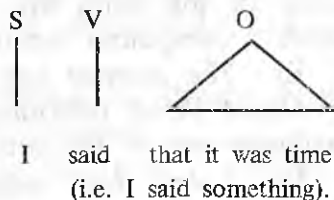
Elements as Clauses

Subordinate clauses can replace the whole of any clause element except the verb. Their grammatical function can always be tested by replacing the clause with a simpler unit whose identity is known, such as a pronoun, adjective, adverb, or noun phrase. A clause as adverbial has already been illustrated above. Here are examples of clauses as subject, object and complement.

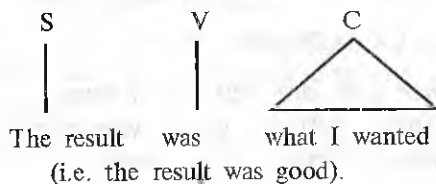
Clauses as subject



Clause as object



Clause as complement



The subordinate clause (or clauses) are usually connected with some word of a principal clause and add additional information, depending on what part of the principal clause they are connected with. In other words the dependent clause tells something about the main clause and is used as a part of speech – as an *adverb*, an *adjective*, or a *noun*.

Ex.: a) What he says makes no difference. (Subject clause)

b) It was unfortunate *that the patient* was brought in during the evening.

Subject clause performs the «function of subject» to the predicate of the principal clause. The principal clause has no subject, the subordinate clause serves this function.

If a subject clause follows the principal clause, the so-called introductory «it» is used in the principal clause.

Subject clauses are connected with the principal clause by means of connectives and conjunctions:

a) that, if, whether

b) who, which, what (conjunctive pronouns); where, when, how, why (conjunctive adverbs);

Ex.: What was done could not be undone. Whatever I can do for you will be nothing but paying a debt.

Predicative clauses perform the «function of a predicative». In such sentences we find one part of the predicate in the principal clause (a link verb), which together with the predicative clause forms a compound nominal predicate.

Ex.: The question was how was the matter to be kept quiet.

Object clause performs the «function of an object» to the predicate-verb of the principal clause.

Ex.: I don't know what you are talking about. He promised that he would be on time. He knows that John is here.

Object clauses are connected with the principal clause by means of conjunctions:

a) that, if, whether;

Ex.: Time will show whether you are right or wrong.

b) conjunctive pronouns (who, which, what, whatever);

c) conjunctive adverbs (where, when, how, why);

Ex.: *The teacher wondered where he developed his French like a Frenchman.*

d) *asyndetically;*

Ex.: *He said there was a meeting after the classes.*

Attribute clauses serve as an attribute to a noun (pronoun) in the principal clause.

Ex.: *He that is not with me is against me. A document which worthless was found.*

That is the house that Jack built.

Adverbial clauses perform the function of an adverbial modifier. It can modify a verb, an adjective or an adverb in the principal clause. They specify place, time, manner, reason, purpose.

Ex.: They crossed where the water was shallow (place). A dependent clause starts with the subordinating conjunction: (that, because, although, where, which, since)

Ex.: a) *My cat follows me wherever I go.*

b) *I'll not wait here till you come back.*

c) *He behaved better than he did last time. (adverbial modifier of degree)*

d) *He has come that he might see you*

e) *Be careful less they deceive you (purpose)*

f) *He is so lame that he can hardly walk (result)*

g) *The boy went out to play when he completed his task of physics.*

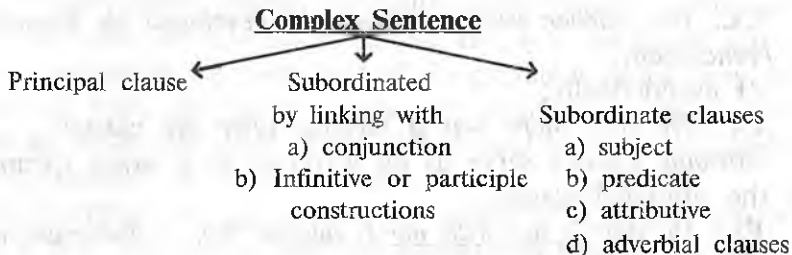
These clauses may be reduced to three if one divides them according to the part of speech which represent:

- substantive clauses, i.e. with the functions of subject, predicate, object clauses.
- adjective clause.
- adverbial clauses

Ex.: *If it rains tomorrow, I'll not go.*

Be careful lest they deceive you. (adverbial modifier of purpose)

He walks as if he were lame, (adverbial modifier of manner)



Multiple Structures

Both compound and complex sentences can contain several instances of coordination or subordination. In other words they consist of multiple independent clauses.

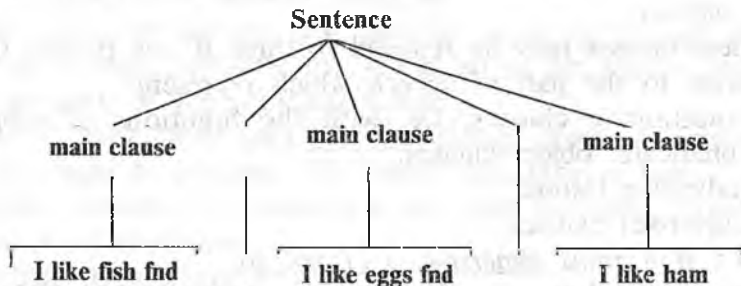
A coordinating conjunction can join any two syntactic units, as long as they have the same status in the sentence. In addition to linking clauses, it can link noun phrases, adjectives, pronouns and several other forms.

Ex.: I bought a paper and a book.

We were hot and dirty.

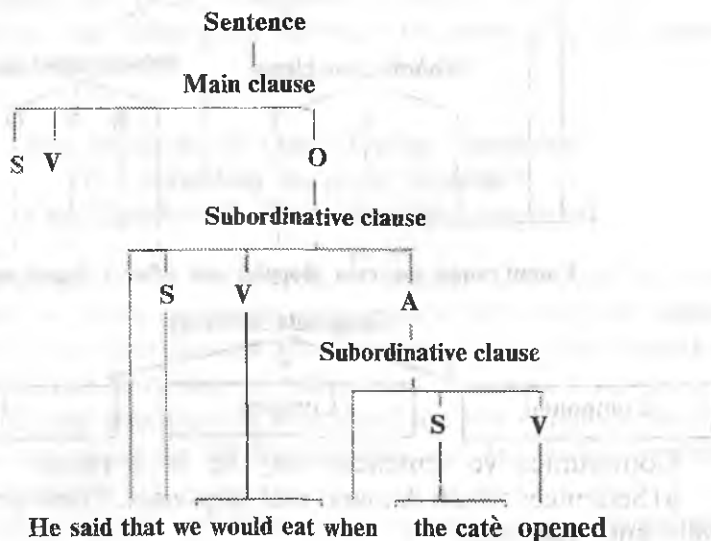
There is theoretically no limit to the number of units which can be connected in this way.

With *multiple coordination*, the analysis is simple as seen in the diagram. The continual use of *and* to build up a long sentence is by no means unusual, as are real life example.



With *multiple subordination*, we must take special care to keep the different levels of subordination part. In the following diagram, the main clause is *He said something*. The first subordinate clause

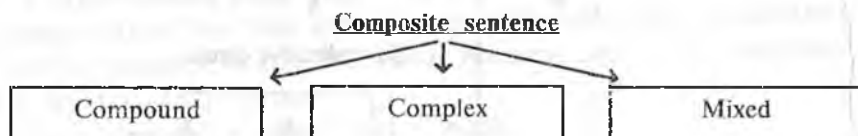
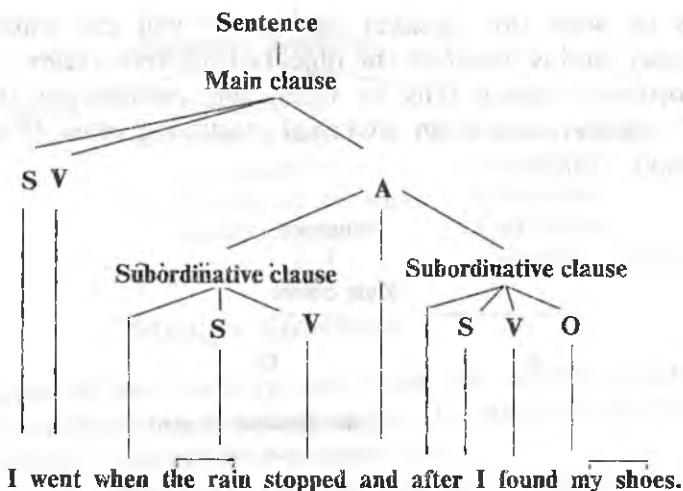
tells us what one speaker said («We will eat when the cafe opens»), and is therefore the object of the verb «said». The second subordinate clause tells us when they would *eat* («When the cafe opens»), and is an adverbial modifying «eat» (Fisher, 1992; Crystal, 1988).



Coordination and subordination may of course occur in the same sentence. The possibility is shown in the diagram. If there is a compound and complex sentences in one composite, it is called the *mixed type of composite sentence*. Such sentence contains three or more clauses (of which at least two are independent and one is dependent) (Crystal, 1995, 227).

Ex.: Each time the man fell, he fell with the firm believe that he would never rise, but he did rise.

There are some more other types of classification of sentences in English literature. American descriptivist Ch. Fries divided all sentences into communicative and non-communicative. Non-communicative sentences are those which don't serve to communication.



Communicative sentences may be of 3 types:

- a) Sentences which demand oral responses. These are greetings, calls and questions.
- b) Sentences which demand action responses. These are orders and requests.
- c) Sentences which demand conversational signals. These are declarative sentences, used in narrations.

The object of Syntax is the learning the ways of combination of words and forms of word in phrases, then the nature and types of sentences, their usage in speech.

Phrase and sentence are independent syntactic units. They are differentiated in meaning and in structure.

Questions

- Point out the principles due to which the sentences are divided into simple and composite.
- What is a simple sentence and its structure? Give examples.
- Give information about the compound sentences and their nature. Show the ways of constructing them.

- What is meant by a complex sentence? Illustrate the sentence with examples.
- What are the constituent parts of complex sentences? How are they positioned in sentence?
- Point out the functions of subordinate clauses. Give examples for each subordinate clause.
- Explain the differences between the principle and subordinate clauses.

The Problem of One-Member Sentence.

II. According to their Structure

(One-Member & Two-Member sentences)

The sentence is the chief unit of speech. Clearly a sentence is not only a chain of words, but also a structure or pattern into which a speaker fits speech forms to express his intention. It says how the sentence is built.

Sentence has structure in that there are rules that decide the units that can co-occur in the sentence and the order in which they can occur.

According to their structure simple sentences are divided into two-member and one-member sentences. A two-member sentence may be complete and incomplete. It is complete if a two-member sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.

Ex.: *She runs quickly. He rose.*

Definition and its Features

A one-member sentence is a sentence having only one member which is neither the subject nor the predicate. The main part of a one member sentence is often expressed by an infinitive.

Ex.: *Silence! Water! Why not go there! To go to the wedding in such an hour!*

One may feel that in such sentences some parts of it dropped out, but nobody tries to restore it or them. H. Sweet (1898), G. Curme (1931) assert that a single word, such as *Come! Hurry!* In connection with proper one constitutes a complete sentence.

Some grammarians refer the words of affirmation and negation as well as words of politeness («yes», «no», «good-bye») to one-member types of sentences.

These sentences are usually used at the beginning of stories, novels, in descriptions, narrations and in emotional speech. But nevertheless they express all obligatory meanings that are characteristic to the sentences.

Ex.: *Spring! Fall!*

Prof. L.S.Barkhudarov suggests to consider the sentences like «Вечер! Утро!» and so on as two-membered sentences. According to him there is no difference between the following types of sentences: «Был вечер! Будет вечер!» as in the above sentences. In these sentences the predicates are expressed by zero alternants of the verb. (1966, 178). Thus, the problem is solved by different linguists differently.

One-member sentences are presented in two ways: nominatively and imperatively. In the first case one sentence contains the grammar elements, the other one has left it out. The principle clause with the missing elements is the elliptical sentence.

If the main part of a one-member sentence is expressed by a noun, the sentence is called *nominal*. The noun may be modified by attributes.

- *Freedom! Bells ringing out, flowers, kisses, wine.*
- *Spring! All the trees and ground are in blossom.*
- *War! Everybody in silence and upset.*

Ex.: *Oh, to be in a forest in a may! Why not go there immediately!*

Imperative sentences with no subject of the action are also used in one-member type of sentences.

Ex.: *Get away from me. This is the Spring! There's a bench.*

Infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. Such sentences are usually emotional.

There are two opinions on this type of sentences. One group of grammarians mixed the one-member and elliptical sentences up, others view them separately.

Questions

- Speak about the sentences according to their structure. What sentences are considered complete and incomplete?
- Give sentences from your language and compare their structures.
- What is meant by the two-member sentences? Prove your answer with examples.
- Say, what type of sentence is regarded as one-member? Prove them with examples.

The Problem of Elliptical Sentences

III. According to the Presence or Absence of all the Parts.

Definition and its Peculiarities

From the point of the presence and absence of all members of the sentence a two-member sentence may be **complete** and **incomplete**. It is incomplete when one of the principal parts or both of them are missing, but can be easily understood from the context.

Such types of sentences that actually sound better even if they have grammatical holes. Such sentences are mostly used in colloquial speech and especially in dialogues and called **elliptical**. Elliptical sentences consist of two independent clauses. In constructing the elliptical sentences the speaker drops certain predictable words and phrases. The reception of the missing part depends on the hearer who mentally fills them.

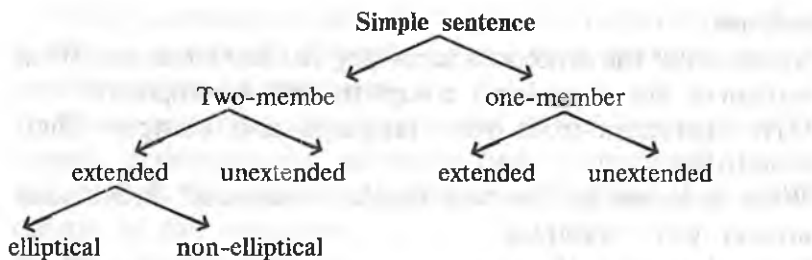
Ex.: 1) Predicate is dropped. Where are you going? – To school.

2) Subject and predicate are dropped. What subject did you teach? – Literature.

3) Secondary parts are dropped. Where is he? – At the stadium. Are you leaving today? – leaving.

4) Elliptical case is used in subordinate clauses too. In such sentences the *relative pronouns* and *relative adverbs* are omitted.

Ex.: He left the day that (or on which) I arrived. He left the day I arrived.



The commonest elliptical sentences are those which begin with «as» and «than». Great caution must be used in elliptical sentences to see that the right cases are used. The best way is to test the sentence by feeling up the ellipses, as:

Ex.: This does not cost so much as that, i.e. «as that costs much».

One must be careful and not confuse the structure of contracted sentences with the *elliptical ones*.

Contracted sentences are always coordinate sentences. They contain either the same subject, the same predicate, the same object, or the same adverbial adjunct to the predicate.

Ex.: «Neither I nor you can have seen that, i.e. neither I (have seen that) nor you have seen that».

– He is not so clever as his brother (is)

Here the predicate is expressed only once.

– He advances slowly, but he advances surely.

Here the common subject and predicate are expressed only once.

An elliptical sentence is usually a subordinate clause.

In elliptical sentences, the part to be supplied in one clause, although suggested by what is expressed in the other, is not necessarily exactly the same inform.

Ex.: I have no other saint when I have you (thee).

He is as tall as I am > He is as tall as I am tall. (full variant)

He is taller than I am. > He is taller than I am tall.

He loves me better than you || love me.

He knows the man as well as (he knows) me.

I know no wiser man than he || is wise.

This does not cost so much as that || i.e. as that costs much.
She is better today than she was yesterday.

He is either drunk or mad; i.e. «Either he is drunk or (he is) mad. Here the subject and predicate is in complete are expressed only once.

The omission of «that» in modifying clauses particularly is observed in spoken English. Ex.: Everybody knows [...] two months will be short time [...] she will need to pay the tax. (Full form) «Everybody knows that two months will be short time that she will pay the tax for the gas.; Ann will take care of the girls and Nick [...] the animals. (missing – *will take care of*).

Some writers make effort to be economical with words. They methodically knock off to repetitive phrases.

Thus, an *Elliptical sentence is one in which something is omitted, but which is readily supplied in thought*, without being expressed in words.

It is very important to point out the omitted part of such sentences express an already known to the listener information.

If we compare the one-member and elliptical types of sentences we can see the following:

1) their structure are different

2) the usage of both types of sentences also vary.

One-member sentences are used in narrations, descriptions of novels, stories like: Winter! Autumn! Morning! It is really one-member one. But they may be modified by attributes to make the sentence more sensible.

The Elliptical sentences are also short, but they are used in colloquial speech, especially in question – response types. Ex.: Mike, are you getting up? – Getting.

Questions

- Point out the opinions on this type of sentences with illustrations.
- Define the types of sentence due to the presence and absence of all members in the construction.
- Define the peculiarities of elliptical sentences. Characterize the differences between one-member and elliptical sentences.

Certain Peculiarities of Syntax.

Syntax is a grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence.

- It concerns both word order and agreement in the relationship between words;

- Syntax is primarily concerned with structure of sentences.

Basically the following statements follow normal English word order (S+ V+O+ adv. modif.). (McArthur, 1992).

Ex.: The cat sat on the mat.

My old green leather costume is here.

Changes in word order happened to conventional syntax are often used to create grammatic, poetic or comic effect. Poets and lyrics often change syntactic order to create rhythmic effects (i.e. inverted order of words).

- The *inverted order* of words is widely used not due to the structure of sentence, but to the authors wish to produce a certain stylistic effect of speech, using the adverbs «so, thus, now, then, etc.» Ex.: *Now* was the moment to act.

Thus spoke the captain edging himself as near as possible to the sofa.

So beautifully did she sing that the audience burst into applause.

- By the *emphatic particle* «only», the adverbs «hardly, scarcely, no sooner» or the conjunction «nor».

Ex.: Only once did he meet his match in tennis.

Scarcely was one long task completed when a guard unlocked our door.

- *Inversion* occurs when the sentence begins with the word «*here*», which has the same demonstrative force.

Ex.: «Here is my card, Sir», replied Pickwick. Here comes our teacher John.

One can find inversions in other parts of sentences (object and adverbial modifiers) too due to certain rule cases.

Sentence Information

There are some ways in which we organize the information contained in a sentence, as can be seen from these alternatives.

Ex.: The driver is fixing a car. There's a driver fixing a car. He is a driver that's fixing a car. It's a car that a driver is fixing. The car is being fixed by a driver.

These sentences all express the same basic meaning, that they convey several important differences of style and emphasis. The analysis of these differences is also a part of study of grammar.

Given and New information

There are usually two kinds of information in a sentence. One part of the sentence tells us something *new*. The other part tells us something we *were aware* of already (either from the previous sentences or from our general knowledge — in other words, its information is *given*).

The distinction between given new information can be clearly seen in this dialogue (discourse).

A: Where did you sell your bike?

B: **I sold it/at the market**

The first part of B's sentence is *given* by (A); the second part is *new*.

Given information tells us what a sentence is about; it provides the sentence «theme». Because the information it contains is familiar, this part of the sentence is not likely to be spoken with any extra prominent.

New information, on the other hand, provides the point where we expect people to pay special attention, or «rheme». The part of the sentence containing the focus is always spoken in a prominent way.

In most sentences the «theme» appears first, and the «rheme» of the message last. But it is possible to bring the «rheme» forwards, so as to emphasize as earlier part of the sentence.

This especially happens when one wants to state a contrast as in the Tee-pots are new, not the cups. Conversations make frequent use of emphatic contrasts of this kind.

Thus, the information that has already been introduced before to the reader or listener is preferred to as «given» or «*the theme*». The information which is introduced for the first time, is referred to as new information or «*the theme*». As a rule new information in English generally comes last: The cat ate *the rat*. Mike's grandmother has bought for him *a bicycle*.

Varying of the Information Structure

The second way of giving attention to the «theme» of a sentence is fronting. Ex.: *Across the water they passed.*

Utkur he said his name was.

Fronting occurs when one moves to the beginning of a sentence an item, which does not usually belong there. This item then becomes the theme, and in such cases it carries extra prominence.

The third way is *the inversion*.

Ex.: *Here's Abdulla.* He was happy and so were we.

The fourth way is *cleaving (cleft)*. In this case a simple sentence is to split the sentence into two clauses, giving each its own verb, by means of the constructions: It is (was); who or that. Ex.: Kate broke the window.

It was Kate who broke the window. It was the window *that* Kate broke.

The fifth way is the *extraposition*

Ex.: What you say *doesn't matter*. *It doesn't matter* what you say. We find reading anecdotes *fun*. We find it *fun*, reading anecdotes.

In sentences like this the clauses have been moved *outside* their normal position in the sentence. The effect is thus said to be one of *extraposition*.

The next way is of *Existential*.

Sometimes we want to bring the content of a whole clause to the attention of our listener or reader, making it all new information.

In this case we are to use the word *there* to achieve the effect of information, followed by the simple present or past tense of «be».

Ex.: Some boys are in danger. *There* are some boys in danger. Such sentences express the general existence of some state of affairs, are thus called existential sentences.

Ex.: It was in May, veterans of war, first met the guests. There *arose* a great village — like a town.

There *exist* several alternatives for building stadium.

Thus, syntax is the study of the grammatical relations of linguistic units to one another and the grammatical structure of syntactic levels.

Minor Sentence Types

There's one more grouping of the sentence structures. This case is based on the principle whether the sentence structures are formed in a *regular way* (see Word order) or an *irregular*. The first is called **major**, which has a subject and a predicate (I love a cat). The second is **minor** sentence, which does not contain a finite verb. (Mary! Yes! Hello!)

In grammar there is an approach to certain irregular sentence patterns in English. They are found or seen on pages of a novel or a daily newspapers or magazines. Some authorities call them as «minor sentences» (Mittens, 1962; Savery, 1967).

Minor sentences are not constructed in a regular way. They use abnormal patterns which cannot be clearly analyzed into a sequence of clause elements.

There are only a few minor sentence types, but instances of each type are frequently used in every day conversation and when conversations are represented in fiction. They are also used in certain types of written language, such as *notices, headlines, labels, advertisements, subheadings and etc.*

Minor sentences do not follow all the rules of grammar. For example, in simple and composite sentences the verbs can change their persons: *How do you manage? How does he manage?* But the greeting *How do you do?* is a minor sentence, and one cannot change the person to *How does he do?* Nor can one change the tense and ask *How did you do?* The sentence has to be learned as a whole, and used as an idiom.

There are some types of minor sentences which look quite complex – like. But in each case there is something «odd» about them.

- Proverbs or aphorisms, such as *Easy come, easy go; or Least said, soonest mended.*

- Abbreviated forms, such as are used in postcards, instructions, as in «*Wish you were here*», «*Mix well*», and *One lap more*».

- Words and phrases used as exclamations, questions and commands, such as «*Nice day!*» «*Taxi?*» and «*All aboard*».

- Expressions given in notices such as, «No smoking, No parking, Exit, Entrance».

- Emotional or functional noises (Emotives), many of which do not follow the normal pronunciation patterns of the language, such as Eh? Ugh! Ow! Shh! Thanks! Cheers!

Questions

- How one can get the new information? Illustrate it with examples.

- How is the old (given) information observed?

Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations in English language

Definition and their Peculiarities

- Definition of paradigmatic relation

- Definition of syntagmatic relation

In the utterance or sentence all the units of the language (phoneme, morpheme, word, phrase, sentence) take part in. They are in paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations.

Paradigmatic relation is the relation between the linguistic units, which have some features in common. It is said to be a vertical relation between linguistic units. Paradigm is a complete set of various forms of words. Paradigmatic relation is formed on the basis of word forms. For an example a verb paradigm:

ride
rides This is a paradigm relation because they have the same
rode root and have 5 paradigm forms of the verb.
ridden
riding

Each paradigm has its own system. Noun paradigm differs from the paradigm of verbs.

boy Noun and verb paradigms are formed by adding special
boy's affixes to the boys word-root
Next example for the paradigm may be:

reads
falls These verbs are in paradigm relation, because there is one
listens common element «s» in them, third person singular.
talks

Paradigm is the object of **morphology** as it deals with the opposition of word forms. The good example of for this case is the arrangement of *words* in a dictionary. Words in dictionaries are in paradigmatic relation, because all of them are in their initial form.

Thus a *paradigm* is the complete set of related word forms associated with a given lexeme. The good examples of paradigms are the conjugations of verbs, and the declensions of nouns.

The word forms of a word may be classified due to their inflectional categories, such as tense, aspect, number, gender or case.

For example, the personal pronouns in English can be organized into morphological categories (first, second, third), number (singular vs. plural), gender (masculine, feminine, neuter) and case (subjective, objective, and genitive).

Syntagmatic relation is the relation between the linguistic units, which are syntactically relation connected with each other. The syntactical relation is a horizontal linear relation between the linguistic units.

Ex.: «*It is raining heavily.*» has 3 words, which are syntactically connected with each other. Thus, the syntagmatic relation is the

relation between words in a linear succession. It is the object of **Syntax**.

Questions

- Point out the types of relations in the utterance or sentences.
- What is a paradigmatic relation? Is it vertical process or horizontal?
- Illustrate the paradigms of nouns and verbs.
- What is meant by syntagmatic relation? Prove this case by examples.

Syntax of the Parts of Speech (Types of Syntactical Relations)

- The notion of syntactic relation
- Coordinative relation
- Subordinative relation
- Predicative relation
- Adjectival relation
- Adverbial relation
- Order of pronouns
- Position of preposition

Definition and its Types

In Latin, Greek and Old English the relation of words to each other were expressed by means of inflexions. Modern English has lost nearly all its inflexions and therefore the relation of words is often shown by its *position* in the sentence. Hence the order in which words are placed sometimes shows us that relation to each other. In flective-synthetic languages the words may be arranged in any order, because the endings show their relation to each other.

One of the important problems of Syntax is the classification and criteria of distinguishing types of *syntactic relations*.

When two words are associated together grammatically, their relation may be one either of *coordination* or of *subordination*.

Thus there are two chief ways in which one word may be related to another:

- One word may be said to *agree* with another;
- One word may be said to *govern* another.

Hence the order in which words are placed sometimes shows us their relation to each other.

Ex.: *The hunter* killed a big wolf – The big wolf killed the hunter.

But in the English sentence «The hunter killed the big wolf», the word «wolf» is governed by the verb «killed» only because it comes after it. If we were to change the order of words, we should also change the meaning: «The big wolf killed the hunter» (please, compare the translations of these sentences in Russian and Uzbek languages). And this item of grammar (i.e. the relation of words) is also one of the objects of syntax.

Classic grammarians (H.Sweet, W.Ripman, E.Allen and others) distinguished two types of relation between words. They used the terms «concord» and «government» of words.

Russian linguist B.A.Ilyish pointed out two types of relation between words calling them as «agreement» and «government». Prof. L.S.Barkhudarov proposes 3 types of syntactical relations which are termed as «coordinative», «subordinative» and «predicative».

Coordinative Relation

By «coordinative» relation linguists understand a syntactic relation between two or more independent words that have equal ranks (status).

Coordination is shown either by word order only, or by the use of form words, as in «men, women and children», where the first two notional words are connected only by their position, while the last two are connected by the form word «and».

Ex.: John and Mary live in this house. This is transformed type of two sentences:

Coordinative Relation

- 1) *John lives in this house.* }
2) *Mary lives in this house.* } *John and Mary live in this house.*
- 1) *Boys came.* }
2) *Girls came.* } *Boys and girls came.*

They may be syndetically (by the help of conjunctions «and», «but», «either...or» and so on and asyndetically connected (without the conjunctions), but through the intonation.

Ex.: *Books, notebooks, pens are on the square table.*

There is no connector. There is semantic connection between them.

Subordinative Relation

By «**subordinative**» relation the linguists understand the relation of two words, one of them is said to be «head» and the second is «adjunct».

adj h adj h
Ex.: a) a sunny day; a great history;
h adj

b) days to come; to see him (her)(intonation, function word, case).

adj h adj h
Uzbek: *kitobni varaqlamoq, bizning sinfdoshimiz*

In subordination there may be three subtypes of relations, according to the grammatical form of the units that go into relations or the construction of sentences depends on three parameters:

- Agreement of words
- Government of words
- Co-location or arrangement of words

The value of word order may be regarded as the first and main of the three (or four) mentioned syntactic processes. With the loss of flexion word order will gain in importance.

By **agreement** linguists understand that subject and predicate agrees and are put in the same number and person. English is a language with limited verb agreement morphology. English subject-predicate agreement is limited both in terms of the number of different forms and situations in which it must apply (Gill's Grammar, 170).

Ex.: He eats the apple with care.

The verb «eats» is in the third person, singular number because it agrees with the pronoun «he».

Ex.: She lives in this house. We study foreign languages at school and colleges.

There is one more agreement between the demonstrative pronouns and nouns. It is observed only in number.

Ex.: This table — these tables. That table — those tables.

By government linguists understand that one word governs (causes) another to be in the same particular case or mood. The transitive verbs in English have such features. They demand noun and pronoun to be in the objective case (to see her (him) = he > him, she > her).

Ex.: King Alfred made good laws for the people.

She lives in this house. He wants to see her to her house.

Another feature characteristic of English syntactic usage is the promotion of the indirect object to the position of subject. When a sentence is turned into the passive voice.

Ex.: John gives Marry a ring — A ring is given (to) Marry by John.

By **co-location** linguists understand the syntactic relation where the words form phrases according to the orthoepic norms of the language — word order and *intonation*. Word order plays so important part that some grammarians would consider the word order as the syntax-status itself (Potter, 1957, 113).

Ex.: The *hunter* killed the lion.

If we were to change the order, we should also change the meaning:

The *lion* killed the hunter.

English is analytical one, the words are co-located without any connector. There are semantic relations between the words.

The construction of the sentences in above cases depends upon: firstly, the verb agrees with the subject in number and person; secondly, objective case is governed by transitive verbs and prepositions; thirdly, the relation of one word to another is often shown by the position in the sentence.

Predicative Relation (or Syntax of the Verb)

Syntax refers to linguistic structures above the word level. The general rule referring the concord of verbs is that a verb agrees with the subject in number and person, but they may be peculiar to each such as the following in English.

Peculiarities:

- singular subjects, connected by *and*, require the verb to be in the plural number.

Ex: Pitt *and* Fox were great statesmen; they were both good orators.

Mercy *and* truth *have* met together.

Note: – when, however, the two nouns describe one subject the verb must be in the singular number: do you know where my needle and thread is? Bread-and-cheese is good.

- Words that are plural in form (as physics, politics, mathematics, phonetics) are, sometimes treated in the singular in construction and some singular nouns have been mistaken for plurals.

Ex.: Phonetics is the base component of linguistics

- When a plural denotes a whole of some kind, the verb may be singular:

Ex.: Forty yards is a good distance. Ten years is along time to wait. Two-thirds of this is mine by right. Twice two is four.

«Books» is a noun in the plural number.

- When subjects differing in number, or person, or both are connected by *and*, the verb must always be in the plural (or require the verb in the singular).

Ex.: I and he are of the same age. You and I shall be too late.

- Singular subjects, separated by *or*, *nor*, or *as well as*, require the verb to be in the singular number;

Ex.: Neither Samuel nor Thomas was there. Neither John nor Mike is mistaken. Neither your father nor your grandfather thinks so. Neither Mary nor I know where he is (Allen, op. cit., 200).

- If the subjects differ in number or person the verb agrees with the nearest subject. Ex.: Neither the emperor nor his generals were convinced

By **predicative** relation linguists understand a special sort of relation that is characteristic of English. It is said to be a special syntactic relation because not always the subject of the sentence and the predicate agree in number.

Compare: All is well that ends well. All is plural, is – in singular form.

Predicative members consist of a subject and a predicate.

Ex.: Students came. We sang.

Thus the goal of grammar teaching must be to enable students to produce *grammatical structures* (i.e. statements, questions, exclamations, imperatives) of simple, compound and complex sentences. Then the paradigmatic – syntagmatic models as well as the syntax of parts of speech due to prescriptive rules accurately, meaningfully and appropriately. This is the province of competence of the grammarian or an intelligent language teacher.

In order to gain accuracy and other parameters, the linguistic description of *form*, *meaning* and *use* are needed. This is the subject of learning/teaching the classic grammarians put forward.

Syntax of the Parts of Speech

1. Order of pronouns

When pronouns, or pronouns and nouns of different persons are coupled together, their relative position varies according to

the number. In the singular the second person comes before the first or third (you and I; you and he, you and John), but the third person comes before the first (he and I).

In the plural *we* has the first place, *you* the second, and *they* the third if a pronoun has to represent words of different persons, the second person stands before the third, and the first of either the second or the third.

Ex.: «You and he must do your work»; «John and I lost our way».

2. Adjective – like words

The indefinite article *an* or *a* should be repeated before each of a series of nouns standing for different things, as «I saw a horse, a cow, and a pig in the stable».

But in the below sentences: «He built a coach house and stable», «Give me a cup and saucer» or «a black and white ball» can only mean «a ball that is partly black and partly white», one article is preferred to use.

If we mean to speak of two balls of different colours, we must say «a black and a white ball», it is preferable to use double article, one before each nouns.

The singular demonstrative adjectives «each» and «every» may be placed once before two or more nouns, as «Every man, woman and child was warned», «Each boy and girl in the team received a gift», «Every man, woman and child was there». «Every leaf and blade of grass was parched».

That is the same with the definite article and demonstrative pronouns «these», «those». Example: «the king and queen», «the tables and chairs», «my uncle, aunt and cousin came yesterday».

3. Adverbs

Position of adverbs.

Adverbs refer to the constituent parts of morphology, i.e. they belong to the notional parts of speech. Their main job is to modify the verb in the sentence. Their position may be seen after the verb (He speaks slowly), between the auxiliary and the notional verb, participle or the infinitive (Mason, 1913, 206).

Ex.: She is *always* coming here. We have *frequently* heard her song.

The adverb should not be inserted between the «to» and the infinitive.

Ex.: The general tried to subdue the Gauls thoroughly or the general tried thoroughly to subdue the Gauls.

The adverbs *ever*, *never* are often misplaced by the verb «remember».

Ex.: I never remember to have left (= I do not remember to have ever left).

Sometimes the meaning is affected by the position of the adverb.

Only Smith (= no one but Smith) passed in grammar.

Smith *only* passed (= he passed, but he did not get distinction) on grammar.

Smith passed *only* in Grammar (= he passed in grammar, but not in other subject).

4. Preposition.

Position of preposition.

The place of preposition is, as a rule, immediately before the words they govern, but in relative and *interrogative* clauses they are often placed at the *end of the clause*.

Ex.: This is not the book (that) I was thinking *of*.

Whom are you looking *for*? I asked him what he was looking *at*.

If there are prepositions in a sentence the first preposition of at same distance from the verb with which it is connected.

Ex.: And generally in all shapes, that man gives up and down in, then spirit walks *in*.

To know the syntax of the parts of speech is to be aware of the constituent parts of morphology, their morphological features in syntactic ordering due to the orthographic norms of the English language. It deals with how to construct statements, questions, imperatives with notional and functional word classes. What word order are to be used for intelligible speech in written and oral forms.

Questions

- Characterize the notion – syntactic relations of linguistic units, point out the definitions on this item.
- What is the second relation and its essence? Illustrate its cases and compare them with your mother tongue.
- Speak about the third relation and its properties. What is its counterpart in Uzbek and Russian.
- What is the peculiarity of the syntax of pronouns? Compare the prescriptive rules of English with Uzbek and Russian.
- What is meant by the syntax of adverbs? Illustrate them with examples.
- What can be said about the syntax of other parts of speech?

The Syntax of Parts of Sentence

- The notion of primary and secondary parts of sentences
- Subject of the sentence and its status
- Predicate of the sentence and its status
- Object of the sentence and its status
- Attribute of the sentence and its status
- Adverbial modifier and its status

All sentences are about something or someone and every sentence is made up of two parts, called the subject and predicate.

From ancient times the following parts of sentence are recognized. Traditionally subject and predicate are usually considered to be primary parts of sentences. Sensible sentences hardly exist without them. Traditional grammarians assumption is that a subject without a predicate is not a sentence; a predicate without a subject is not a sentence either.

Attribute, object and adverbial modifier are considered to be the secondary parts of sentences. They serve to give some sense and completeness to the sentence. Subject is an independent member of a two-member sentence containing the meaning of a person or a predicativity. In the example «He plays chess» the subject «he» denotes the thing that we speak about. But in «plays»

the meaning depends on that of «he». In other words it is dependent.

Subject: Definition and its Types

According to their functions the primary and the secondary parts of sentences may be subjects, predicates, objects, attributes and adverbial modifiers.

The subject is one of the two constituents of a clause or a sentence. The something or the someone that a sentence is about is called the *subject of the sentence*. A subject is always noun or a pronoun. A noun names person, place, or thing.

Subject	predicate	object
The birds	sing	
It	sings	
I	love	truth

Ex.: Irene sent Helen a postcard. *Irene* is a noun, because it is the name of a person.

Subject of a sentence is a word which *does an action* and usually comes before the verb. It may be expressed by a substantivized adjective or participle, by an infinitive, gerund, by a group of words, by a whole subject clause too. (Ilysh, 1971; Kausanskaya, 1973).

The basic rule in composing a sentence in the placement of nouns and verbs in sentences. English syntax describes the proper order and arrangement of the words and is founded upon the meaning and the logical connection of these words that upon their form.

In English, subjects govern agreement on the verb or auxiliary verb that carries the main tense of the sentence. A subject besides agreement matches word order in a sentence too, i.e. its position in relation to the verb group. When affirming or denying something, the subject is placed before the verb group. But when asking a question; the word order is changed.

Ex.: *To know a rule means to use it correctly. To err is human. Listening the news over the TV and radio is my everyday habit. Learning is possible at any age. The wounded were resting near the water. What you decide is nothing to me. Are You leaving?*

Besides subject may be real and formal.

Ex.: *There's a book on my table.*

In this sentence «a book» is a real subject and «there» – the formal subject, («there» – an introductory *adverb*). The subject is what does the action of the verb.

«It» as the subject.

- personal: *It was opened by a cat.*
- demonstrative: *It is Mike.*
- formal subject (impersonal). In this case it denotes natural phenomena.

Ex.: *It often rains. It is cold in autumn.*

- We often use «it» in sentences referring to time, the weather, temperature or distance.

Ex.: *It is 5 minutes past 6. It is morning already. It is late. It is snowing.* The pronoun «it» and the adverb «there» are often used at the beginning of a sentence to take place of the subject.

And this «it» is used in different status: empty.

- «it» as an *empty* subject. In this case it carries no real information. It is present because every English sentence has to contain a subject and predict. It may be used as subject of an *impersonal* (not personal).
- Time: *It is time to go home. It is 11 o'clock. It is Wednesday.*
- Temperature: *It is 40° centigrade/Celsius.*
- Distance: *It is five miles walk from here.*
- The tides: *It is high tide at 12.10*
- Environment: *It is smoky in, open the windows.*
- Present situation: *It is awful. Isn't it shame?*
- With «since»: *It is five minutes since we last meet.*
- With «says»: *It says here «there was a big fire in village».*
- With «take»: *It takes an hour and half to get there (Alexander, 1998, 78).*

«It» as a *preparatory* subject.

In certain cases sentences beginning with «it» continue with an infinitive, a gerund, or a noun clause but people may prefer to begin such sentences with «it».

Ex.: It is pleasant to lie in the sun — *To lie in the sun* is pleasant.

It is pleasant lying in the sun — *Lying in the sun* is pleasant.

The true subject in the above sentences with it is the infinitive, gerund or noun clause and it is preparatory to the subject.

It as a preparatory subject often is used with a following words:

• *Adjectives*: — (e.g. difficult, easy, important, vital, necessary).

Ex.: *It is necessary* we should come in the morning.

It is difficult (for me) to ask her to come.

• *Nouns*: — It is a pity, a pleasure, a shame, obvious.

Ex.: *It is obvious* (that) money does not grow on trees.

It is fun to be here.

• *Verbs*: — appears, happen, look, seem, sound.

Ex.: *It appears* that she forgot to take the letter.

It sounds as if the situation will get worse.

• The use of «it» in *cleft sentences*. If we wish to emphasize

the word or phrase that follows the constructions *It is* or

It was + subject + that + who(n) (Alexander, 1998, 81).

Ex.: Mike phoned Nick yesterday morning (simple sentence, no emphasis). *It was Mike who* phoned Nick last morning (and not I).

It was Anne whom Nick phoned last morning (and not Henry).

It was last morning that Mike phoned (and not this morning).

The formal subject is «there», used when the notional subject is expressed by a noun (a noun phrase, gerundial phrase).

Ex.: *There* was a table in the yard. There was a table and four chairs in the garden. There was *no persuading* him. *There's* no use complicating. *There's* no use crying over splitting milk.

The choice of the verb largely determines what other elements are used in the clause, such as whether an object is present or not.

The predicate of sentence may be: **simple** (verbal) and **compound** (nominal)

- Simple predicate:

Simple predicate may be synthetic (walks, walked, washed) or analytic forms (The baby is walking; The cakes will be sold tomorrow; Mr. Henry has been working since morning). In simple predicate the number of auxiliary verbs may be from one to three.

a) by a notional verb: I *study* German at college. We *have* many friends. We *are leaving* home tomorrow. Time *flies*. I *love*.

b) by a phraseological unit: to have a wash; to take care; to get rid; to have a swim

Ex.: Children! Have a wash before eating. Our neighbor always takes care of his dog.

- Compound predicate:

a) *a finite verb* and other parts of speech, the second component is the significant part of the predicate.

b) compound nominal predicate: consists of a link verb and a predicative. There are three groups of link verbs:

1) of being: to be, to look, to seem, to appear, to smell, to feel;

2) of becoming: to become, to turn, to grow, to make, to set;

3) of remaining: to remain, to continue, to keep, to stay.

Ex.: The child looks quite healthy. She looks bad.

She remained sitting.

Verbs are also often accompanied by verb – like words called modals (can, may, must, etc.) and auxiliaries (do, have, will, shall, should, would, etc.) to give them different meanings. From this angle compound verbal predicate is divided into:

- a) *Compound verbal modal predicate*.

Ex.: We can run quickly to the house. I have to work hardly.

- b) *Compound verbal aspective predicate*

Ex.: She stopped asking questions. I used to write poetry myself.

They continued to argue. We used to speak in this way.

Thus, predicate contains information about someone or something that is the subject.

Object: Definition and its Types

Object is one of the secondary part of sentence. It is expressed by the following parts of speech: a *noun*, a *pronoun*. The noun or pronoun which follows a preposition is in the objective case and is said to be governed by the preposition. Usually an object comes after the verbs and the object is what receives the action or by a preposition preceding it.

The object of a verb may be:

1. *Simple* 2. *Compound* 3. *Complex*

• *Direct object.* The direct object is the common one typically referring to some person or thing directly affected by the action expressed by the verb. The direct object denotes a person or thing directly affected by the action of the verb.

Ex.: *I saw Nelly in the bus. I saw three ships.*

She opened the book. I sent him there.

• *Indirect object.* The indirect object typically refers to an animate being which is the recipient of the action. In these cases, a direct object is usually present in the clause as well.

In these constructions the indirect object precedes the direct.

Ex.: The teacher gave me a control work. He gave *each man* his share.

Give your brother a *share*.

The object mostly refers to the words denoting actions or qualities which are in their finite or non-finite forms, or adjectives.

Ex.: *The girl closed her eyes.* (The object refers to the verb «close» in the finite form)

The indirect object denotes mostly a person towards whom the action is directed. Ex.: *They sent him a telegram. Give her this book.*

The *indirect prepositional object* is an indirect object used with the preposition «to» (the «to-phrase»). Ex.: *I'll show it to him.*
I gave my notebook *to the monitor.*

The *prepositional object* is one which is connected with the word it refers to with the help of a preposition. Ex.: *Rely on me. She looked at him. I objected to it.*

The *cognate object* expressed by nouns of the same root or meaning with the verb it refers to. Ex.: *He laughed a hearty laugh. A fellow must live his own life.*

The *complex object* is one where there exists a predicative connection between the two main elements.

Ex.: *She heard the hell singing.* (It is expressed by a construction with Participle I). I saw *her come in.*

Object can be noun phrases or certain kind of subordinate clause.

Phraseologic object: To die the death of a hero.

Object clause: He said he would come at 5.

Attribute: Definition and its Types

Attribute — is also secondary part of a sentence. The position of which is not certain in the sentence. It may stand *before or after the noun* they modify. Attribute can be expressed by any parts of speech.

Ex.: *a silky shirt; a tie of my father's; next day.*

I am celebrating my *parent's* day.

The *frozen* ground was hard as stone (a participle).

The world was a *beautifully friendly* place (an adjective phrase).

Whose dwelling is the light of setting suns,

And the round ocean and the living air,

And the blue sky, and in the mind of man.

Adjectives may be used after a verb to complete the predicate.

Ex.: He made the stick straight. Fear made him speechless.

The *attributive use* is that in which the adjective directly modifies or limits the meaning of the principle word. It may, especially in poetry, follow the word which it belongs (Greenbaum, 1996, 127).

Ex.: At last he rose and twitches his mantle *blue*,
Tomorrow to fresh words and pastures *new*.

Adverbial Modifier: Definition and its Types

Adverbial modifier is a secondary part of a sentence too, showing time, place, circumstances, condition and some other features of the action.

• Adverbials perform a number of roles in sentence construction. Some add *information* about an event, some *link* clauses together, and some *add a comment* about what is being expressed.

Ex: We talked *slowly*.

I sometimes see her *late* (frequency).

Don't speak *without thinking* (prepositional phrase).

On hearing this I opened the window (gerund with a preposition).

I met him *at the post-office* (adverbial phrase).

• Adverbials express a wide range of meanings, such as *manner, place, and time*.

Ex.: Come *at once* (time).

You must not talk *so fast* (manner).

Come *here*. Don't stand *there* (place).

• Adverbials can be used in several possible positions in the clause, though they are common at the end.

Ex.: *Twice* I asked him. I *twice* asked him. I asked him *twice*.

Adverbial phrases (including single adverbs) are prepositional phrases, some nouns and noun phrases, or certain kinds of subordinate clause belong to them.

Ex.: They walked *home*. We walked *in the square*.

She phoned me *this morning*.

We laughed *when he appeared at the gate*.

The would be teacher of English or philologist ought to know, firstly, levels of sentence structure; the four levels — word, phrase, clause, sentence — comprise the grammatical hierarchy of sentence structure; *secondly*, sentence types and functions, clause elements simple and multiple sentences structures, spoken and writing syntax, their grammatical

peculiarities, the other sentence issues, comment, reporting speech and each grammatical paradoxes.

Questions

- Enumerate the main constituents of a sentence and their features.
- Mention the secondary parts of sentence and their identical features.
- What is a subject and how is it expressed by? Give examples.
- What is a predicate, its types and how are they expressed or composed of?
- What is an object and its types? How are the objects expressed in sentence? Give examples.
- Point out the difference between prepositional and indirect prepositional objects.
- What does an attribute denote in a sentence? Give examples.
- What features of the action does the adverbial modifier denote in the sentences?
- What properties would bring if the learners know the grammar of the language?
- Explain the use of «only» in different positions in sentence structure. Give your reasons to illustrate this rule – syntax of adverbs.

I only am permitted to tell you.

I am only permitted to tell you.

I am permitted to tell you only.

- Explain or distinguish between.

Only he lost his child.

He lost his only child.

He lost only his child.

He lost his child only

SUMMARY

The formation of language begins at birth. Years pass youth begins to realize that the more words they hear and repeat, the more their world is expanding.

Language is the chief means by which the human personality expresses itself and fulfills its basic need for social interaction with other persons. A person who knows a language properly uses a thousand and one grammar, lexical, phonetico-phonological rules when he/she is speaking. Language sketches help us to choose different words and syntactic structure models in our speech.

By «grammar» one can mean adequate comprehension and correct usage of words in the act of communication that is intuitive knowledge of grammar of the language.

First of all the knowledge or pedagogical proficiency in the teaching subject gives the ability to make up sentences correctly, to reproduce the necessary types of simple, compound and complex sentences to formulate the text adequately.

The knowledge of specific grammar structure helps the youngsters point out that differences between the mother tongue and the target language.

The phylosophy of English Syntax

Syntax is the study of the architecture of phrases, clauses and sentences; that is, of the way they are constructed in contrast to morphology. Syntax deals with the units higher than words, which compose a more or less broader idea or thoughts.

We are going to mention the core elements of the theory of syntax, that is about the *structure* of phrases, clauses and sentences.

- The words in a language are organized into different word classes or parts of speech.
- Words or sentences are not just strings of elements arranged in left-to-right order, but are also arranged in hierarchical constituent structures.

The **first point** the linguists have grouped words into *phrasal categories*, which include items such as noun phrases, verb-adjective phrases, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases and so on. The aim of this item is to define their constituent parts or the attributes — the *head* and the *adjunct*, and their structural types;

The **second item** of linguists' job is the *notion of clause* and its *types*, such as subject, predicate, adjective, object and adverbial clauses, then determine their functions in complex sentences.

The **third point** we are to acquaint is the *notion of sentence*, its types from various points of view. The job of grammarians is to find out the nature types and area of usage of sentences due to different criteria.

The short survey mentions certain problems in defining in one-member and two-member, and elliptical sentences.

One more item the learner ought to acquaint is the *parts of sentences* and their functions in the formulation of complete thought and human interchange. Thus, syntax is the construction of meaningful phrases, clauses and sentences with the use of morphological units — morphemes and words.

The **next item** we are dealing with is the content of grammar teaching, which is disputable among teachers and methodologists, and there are various approaches to the question, (i.e.) the problem of determiners, aspect of verbs, gender of nouns, tense forms of verbs, the nature of statives and certain types of sentences.

By «teaching grammar» we also mean the system of language, the discovery and description of the nature of language itself. It is not a natural grammar, but a constructed one. There are several constructed grammars: traditional, structural, transformational grammars and etc.

Traditional grammar studies the forms of words (morphology) and how they are put together in sentences (syntax);

Structural grammar studies structures of various levels of language (morpheme level and syntactic level);

Transformational grammar studies basic structures and transformation rules (see Historical development of English grammar).

Through learning/teaching we can mean adequate comprehension and correct usage of words in the act of communication. From what we have discussed it becomes clear that the notion «grammar» has meant various things at various times, and sometimes several things at one time. This plurality of meanings is characteristic of the present linguistics and is the source of the confusion in the discussion of the components of grammar and part of education of pupils and youngsters.

There have been taking place violent disputes on the subject of teaching and learning grammar both at secondary or higher schools. They all in all the provinces of the concept of grammar.

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description. Thus the school syllabus reflect a traditional approach to determining grammar material for the teaching pupils are given sentences patterns or structures, and through these structures they assimilate the English language, acquire grammar mechanisms of speech. (Sattarov, 2000).

The teacher must try to bring linguistics into the auditorium all the time, in small ways, every lesson and in more significant ways as often as they can. It is only then, the grammar (and its multiple definitions) is studied.

• The pedagogical grammar needs to be informed by what is known about the nature of language and about how languages are acquired. It means that the goal of language teaching is not to teach abstract rules of competence, but to get students to comprehend general awareness of the notion of the material and the specific linguistic features of any language (Maksumov, 2009, 109).

In conclusion one may say:

The study of language is a part of general knowledge. In the study of language grammar occupies a central position, as it is difficult to consult grammar books without in a necessary knowledge of grammar.

To know grammar is to be aware and recognize of grammatical structures of sentences types due to certain approaches:

- meaning, structure, completeness and construction;
- recognition of the general morphological classification of languages and nature of synthetical and analytical forms of sentences' formation;

- be familiar with the prescriptive rules of grammar usage, i.e. the set of rules of grammar that allow which combinations of words are possibly in the language and which are not;

- a study of one's native grammar is helpful when one studies the grammar of a foreign language, its open and closed word classes and word's uses;

- a knowledge of grammar is a help in the understanding, usage and interpretation of comparative and typological analysis of grammatical phenomena, to find out resemblances and non-resemblances for their specificity;

- learning about English grammar is a basis of language for learning other living languages to be able to communicate. If there's no grammar, there can be no effective communication, which reveals everything in the process of life. And once more grammar is the fundamental component organizing principle of language.

- a study of grammatical recourses of mother tongue and a foreign language helps the teachers to conduct the teaching/learning process adequately and intelligibly.

Appendix

Exercises for the English Nouns

Exercise 1

- Write twenty Proper Nouns with their corresponding Common ones.
- Make Abstract Nouns from the following words: — bright, soft, wide, true, king, rich, playful.
- Write six Abstract Nouns ending in *-ness*, four in *-dom*, four in *-ence*, four in *-ice*, and four in *-ity*.

Exercise 2 Plural of nouns

Show what is wrong in the following sentences:

1. I do not like those sort of people.
2. Did you witness the curious tennis match?
3. He has passed through many crises.
4. In this week we've attended to course of lectures in phonetic and physic.

Exercise 3

Tell the case of each noun:

1. Harry broke his bicycle.
2. The thief was caught.
3. The sun's rays melted the snow.
4. Did John find his top?
5. The frost has killed the flowers.
6. The dog tore Mary's dress.
7. Chestnuts are ripe.
8. Has the farmer sown his wheat?
9. The merchant kept boys', men's, and ladies' shoes.
10. When will the train leave?

Exercise 4

Point out the nouns in the objective case, and tell by what kinds of nouns are they expressed:

1. Have you caught any fish?
2. He has been here fortnight.
3. I saw your uncle, Mr. White, in the village.
4. His house is ten miles from the station.
5. The president has appointed Mr. Smith postmaster.
6. My cousin gave Robert a pony.
7. The cat has killed Tony, my canary.
8. The fish weighed three pounds.
9. Mary sent her aunt a basket of flowers.
10. We returned home after dark.
11. He lectured on Longfellow, the author of «Evangeline.»
12. The snake measured four feet from head to tail.

Exercise 5

- Tell the number of the following nouns:
child, mouse, tooth, sheep, box, valley, staff, half, glass, witch.
- Form the plural of: —
pony, miss, chimney, sky, echo, beauty, wife, cliff, thief, calf.

Exercise 6

Distinguish the Feminine from Masculine: -

Bachelor -	Actor -
Bull -	Baron -
Gentleman -	Count -
Nephew -	Duke -
Sir -	Emperor -
Uncle -	Heir -
Jew -	Host -
Negro -	Hero -
Sultan -	Man-servant -
Cock-sparrow -	Male-child -

Exercises for the Adjectives

Exercise 7

Classify adjectives in the following passages under the rubrics:

- qualitative adjectives;
- quantitative adjectives;
- relative adjectives;

- a) The way was long. The wind was cold. The minstree was infirm and old;
- b) The wizered cheek and tresses grey, seemed to have known a better day;
- c) The harp, his sole remaining joy, was carried by an orphan boy.
- d) Less easy task it were, to show
The brave officers nameless grave and low
They dug his grave then where he lay,
But every mark is gone.
- e) O, what a tangled web we weave, when first we practice to deceive?

Exercise 8

- *Say whether the following words denote quality, number, quantity, or distinction:*

kind, seventh, black, one, this, large, a, short, weekly, the, orderly, good, twenty, some, quick, each, an, neither.

- *Make adjectives from the following words and say whether they are noun or verbal: -*

silk, dirt, life, north, love, gentlemen, play, law, sing, fruit.

- *Supply adjectives of quantity:*

1. ... men are really happy. 2. Give me ... apples. 3. ... people were destroyed by the famine. 4. Do out eat ... of the plums. 5. ... pears are sweet and ... sour.

Exercises for the Pronouns

Exercise 9

Make five sentences containing: the indefinite pronoun **«one»** in the possessive case; an interrogative pronoun **«whom»** in the objective case; the pronoun **«ourselves»** used reflexively, the pronoun **«ourselves»** used to mark emphasis; the relative pronoun **«as»** in the objective case.

Exercise 10

Tell the relative pronouns:

1. I have lost the book that you lent me. 2. The tailor that lived on Broadway has moved. 3. The rain which threatened has passed over. 4. Have you seen the sailor that returned from Hawaii last week? 5. I know the little boy whose name is Jack. 6. Rudyard Kipling, whom Americans at first disliked because he criticised them severely, has since become a favorite author in United States. 7. Lightning struck the tree under which we were sitting. 8. My friend whom you met is a doctor. 9. He laughs best who laughs last. 10. He was always just, even to people whom he disliked. 11. Who is the man that you were talking with just now? 12. The book that you spoke of is in the library. 13. He knew me the minute he saw me. 14. Give me what you have in your hand. 15. Whatever he undertakes prospers. 16. Whoever crosses this line does so at his peril. 17. There is no one in the school but likes him.

Exercise 11

a) Distinguish the use of the word *«that»* in the following sentences:

- He that runs may read.
- All people that on earth do dwell.

Learn each of the following pairs of sentences into one by using a relative pronoun instead of the italicized pronoun:

- He shall be my brother. He sheds his blood with me today.
- I am contented. I am poorer than you.
- They are but faint hearted their courage fall, in time of danger.
- The cloth is not the same. I asked for that (cloth).
- I saw the captain. You are going to sail in his ship.
- That picture was painted by my brother. You liked it so much.

Exercise 12

• Write the objective forms of:

I, we, you, he, she, it, they.

• Write the Nominative forms of:

him, them, you, us, me, her, him.

• Compose sentences with these words.

Exercise 13

Personify the following nouns and supply Pronouns:

1. The power of England is great; (...) governs one-seventh of the world.
2. Charity drops (...) loving tears.
3. For winter came; the wind was (...) whip.

Exercise 14

Classify the following pronouns:

I, he, who, we, they, which, you, what, her, it, me, mine, that, one, us, those, whose, their, them and whom.

Exercise 15

Define the pronouns in the following:

1. They spoke to each other and thought themselves wise.

2. I knew the man who caught the whole.

3. Come and trip it as you go,

On the light fantastic toe.

Exercises for the Verbs

Exercise 16

Classify the verbs according to meaning:

1. Robert shot three pigeons yesterday. 2. How soon will the moon rise?
3. He called, but no one answered. 4. Alice has received a letter from her cousin. 5. The hunter called his dog and waked away. 6. The sun is shining brightly. 7. Her brother has painted his top. 8. They are sometimes caught in traps. 9. The farmer sows wheat in the spring. 10. I have fought the good fight. 11. The postmaster is my uncle. 12. Leaves fall when cold weather comes. 13. Was the driver much hurt? 14. The town was almost destroyed by fire. 15. The roads are muddy. 16. The Spanish were defeated in the battle of Manila. 17. The days are growing shorter. 18. He turned everything upside down. 19. The thief turned and fled. 20. Come and trip it as you go. 21. He was then a captain, but soon after became colonel. 22. She seemed indifferent.

Exercise 17

Say if the following verbs are transitive or intransitive. Prove their valency composing sentences:

Dig, find, run, play, bless, is, strike, have, he, lay, ride set, let, feel, speak, run, consider, regard, eat, enter, write, sing and was.

Exercise 18

Classify the following verbs as regular and irregular:

Sing, dwell, keep, read, run, smoke, break, place, eat, sleep, love, swim, change, add, am, begin, knew, take, think, go, become, build.

Exercise 19

Tell the tense of each verb:

1. The frost has killed the flowers. 2. The leaves will soon fall. 3. Last year they fell a month earlier than this. 4. Does the fire burn well? 5. It burned well this morning, but it is not burning well now. 6. They will have the chimney cleaned tomorrow. 7. He has been studying all the afternoon. 8. Has he learned his lesson? 9. He did not know his lesson this morning, because he had not studied it. 10. He was playing ball when I saw him last.

11. I know the house you mean. 12. The train has just left when we reached the station. 13. I shall tell him so when I see him. 14. You will not know him, he has changed so much. 15. If you do not write at once he will have started before your letter reaches him. 16. Have you seen my top? 17. Harry will tell you where it is. 18. I am not going to tell you. 19. He had been told that often enough.

Exercise 20

Tell the mood of each verb:

1. All that glitters is not gold. 2. Come when you are called. 3. Three black crows set on a tree. 4. Were I Brutus, and Brutus Antony, there were an Antony would ruffle up your spirits. 5. God send me a better prince! 6. This generation shall not pass away till all these things be fulfilled. 7. Ring out, you bells, across the snow! 8. The rose smells sweet. 9. Ruth found two eggs in the ground. 10. Alice received a letter from her cousin.

Exercise 21

Define and analyze the following:

The storm *came* on before its time;

She *wondered* up and down;

And many a hill did Lucy *climb*,

But never *reached* the town.

Exercise 22

Define the verb and adverbs in the following verse:

When I was here three years ago,

This grave was not yet made.

And the fearless boy who sleeps below,

About the village played.

Exercise 23

Define the words in italics in the following verse:

No sound of joy and sorrow,

Was heard from either bank,

But friends and *foes*, in dumb *surprise*,

With parted lips and straining eyes.

Stood gazing *where* he sank. — Macalay.

Exercise 24

Classify the verbs in the following sentences in the Active, Passive, or Middle voices:

1. He loves me. I love him. 2. John sees the cat. The cat sits on the chair. 3. I am loved by my sister. My sister sees me. 4. He sat down. 5. The earth moves around the sun. 6. I was frightened by the bull. 7. The doctor cured the invalid. 8. The tree waves. 9. They heard each other voice. 10. She told us we could not go. 11. Give honour to whom honour is due. 12. He is loved and respected by his servant.

Exercise 25

Explain the use of auxiliaries in the following sentences, i.e. define whether they are Voice, Tense, Aspect, Order, and Emphatic auxiliaries:

1. The cabbage is grown.
2. He has written the test.
3. I do think so.
4. She is looking for her pussy cat.
5. Susan shall knit.
6. I was pleased.
7. You shall again see it.
8. Will you go for me?

Exercises for the Infinitive

Exercise 26

Point out the infinitives and the participles:

1. Seeing a dark cloud coming up, I turned back.
2. Such a striking resemblance is not often seen.
3. He caught the dog killing a chicken.
4. We could not face the blinding snow.
5. The keeper made the bear dance.
6. To hesitate now is to confess ourselves defeated.

Exercise 27

Define the infinitive:

1. He resolved, rather than yield,
To die with honour in the field.
2. If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
3. I must not have you question me.
4. I have the wish, but want the will to act.
5. To be good is to be happy.
6. And what I do in anything
To do it as to you.
7. There is no time to waste.
8. I have no desire to offend you.
9. We are glad to see you.
10. They arrived too late to catch the train.
11. Be so good as to answer at once.
12. He was not strong enough to lift it.

Exercise 28

Define the verbal nouns and participles:

1. The children stood watching them out of the town.
2. There is nothing either good or bad but thinking makes it so.
3. The dancing pair that simply sought renown, by holding out to tire each other down.
4. Let us, then, be up and doing, with a heart for any fate; still achieving, still pursuing, learn to labour and to wait.
5. The world is too much with us: late and soon,
Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers;
Little we see in nature then is ours;
We have given our hearts away, a sordid boon!

6. I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers,
From the seas and the streams;
I bear eight shade for the leaves when laid.
7. All thinking things, all objects of all thought,
All rolls through all things.
8. Palmer's teachings have had great influence.
9. He is sure of finding friends enough.
10. We enjoyed reading her letter.

Exercises for the Adverbs

Exercise 29

Classify the following adverbs:

Soon, secondly, clearly, well, wisely, wherever, not, whether, whenever, again, often, only, sometimes, almost, wherefore, otherwise, why, then.

Exercise 30

Make adverb from the adjectives. Compose sentences:

bad, noble, wicked, kind, hurried, soft, pleasant, wise, sweet and proper.

Exercise 31

Point out adverbs, tell to which class each belongs, and what it modifies:

1. Christmas will soon be here. 2. She listened very patiently to his rather tedious explanation. 3. When will your father return? 4. Too many cooks spoil broth. 5. I hope you will be quite strong when I come again. 6. Slowly and sadly we laid him to rest. 7. You are not careful enough. 8. Sometimes he answered harshly. 9. He is far brighter than his brother, who is quite dull. Walk fast, and don't talk so loud. 10. Yonder gleam the lances of the foe. 11. Why did you stay out so late? 12. The family formerly lived in Chicago. 13. I could hardly hear him. 14. The mail is delivered there twice a day.

Exercise 32

Point out adverbs, tell to which class each belongs, and what it modifies:

1. They are almost all gone now. 2. Often she rejects, but never once offends. 3. All day the wind breathes low with mellow tone. 4. The slower the current the deeper the stream. 5. Fools rush in where the angels fear to tread. 6. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. 7. Slowly and smoothly went the ship, moved onward from beneath.

Exercise 33

Supply different kinds of adverbs:

1. The bird sings (man). 2. I expect a letter (time). 3. The boy is (place). 4. The boy was (degree) drowned. 5. Socrates was (degree) wise. 6. The Clark writes (man). 7. Speak (man). 8. Play (man). 9. He came (number).

Exercises for the Conjunctions

Exercise 34

Supply Alternative, Adversative, Causative, and Copulative conjunctions:

Copulative — Napoleon crossed the Alps (...) he defeated the Italians. Napoleon was a statesman (...) a warrior. Jane plays (...) she sings.

Alternative — (...) he is mad ... he is affected. Jane (...) plays (...) sings.

Adversative — Jane plays, (...) she cannot sing. King Alfred was brave (...) Danes defeated him. Alfred was defeated (...) he was not dismayed. The Saxons under Alfred fought bravely (...) the Danes would have been victorious.

Causative — Jane plays, (...) she loves music. The Normans defeated the Saxons (...) . William was made king. William ruled with an iron hand (...) the Saxons rebelled. Northumbrians rebelled (...) William lads waste their country.

Exercise 35

Point out and classify the conjunctions and the conjunctive adverbs:

1. I care not whether he goes or stays. 2. He is welcome wherever he goes. 3. I will give you an answer as soon as my brother returns. 4. It is a year since I saw him last. 5. It is said that men of few words are the best men. 6. Freely we serve because we freely love. 7. It matters not how he looks, so he can do the work. 8. I know that I can find it. 9. He is taller than I am. 10. Though it is past twelve o'clock, the train has not yet come. 11. If any one asks for me, say that I shall be back for long. 12. She gave him not only something to eat, but also some closing. 13. Ask him whether he knows the road to Weston. 14. A holiday was given in order that the children might see the parade.

Exercises for the Prepositions

Exercise 36

Define what relations are expressed by the prepositions in the following sentences:

1. The bird flew over the house.
2. The king was found in the garden.
3. After the sunshine comes the rain.
4. The tunnel runs through Lamansh.
5. King Alfred lived before William the Conqueror.
6. The standard was carried before the army.

Exercises for the Syntax

Exercise 37

Tell the verbs and verb-phrases:

1. My fingers are so numb I cannot write. 2. May your shadow never grow less! 3. I would help you if I could. 4. I hope you may succeed. 5. Enjoy your

holiday while may. 6. It is better that I should stay where I am. 7. If he had stuck to it, he could have made his fortune. 8. We should do to others as we would that they should do to us. 9. If he should not be at home, leave a message for him. 10. He gave orders that the spy should be shot at daybreak. 11. If he has my mail, I will turn back home. 12. If I were not busy today I should go hunting. 13. If I see him tomorrow, I will tell him. 14. If I had been there, he would not have escaped. 15. Had he known it earlier he could have saved you the trouble.

Exercise 38

Point out the complete subject, the simple subject, and the adjuncts of the simple subject:

1. To be weak is to be miserable. 2. Seeing is believing. 3. To see is to believe. 4. Your coming has made us happy. 5. Walking so fast will tire you. 6. To hear him weep cuts me to the heart.

Exercise 39

Analyze:

Orpheus with his lute *made* trees,
And the *mountain* tops that freeze,
Bow *themselves*, when he did sing:
Toe his music, plants and flowers
Ever *sprung*; as sun and showers
There had made a *lasting* spring.

Shakespeare, Henry VIII.

Exercise 40

Define the words in italics. Analyze:

a) If this great world of *joy* and *pain*,
Revolve in one sure track;
If *freedom* set will rise again,
And *virtue* flown come back.

b) This England never did, nor never shall,
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror,
But when it first did help to wound itself.
Now these her princess are come home again,
Come the three corners of the world in arms,
And we shall shock them. Nought shall make us rue,
If England to itself do rest *but true*.

Shakespeare, King John.

Exercise 41

Define the fully words in italics. Analyze the following passage:

Virtue may choose the high or low degree,
It is *just alike* to virtue and to me;
Dwell in a monk, or *eight* upon a king,
She's *still* the *same* beloved contented thing.

Exercise 42

Write two short sentences in illustration of the rules of syntax that refer to the verb and its subject.

Exercise 43

Correct the following errors and say what rules of syntax are violated.

1. Either men can do it. 2. I and you can do it. 3. Neither you nor I are ready. 4. Each of the hoarses are here. 5. I and you are proud. 6. Him and I are in the first class. 7. John wrote and reads the letter. 8. He gave you and I an account of it.

Exercises for the Sentences

Exercise 44

Correct or improve the following:

1. She told you and I. that I will come.
2. As he lay down the weight, it slipped and has broke his arm.
3. He said he won't give me none.

Exercise 45

Correct or improve:

1. They each followed in their turn.
2. I he don't know I am sure I don't.
3. These sort of men are sure met to speak true like we do.

Exercise 46

Correct the following sentences, giving your reasons:

1. We can easier waik than drive.
2. Who do you think I saw yesterday?
3. Everyone must be best judge of their own feelings.
4. No sound but their own voices were heard.
5. He is one whom I think in worthy of «notice».
6. She writes better than me.

Exercise 47

Correct errors, if any on the following sentences, and account for your corrections:

1. Between you and I that man is greatly over-related.
2. Morning or evening are the best time for meditation.
3. If she speaks so he be a liar.
4. Neither William nor I are going.
5. On one ran as quickly as he.
6. Nor want nor cold his course delay.

Exercise 48

Correct the following errors, and state your reason for each correction:

- I know it was he who told me.
I would go if I were him. It was her who sang the song.

It was either him or his brother who told me.

Exercise 49

Correct the following errors and state your reason for the corrections you make:

Will you not have no more, I have wrote the letter.

It will never he no letter.

This garden is the richest of the two.

I didn't see nobody. I drunk it yesterday.

She told you and I, that I will come.

He said he won't give me none.

Exercise 50

Correct the following sentences, giving your reasons:

1. This was one of those base natures that that is insensible to disgrace.
2. Who do you think I met this morning?
3. I will be killed and nobody shall save me.
4. Neither nor his brother were there.
5. He is one whom I think is worthy of notice.
6. We can easier wall than drive.
7. Every judge of their own feelings.

Exercises for the Agreement

Exercise 51

Explain why the following sentences are incorrect:

1. I should not do that if I was you.
2. That's him as hit and scold you.
3. I don't like those sort of questions.
4. I never told nobody nothing.
5. The way laying on the grass.

Exercise 52

Form two short sentences to show agreement in gender, and two others to show agreement in number; and then explain what grammatical agreement means.

Exercises for the Analysis of Sentence

Exercise 53

Point out the subject and the predicate in each sentence:

1. Alaska is cold country.
2. Have you seen Alice today?
3. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
4. Gray hairs are honorable.
5. A merry old soul was he.
6. One good turn deserves another.
7. Why does he loiter here?
8. How calmly the midnight moon ascends!
9. What reason did he give for his absence?
10. The spirits of your father shall start from every wave.
12. Three

years she grew in sun and shower. 13. Raise the flag at sunrise. 14. May the thought of thought of those happier days cheer you in you lonely home? 15. The birds have gone to sleep.

Exercise 54

Define the clauses expressing condition. They may be defined into these classes:

- *Read (or logical)*
- *Supposition (or doubt)*
- *Unreal*

Examples:

I. If he is breathing he is living.

If she says that, she lies.

II. If she was without live, she was without hate.

If it was you, then I have nothing to say.

III. If you do these things, show yourself to the world.

If he is a good actor, let him recite a poem before the audience.

If she is a professor, let her show us her articles.

IV. If I knew, I would tell you about the event.

If I were you, I should take the floor.

If he were here, he could speak for himself.

If she had known about the wedding, she would have told you.

If I were not busy today, I should go hunting.

If he had been there, she would not have escaped.

Had he known it earlier he could have saved you the trouble

Learn by heart these proverbs, sayings and poems.

Underline parts of speech and define them.

1. Often she rejects, but never once offends.
2. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
3. Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.
4. Under the greenwood tree,
Who loves to lie with me,
And turn his merry note
Unto the sweet bird's throat,
Come hither, come hither, come hither:
Here shall he see no enemy
But winter and rough weather.
5. The sun descending in the west,
The evening star does shine,
The birds are silent in their nest,
And I must seek for mine.

6. That man may last, but never lives,
Who much receives, but nothing gives;
Whom none can love, whom none can thank, —
Creation's blot, creation's blank.

7. Whoever fights, whoever falls,
Justice conquers evermore.

8. This is the book you asked for.
That is yours; this is mine.
These are the men t told you of.
Those are the books I want, not these.

9. Last night the moon had a golden ring,
And to-night no moon we see!
The skipper he blew a whiff from his pipe,
And a scornful laugh laughed he.

(Longfellow)

10. What is yours is mine, and all mine is yours.

11. Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers.

12. Prosperity makes friends, adversity tries them.

13. Justice, sir, is the great insert of man on earth.

14. Before the bright sun rises over the hill

Int he cornfield poor Mary is seen.

15. Around the fire one wintry night
the farmer's rosy children sat.

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GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMS

1. **LANGUAGE:** a) communication between human beings by means of using speech and hearing ; b) the speech of the particular people or nation.

Languages may be divided into: Living, Dead, Local, Baby, Mixed, Cognate and Body languages.

Cognate – having a common origin with regard to linguistics or culture.

2. **LEVEL:** A layer in hierarchy of language structure.

Levels are: phonetic-phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactical.

3. **GRAMMAR:** a) in ancient Greek it meant «The art of correct writing and reading». Nowadays it studies the grammatical structure of a language. Other definitions: b) the rules themselves; the book that teaches these rules; the study of the forms of words and how they are put together in sentences.

4. **MORPHOLOGY:** Comes from Greek «morphē» – «form» and «logos» – meaning «science», i.e. it is «the science of word forms». It means that the study of the internal structure of words, and of the rules by which words are formed.

IRREGULAR INFLEXIONAL MORPHOLOGY: Types of irregularity:

- Noun plurals are formed by unusual suffix: oxen, syllabi, antennal.
- Change of stem vowel: foot/feet, swim/swam, sing/sang, break/broke.
- Change of stem vowel with unusual suffix: brother/brothers, feel/felt, kneel/knelt, write/written, do/done, fly/ flown.
- Zero marking: (no suffix, no change): deer, sheep, fish, moose.

REGULAR INFLEXIONAL MORPHOLOGY: Types of regularity:

- Noun plurals are usually formed by adding the «-s» or «-es»;
- Verbs: Past tense is formed by adding «-d» or «-ed»; Past Participle is formed by adding «-en» (taken, fallen, eaten).

ENGLISH INFLEXIONAL MORPHOLOGY: English has only 3 categories of meaning which are expressed inflectionally known as inflexional categories. They are number and case in nouns, tense/aspect and person in verbs and comparison in adjectives and certain adverbs. English has a small inventory of affixes and does not always use affixes to express these categories.

5. MORPHOLOGICAL FORM: It is the change of words by means of inflexions. Ex: speaks, wanted, cleverer.

6. MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION: The classification of languages on the presence or absence of affixes into Agglutinative and Flective.

Agglutinative – here each affix has only one grammatical meaning. Uzbek: ot + lar + da (on the horses). Such languages tend to have lots of easily separable morphemes.

Flective: here affixes are polysemantic. One affix may denote 3 or more meanings. German and Russian languages belong to this group. This leads to one bound morpheme conveying multiple pieces of information.

Amorphous (Isolating): languages that have no affixes are called amorphous. They are Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, Serb and so on. These languages have little to no morphology.

Incorporated (polysynthetic): in such type where a word is a whole sentence. American Indian languages belong to this group.

7. AFFIXATION: inflexions attached to the beginning or the end of the word. Ex.: «unfinished», «readable».

Inflexions are subdivided into 4 groups:

- **AFFIX:** a meaningful element which does not occur alone, but always attached to a base (root).

- **INFIX:** the inflexion neither added before nor after the word, but the root is itself changed. Ex: mice – mouse, see – saw, go – went, build – built.

- **PREFIX:** a morpheme (inflexion) placed in front of a word to add or to change the meaning: «to overdone», «mislead», «unknown».

- **SUFFIX:** one or more inflexions or morphemes added at the end of a word to form a new word, as «badly», «spoonful», «cleverness».

8. GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE: All the grammatical means or mechanisms which help to connect words into sentences. On the bases of selecting the signals languages may be synthetical and analytical.

ANALYTICAL LANGUAGE: Lack grammatical inflexions in comparison to synthetical languages. They make wide use of word order and functional words to express the grammatical meaning. Ex.: Look at the handle of this door.

SYNTHETICAL LANGUAGE: Use mostly inflexions in words to express the grammatical meanings.

9. INFLEXION: Adding endings like «-s», «-es», «-ed», «-ing», «-er», «-est» to change the form of a word. Inflexions may be outer and inner. These inflexions combine with roots to form the categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. (e.g. in «cat-s», «talk-ed», «-s» and «-ed» are inflexional suffixes).

Inflexion is viewed as the process of adding very general meanings to existing words, not as the creation the new words.

10. **MEANING:** it is meant that have a sense. Ex: a toy, a ball, a nut-tree, melon, a cat, etc.

LEXICAL MEANING: is the material aspect of the word and are associated with some object of reality around us.

GRAMMATICAL MEANING: The word forms which are dependent to the lexical meaning. They express the meaning of plurality, tense, possessiveness and etc.

11. **MORPHEME:** it is the smallest meaningful unit in morphology. Ex: boys = a boy + s. Due to their function morphemes may be: lexical, grammatical, lexico - grammatical. Due to the presence or absence of affixes in words morphemes may be: zero, empty, discontinuous. **MORPHEMES** can be: free and bound too.

FREE MORPHEME: A morpheme that can stand alone as an independent word. (Ex.: «work»).

BOUND MORPHEME: A morpheme that can not stand alone as an independent word, but must be attached to another morpheme/word (affixes, such as plural «-s», are always bound). Roots are sometimes bound, e.g. the «kep-» of «kept» or the «-ceive» of «receive».

WORD FORMATION MORPHEME: each part of speech has its own word - forming morphemes. Ex: «-ous», «-ful» characterize the adjectives; «-or», «-er», «-ist», «-dom», «-ship» are the markers of nouns.

OVERT and COVERT: Overt morphemes are explicit morphemes building up words; the Covert morpheme is identified as a contrastive absence of morpheme expressing a certain function. The notion of covert morpheme coincides with the notion of zero morpheme in the oppositional description of grammatical categories.

12. **CONTENT MORPHEME:** A morpheme that names a concept/idea in our record of experience of the world/such morpheme have a relatively more specific meaning than a function morpheme. Content morphemes fall into the classes of noun, verb, adjective, adverb.

13. **FUNCTION MORPHEME:** A morpheme whose primary meaning/function is to signal relationships between other morphemes. Such morphemes have a relatively less - specific meaning than a content morpheme.

Function morphemes generally fall into classes such as articles («a», «the»), prepositions («of», «at», «for»), auxiliary verbs («was eating», «have slept»), etc.

14. **MORPHEME ANALYSIS** - the operation in which one divides the utterance into the smallest meaningful forms.

A single word may be composed of one or more morphemes. Ex: un + system + atic + al + ly (the word can be analyzed into 5 separate morphemes).

Morph – is the smallest meaningful unit of speech.

15. **ALLOMORPH**: different variants of one and the same morpheme which have the same meaning or as a positional variant of a morpheme.

«s» [s] books
[z] pens
[ɪz] benches

«ed» [t] pushed
[ɪd] closed
[ɪd] pointed

Compare such case in Uzbek:

«ga» [ga] kitobga
[ka] eshikka
[qa] toqqa

«da» [ta] elakda
[da] argonda

16. **PARTS OF SPEECH**: Grouping of words into the classes according to definite criteria.

Parts of speech is a linguistic category of words, which is generally defined by certain morphological or morphological behavior.

17. **CRITERIA**: a principle or means by which discussing object is judged, tested or measured.

18. **CLASSIFICATION**: The arrangement of words systematically into classes or groups.

SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION: It is based on the meaning of words which denote things, objects, persons, animals, quality and quantity of things and etc. Ex: words with the meaning of «thingness» form nouns, quality of things form adjectives and so on.

MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION: It is based on the change of words by inflexions. Ex: Nouns are inflected to express «plurality». A book – books, a watch – watches, a sofa – sofas.

SYNTACTIC CLASSIFICATION: It is based on the function of words in the sentence. Ex: verbs perform the function of predicate: I love you.

Combinability or distribution: it is based on what parts of speech my stand next to some parts of speech.

Word formation morpheme: each part of speech has its own word-forming morphemes. Ex.: «-our», «-or», «-er», «-ist», «-dom», «-ship».

ROOT: A (usually free) morpheme around which words can be built through the addition of affixes. Ex: the root «kind» can have affixes added to it to form «kindly», «kindness», «kinder», «kindest».

Derivation is much less regular and therefore much less predictable, than inflectional morphology. Ex: the plurality affix «-s» or «-es». But how we derive nouns from verbs is less predictable such as: to «refuse» – «refusal»; to «pay» – «payment».

DERIVATION: the process by which affixes combine with roots to create new words (e.g. in «read – er «,» modern – ize «,» «-er» and «-ize» are derivational suffixes).

19. COMBINABILITY or DISTRIBUTION: It is based on what parts of speech may stand next to some parts of speech. Ex: Nouns are usually combined with adjectives and verbs.

20. CONJUGATION: a statement of various forms of the verb: a class of verbs. Ex: read, reads, read [e], reading; play, played, playing.

21. CATEGORY: in short it is the combination of meaning and form. Ex: adjectives and adverbs use inflexions to form the category of degrees of comparison.

SYNTHETICAL GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES: They are formed by the help of grammatical inflexions which are attached to the root of the word. Ex: 1) book – books; 2) write – wrote – written ; 3) foot – feet ; 4) to be – am –is – are ; 5) to go – went – gone.

ANALYTICAL CATEGORIES: They are formed by means of auxiliary words (shall, will, etc.).

MIXED TYPE OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES: they are formed by the help of discontinuous morphemes: the categories of Mood, Voice, Aspect, Tense and so on are formed. Ex: to be + going; to be + ed ; to have + ed.

22. NOUN: a) it is the word in Grammar for «name» . Everything we see around us has a name and that name is called a «noun». Ex: an apple – tree, a sofa, running water.

b) a class of words with a naming function. In English nouns are either proper (George, London) or common (men, city) and either countable (man, apple) or uncountable (rice, flour, information); countable nouns distinguish singular and plural.

23. CASE: Case is a distinction in nouns and pronouns. Nouns have three cases: The common case: (child, children), Objective (child, children) and Genitive case (child's, children's). The inflexion which denotes the relation of the noun to the other parts of sentence.

There are 3 cases:

Common – that form in which a noun is used as the subject of the verb.

Ex: The Farmer loves the dog.

Objective – that form in which a noun is used as the object of the verb.

Ex: The dog loves the Farmer.

Possessive – that form by means of which one can show that something belongs to the person or thing. Ex: I love the Farmer's dog.

24. **GENDER:** Gender is a grammatical distinction among words of the same word class that refers to contrast such as masculine, feminine, neuter. In English this distinction is found mainly in certain pronouns and in the possessive determiners. Gender is a distinction in words corresponding the natural distinction of sex. Living beings are divided into 3 classes or sexes: Masculine, Feminine and Neuter.

25. **NUMBER:** is a difference on form which shows whether one is speaking of one thing or more than one thing.

PLURALIA TANTUM: words used only in plural: a) instruments or articles of dress (trousers, scissors, tongs, drawers, stockings, glasses) ; b) parts of body, certain discuses, games, ceremonies, etc. (measles, billiards, ashes).

SINGULARIA TANTUM: words used in singular form (peace, milk, butter, air).

26. **ADJECTIVE:** is a word added to a noun to qualify or distinguish it, or to express number or quality as «strong», «weak», «this», «four», «many», etc.

QUALITATIVE ADJECTIVES: denote the quality of the thing indicated by the noun as «high», «good», «beautiful», «important».

RELATIVE ADJECTIVES: denote the quality of the things through their relation to materials (wooden), to place (African), to time (weekly) and so on.

27. **THE NUMERAL:** It is a part of speech which indicates number of or order of persons and things. They may be cardinal and ordinal numbers. Dual and Trial numbers.

28. **MARKER:** A formal signal of grammatical meaning. Ex: 0 (zero marker).

29. **ADVERB:** modifies the meaning of the Verb, adjective or another adverb as, «sweetly», «very», «rather» etc.

CONNECTIVE OR RELATIVE ADVERBS: they do not modify or another in the class which they introduce. They are used to introduce subordinate clauses. Ex: She sang because she was in a high mood.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL ADVERBS: they name certain circumstances and mostly used in the function of adverbial modifier of time and place. Ex: He returned from journey.

30. **STATIVES:** There are a group of verbs which denote the temporary state or condition of persons or things. Ex: She is ashamed of us. I am afraid of a dog.

31. **DETERMINERS:** a class of words that occur before nouns and express quality, specificity or relative position: the, a, an, some, any, no, all, this, that, several.

32. **FUNCTION:** The function of unit refers to its use within another unit. For example the function of her aunt is subject in one case and object in another.

Ex: Her aunt is over there. I have already met her aunt.

33. **FUNCTION WORDS:** prepositions, conjunctions, particles, articles, interjections and so on belong to this group.

- The class of words whose role is largely or wholly grammatical and do not carry the main semantic content.

- They are also called closed – class words since the number of function words are limited in language.

34. **PREPOSITION:** It is a word that joins nouns to other words in sentence, to show certain relation that exists between them as «on», «under», «over», «with», etc. Ex: I saw the horse in the garden.

35. **CONJUNCTION:** is a word that joins words and sentences together as «and», «but», etc. Ex: The boys and girls sing.

36. **PARTICLE:** is a part of speech giving a modal or emotional emphases to the words, group of words or clauses. Ex: I only wanted to invite you. She also has brought monthly ticket – card.

37. **PARTICLES:** Words that combine with verbs to make compound verbs: in, out, on, off, up, down, over, away, though.

38. **ARTICLE:** is a functional part of speech used before a noun or an adjective to make some definiteness or indefiniteness. Ex: a book, she has brought is readable.

39. **INTERJECTION:** it expresses a sudden emotion of the mood or feeling: Oh ! Alas!, etc. Ex: Alas! The class is empty.

40. **STATUS:** The position or rank of a person, the position of some lexical words in the grammatical system (e.g. in morphology or syntax).

41. **SYNTAX:** 1) sentence structure; 2) the way in which words or phrases of a sentence are arranged to show how they relate to each other.

42. **PHRASE:** is a combination of two or more words forming part of a sentence. Ex: a nice girl, speaks rudely, sleeps soundly, high in the air.

TYPES OF PHRASES: Noun phrase, Verb phrase, Adjective phrase, Pronoun phrase, Numeral phrase, Adverb phrase, Prepositional phrase.

43. **CLAUSE:** A construction of words that could be an independent sentence, but forms part of a sentence rather than being a sentence in itself.

Ex: She tells us she will wait. A clause is a sentence or a sentence – like construction that is contained within another sentence. A syntactic unit containing a subject and a predicate. Clauses are used in complex sentences. In this case they do the work of a subject, predicate, object, attribute and adverbial modifier.

44. **DECLARATIVE SENTENCE:** a) a declarative sentence is a type of sentence structure used chiefly for making elements. In declaratives the subjects usually comes before the verb. Ex: I'm not joking.

b) in such sentence the order of words: S + P + O. It conveys a statement and has falling intonation. Ex: My son goes to kindergarten.

45. **INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE:** It inquires something, it require answer. Ex: Where are you going? – To the swimming pool. Have you done the control work? – Certainly, I have. The interrogative words (who, what, which, how, why) comes before the subject.

46. **IMPERATIVE SENTENCE:** a) an imperative sentence is a type of sentence structure used chiefly for issuing a directive. The subject is generally absent in this case, the missing subject is understood to be «you». Ex: Take off your hat! Make yourself at home.

There are also first and third person imperative sentences with «let» and a subject: Let's go now. Let no one move.

b) it expresses a command, a request, an invitation. Ex: Open the door, please.

47. **EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE:** It expresses some kind of emotion or feeling, or wish. Ex: How nice the book is! What a grand museum Amir Timur is!

48. **ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE:** is one in which something is omitted, but which is readily supplied in thought. Such sentences are used in colloquial speech (in dialogues). Ex: Where are you going? – To school.

49. **ONE – MEMBER SENTENCE:** is one which has only one member: it is neither the subject nor predicate. Ex: Silence! Water!

One – member sentences are used in narrations, stories. But they may be modified by attributes. Ex: War! Everybody in silence and upset!

50. **TWO – MEMBER SENTENCE:** According to their structure simple sentences consist of a subject and predicate. But it may consist of secondary parts too.

Ex: The sun rises. She speaks slowly.

51. **SIMPLE SENTENCE:** When a sentence contains only one subject and one finite verb, it is said to be simple. Ex: He left the house.

52. STRUCTURE: The structure of a unit refers to the parts that make up the unit. Ex: a sentence may have the structure subject, verb, object, as in: Mike (s) has written (v) a good presentation (o).

The rules that decide the units that can co-occur in the sentence and the order in which they can occur.

BASIC FORM. The basic form of the verb is the form without any inflexion. It is the entry word for a verb in dictionaries.

Basic sentence structure. The seven basic sentence or clause structures are:

- SV — subject + verb
- SVA — subject + verb + adverb + adverbial
- SVC — subject + verb + compliment
- SVO — subject + verb + object (direct)
- SVOO — subject + verb + object + (indirect) + object (direct)
- SVOA — subject + verb + object + adverbial
- SVOC — subject + verb + object + compliment

53. COMPLEX SENTENCE: It contains at least two clauses, one of which depends on the other. Ex: The man who works, performs duty.

54. COMPOUND SENTENCE: It contains two or more principle clauses, which are entirely independent of each other. Ex: I called, but he not answer.

55. MODIFIER: A subordinate element usually of a verb phrase which qualifies, describes or restricts the meaning of the head; Ex: put the book here: come earlier.

56. A PARADIGM: It is the complete set of related word — forms associated with a given lexeme they are the conjugations of verbs and the declensions of nouns. The word — form of a lexeme may be arranged due to inflexional categories such as tense, aspect, mood, number, gender. The personal pronouns form categories (first, second, third) number (singular verbs plural), gender (masculine, feminine, neuter) and case (subjective, objective and possessive).

VERB PARADIGM: ride — rides — rode — ridden — riding, sing — sang — sung.

NOUN PARADIGM: boy — boys — boy's.

57. PARADIGMATIC: The relation of items that can substitute for one another at the some place in a language form. **PARADIGMATICS:** one of the two planes of language structure comprising language units in their close membership. Each paradigm has its own system.

58. SYNTAGMATICS: one of the planes of language structure where the relation between words in a linear succession.

59. **SYNTACTIC RELATION:** It is the horizontally relation where the linguistic units are syntactically connected.

60. **AGREEMENT:** a way of connection in word-groups, as in «these books», «those men».

61. **COLLOCATION:** a grouping together or arrangement of words according to orthoepic norms of a language. Ex: «Come to pass» is collocation.

62. **GOVERNMENT:** one word governs another to be in the same particular case or mood. Ex: to see her, (she); to see him (he).

63. **ADJUNCT** – a subordinate component of a phrase. Ex: a rainy day.

64. **POSTPOSITIVES:** subordinate places after the head word: Ex: sum total, come regularly, the task to do.

65. **ISOMORPHISM:** likeness or similarity of organization in the structure of language.

66. **SUBSTANTIVE:** To make the words to become nouns. Ex: to play – the play, to show – the show.

67. **SUPPLETION:** instead of suffix the whole word changes.

Ex: Be – am -is -are – was -were -been.

Go – went – gone, Good – better – the best, Bad – worse – the worst, Some – more – the most

68. **BLENDING:** parts of two already – existing words are put together to form a new word: motel (motor hotel), brunch (breakfast and lunch), smog (smoke and fog), Spanglish (Spanish and English).

69. **CLIPPING:** shortening of a polysyllabic word. Ex: bro (< brother), prof (< professor), math (< mathematics), sub (< substitute), pro (< professional).

70. **THE SOUND ALTERNATION:** a way of expressing grammatical category by changing a sound inside the root. Suppletive formation is building a form of a word by different stems: good – better/go – went.

71. **MODALITY:** Another property that distinguishes some events and states from others is related to their truth: whether they are true or likely to be true. The grammatical representation of meanings like these is called modality.

72. **MOOD:** Mood is the grammatical category that indicates the attitude of the speaker to what is said. Finite verb phrases have three moods: Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive.

73. **REDUNDANT:** Said of any item that is more than necessary in a message for conveying the meaning ; in the phrase «three houses» the plural ending is redundant because the number «three» expresses the notion of plurality more precisely.

74. **VERB:** a) the part of speech which expresses action, state and asserts or declares something. Here, «expresses», «asserts» and «declares» are verbs.

b) is a telling word and is used to make some assertion about the thing represented by a noun or a pronoun. Ex: sings, is, was, pleased, etc.

Due to their semantics verbs may be:

- **AUXILIARY:** these verbs came from the Latin meaning «help». They are «to be», «to have», «to do»; «shall», «will». They help to make up certain forms of mood, tense, voice, aspect, etc. They are used in analytical forms.

- **NOTIONAL:** These verbs have a full meaning of their own and can be used without any additional words as a simple predicate. Ex: He speaks French well.

- **SEMINOTIONAL:** These verbs have lost their meaning and are used only as form – words, thus having only a grammatical function. They are used in analytical forms (modal words, auxiliary verbs, link verbs).

75. **INTRANSITIVE VERB:** does not express an action which requires an object to complete its sense. Ex: Columbus sailed.

TRANSITIVE VERB: denotes an action which passes over to an object to complete sense. Ex: Columbus discovers America.

76. **IMPERSONAL VERB:** verb used only in 3rd person with the pronoun «it» relating to the weather. Ex: It rains. It blows. It snows.

77. **WEAK VERB:** when the Past Tense forms are expressed by the ending «-d», «-ed» to the Present. Ex: He loved animals.

78. **STRONG VERB:** forms their Past Tense verb by changing the vowel sound of the Present. Ex: I saw him in the bus.

79. **CATEGORY OF VOICE:** It is the category of the verb which indicates the relation of the predicate to the subject and the object. Voice is a two member opposition. Ex: to love – to be loved. Passive is opposed to Active one.

ACTIVE: Sentences and verb phrases with transitive verbs (S + V + O) are active. The passive verb phrases have the addition of a form of the verb «be», which is followed by an «-ed» participle.

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Loves	is loved
Will proclaim	will be proclaimed
Is investigating	is being investigated

80. **CATEGORY OF MOOD:** It is a grammatical category which indicates the attitude of speaker towards the action expressed by the verb from the point of its reality.

81. **CATEGORY OF ASPECT:** it shows the way in which action develops in progress or completed (bir zamon shakllari) Ex: Continuous, Aspect, Perfect aspect.

Category of person: a grammatical category expressed by means of 1st, 2nd, 3rd persons.

82. **CATEGORY OF TENSE:** the varieties of form in verbs. It indicates «time». There are 3 divisions of time: the Present, the Past, the Future. The category of tense is a system of 3-member opposemes: write – wrote – will write; or is writing – was writing – will be writing.

83. **FINITE:** all verb forms are finite. It permits all the synthetic and analytic forms of verbs. **NON-FINITE:** it encompasses the use of infinitive, participle and gerund conjunctions.

84. **VERBIALITY:** General lexico-grammatical meaning of the verb implying the ability of the verb to denote an action or state.

85. **VERB-HELPERS:** Auxiliaries (be, do, have, etc.) which are analytical markers of verbal categories. They carry only grammatical meaning and are thus relevant only for the formation of word-forms.

86. **VERBAL:** denotes, dealing with words – as a verbal error; a good verbal memory (remembering the exact words) of a statement;

- Spoken, not written – as a verbal explanation.
- Word for word; literal.
- Relating to, coming from, a verb – as a verbal ending; a verbal noun – gerund.

87. **OPPOSITION:** binary contrast of linguistics elements or their paradigmatic forms. EX: progressive verbs, non-progressive verbs, non-perfect.

88. **WORD:** a speech, that which is said, news, information.

Ex: Don't say a word. A sound or combination of sounds, written or printed symbol, used as a unit of language.

• **SIMPLE WORD:** A word consisting of a single morpheme meaningful parts, e.g. «fire», «think», «the», «often».

• **COMPLEX WORD:** A word consisting of root plus one or more affixes (e.g. «books», «walked», «dirty»).

• **COMPOUND WORD:** A word that is formed from two or more simple or complex words (e.g. landlord, red-hot, window-cleaner).

Open word classes:

- Adjectives
- Adverbs
- Interjections
- Nouns

• Verbs (except auxiliary and modal verbs) these word classes (or parts of speech) constantly acquire new members.

Closed word classes:

- Auxiliary verbs
- Conjugations
- Pronouns
- Particles
- Prepositions
- Articles
- Contraction

These word classes require new members infrequently at all.

89. **ISOMORPHISM:** likeness or similarity of organization in the structure of language.

90. **MARKED:** denotes having a distinctive feature or marker (speak – speaks, walk – walked, long – longing),

UNMARKED: denotes having such a feature zero marker (?).

91. **SIGNALS:** The grammatical features which are characteristic to each language. There are 4 main signals: inflexions, function words, word order, intonation patterns.

92. **VALENCY:** potential ability of elements to pattern with one another.

93. **VALUE:** 1) personal opinion; mental attitude; 2) look at, examine, consider. Ex.: the subject may be viewed in various ways.

94. **VOCABULARY:** 1) total number of words which make up a language; 2) book containing a list of words; 3) list of words used in a book.

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**ENGLISH GRAMMAR:
THEORY AND USAGE**

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