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УЧЕБНО-НАУЧНО-ПРОИЗВОДСТВЕННЫЙ КОМПЛЕКС
«МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ КЫРГЫЗСТАНА»**

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УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

Название дисциплины: Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка

Название и код направления подготовки: «531000» Филология

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«РАССМОТРЕНО»

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«Филология»

НОУ УНПК «МУК»

Протокол № _____

от « _____ » _____ 20__ г.

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Протокол № 5

от « 15 » октября 2020 г.

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ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Рабочая программа дисциплины..... | 4 |
| Аннотация..... | 4 |
| Учебно-методический комплекс дисциплины (модулей)..... | 7 |
| 1. Пояснительная записка..... | 7 |
| 1.1 . Миссия и Стратегия..... | 7 |
| 1.2 . Цель и задачи дисциплины (модулей)..... | 7 |
| 1.3 . Формируемые компетенции, а также перечень планируемых (ожидаемых) результатов обучения по дисциплине (модулю) (знания, умения владения), сформулированные в компетентностном формате..... | 8 |
| 1.4 . Место дисциплины (модулей) в структуре основной образовательной программы..... | 9 |
| 2. Структура дисциплины (модулей)..... | 10 |
| 3. Содержание дисциплины (модулей)..... | 12 |
| 4. Конспект лекций..... | 13 |
| 5. Информационные и образовательные технологии..... | 68 |
| 6. Фонд оценочных средств для текущего, рубежного и итогового контролей по итогам освоения дисциплины (модулей)..... | 68 |
| 6.1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения дисциплины..... | 69 |
| 6.2. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности..... | 69 |
| 6.3 Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания..... | 71 |
| 6.4 Контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности..... | 72 |
| 7. Учебно-методическое и информационное обеспечение дисциплины..... | 77 |
| 7.1 Спикосисточников и литературы..... | 77 |
| 7.2 Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», необходимый для освоения дисциплины (модулей)..... | 78 |
| 8. Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся..... | 78 |
| 8.1. Планы практических (семинарских) и лабораторных занятий..... | 78 |
| 8.2. Методические указания для обучающихся, по освоению дисциплины (модулей)..... | 82 |
| 8.3. Методические рекомендации по подготовке письменных работ..... | 87 |
| 8.4. Иные материалы..... | 88 |
| 9. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины (модулей)..... | 89 |
| 10. Глоссарий..... | 89 |

РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

АННОТАЦИЯ

В соответствии с рабочим учебным планом дисциплина «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» изучается на 3 м году обучения. Общая трудоёмкость освоения составляет 4 кредита за 5 семестр. Данная рабочая программа составлена в соответствии с Государственным образовательным стандартом высшего профессионального образования второго поколения и входит в перечень дисциплин базовой части профессионального цикла учебного плана по направлению подготовки по специальности 531000 - Филология.

Программа и планы семинарских занятий включают в себя изучение научного текста, сочинение и слушание, а также вариативные упражнения в соответствии с тематикой. Содержание каждой темы может варьироваться в определенных пределах в зависимости от практического опыта обучаемых, качества их базовой подготовки, проявляемого интереса к тем или иным проблемам в связи с профессиональными интересами и выполняемыми должностными обязанностями, в связи со всеми изменениями, происходящими в сфере преподавания иностранного языка.

1. Целью дисциплины: «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» является ознакомление студентов с систематическими и углубленными знаниями о грамматическом строе современного английского языка и раскрыть наиболее важные и сложные проблемы, возникающие при его изучении, учитывая достижения отечественного и зарубежного языкознания.

Задачи дисциплины:

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

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

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

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

- ◆ ознакомление с особенностями стилистического использования единиц морфологии и синтаксиса, осмысление процессов взаимодействия грамматических и лексических факторов;

- ◆ формирование профессиональных навыков студентов как будущих филологов-германистов.

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

2. Место дисциплины в структуре ООП.

Дисциплина «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» представляет собой дисциплину профессионального цикла вариативной части бакалавриатской программы «Преподаватель английского языка». Профессиональный цикл. Базовая дисциплина государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования по направлению 531000 Филология, занимает ведущее место, являясь одной из профилирующих фундаментальных дисциплин по подготовке бакалавров.

Дисциплина базируется на таких вузовских дисциплинах профессионального цикла, как «Практический курс первого иностранного языка», «Практический курс второго иностранного языка», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения первого иностранного языка», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения второго иностранного языка», «Теорию перевода», «Практический курс перевода первого иностранного языка», «Практический курс перевода второго» иностранного языка», «Введение в теорию межкультурной коммуникации», которые читаются на 1-4 курсах бакалавриата.

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины составляет 120 часов, 4 зачетные единицы. Вид промежуточной аттестации: экзамен.

3. Требования к результатам освоения дисциплины.

Процесс изучения дисциплины направлен на формирование следующих компетенций:

Специальные (СК):

- владеет навыками восприятия, понимания, а также многоаспектного анализа устной и письменной речи на изучаемом иностранном языке (СК-1)
- способен использовать языковые средства для достижения коммуникативных целей в конкретной ситуации устного и письменного общения на изучаемом иностранном языке (СК-2)
- способен самостоятельно осуществлять переработку иноязычной информации для решения учебных, научно-исследовательских и профессиональных задач (СК-4)

4. Краткое содержание дисциплины.

Введение в изучение теоретической грамматики языка. Определение грамматики, понятие о системе, структуре, норме, узусе в применении к грамматике языка. Основные единицы грамматического строя.

Морфология как грамматическое учение о слове, его составе, частях речи и их грамматических категориях. Основные единицы морфологии: морфема и слово. Части речи как грамматические классы слов. Существительное. Общая характеристика существительного как части речи. Семантика существительного, лексико-семантические подклассы существительного. Синтаксические функции существительного. Грамматические категории существительного. Прилагательное. Общие семантические, морфологические и синтаксические характеристики прилагательного как части речи. Грамматические категории прилагательного. Лексико-грамматические группы прилагательных. Синтаксические функции прилагательного. Глагол. Характеристика глагола как части речи. Категория лица, числа и рода. Особенности их выражения в языке. Категория залога. Различные теории залога в грамматике. Проблема пассивного залога. Местоимение. Характеристика местоимений как части речи. Семантические, морфологические и синтаксические особенности местоимений. Проблема местоимений в грамматике. Особенности неизменяемых частей речи в немецком языке (наречие, частица, предлог, союз, междометье).

Синтаксис как грамматическое учение о словосочетании и предложении. Единицы синтаксиса: слово, словосочетание, предложение. Члены предложения. Словосочетание. Типы словосочетаний. Предложение как минимальная номинативно-коммуникативная единица речи. Классификация предложений. Сложное предложение. Сложноподчиненное предложение. Классификация придаточных предложений по их функции в составе сложного предложения, по средству связи. Сложносочиненное предложение.

Текст как языковая единица, изучаемая в грамматике. Связь предложений в тексте и показатели текстовых связей. Проблема членения текста.

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ (МОДУЛЕЙ)

1. Пояснительная записка

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

1.1. Миссия и Стратегия НОУ УНПК «МУК»

Миссия НОУ УНПК "МУК" – подготовка международно - признанных, свободно мыслящих специалистов, открытых для перемен и способных трансформировать знания в ценности на благо развития общества.

Стратегия развития НОУ УНПК «МУК» - создание динамичного и креативного университета с инновационными научно-образовательными программами и с современной инфраструктурой, способствующие достижению академических и профессиональных целей.

1.2. Цели и задачи дисциплины

Целью дисциплины: «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» является ознакомление студентов с систематическими и углубленными знаниями о грамматическом строе современного английского языка и раскрыть наиболее важные и сложные проблемы, возникающие при его изучении, учитывая достижения отечественного и зарубежного языкознания.

Задачи дисциплины:

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

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

- ◆ знакомство студентов с наиболее крупными работами отечественных и

зарубежных лингвистов по отдельным вопросам теории грамматики английского языка; развитие умения студентов самостоятельно перерабатывать текущую научную информацию;

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

♦ ознакомление с особенностями стилистического использования единиц морфологии и синтаксиса, осмысление процессов взаимодействия грамматических и лексических факторов;

♦ формирование профессиональных навыков студентов как будущих филологов-германистов.

1.3 Формируемые компетенции, а также перечень планируемых результатов обучения по дисциплине теоретическая грамматика (знания, умения владения), сформулированные в компетентностном формате.

Дисциплина Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка направлена на формирование следующих компетенций:

Специальные (СК):

- владеет навыками восприятия, понимания, а также многоаспектного анализа устной и письменной речи на изучаемом иностранном языке (СК-1)
- способен использовать языковые средства для достижения коммуникативных целей в конкретной ситуации устного и письменного общения на изучаемом иностранном языке (СК-2)
- способен самостоятельно осуществлять переработку иноязычной информации для решения учебных, научно-исследовательских и профессиональных задач (СК-4)

В результате освоения дисциплины обучающийся должен демонстрировать следующие результаты образования:

В результате освоения курса слушатель должен:

1) Знать:

- теоретические основы грамматической системы современного изучаемого иностранного языка, ее структуры, особенности взаимосвязи и функционирования единиц и средств этой системы. (СК-1)
- грамматический строй английского языка как систему. (СК-2)
- особенности значения, структуры, членения английского предложения;- типы предложений в английском языке; показатели текстовых связей (СК-4)

2) Уметь:

- проводить морфологический и синтаксический анализ фактического языкового материала (СК-1)
- анализировать и сравнивать основные концепции изучения отдельных грамматических явлений ведущих зарубежных и отечественных исследователей (СК-1)
- применять полученные теоретические знания в практической устной и письменной речи (СК-2)
- выявлять грамматические показатели текстовых связей (СК-4)
- пользоваться справочной литературой для получения информации о грамматическом явлении. (СК-4)

3) Владеть:

- методами грамматического анализа, способами извлечения необходимой информации для характеристики грамматического явления. (СК-1)
- способностью использовать языковые средства для достижения коммуникативных целей с соблюдением грамматических норм. (СК-2)
- навыками получения, хранения и обработки информации (СК-4)
- языковой и контекстуальной догадкой (СК-4)
- способами определения знакомых и незнакомых грамматических форм слов (СК-4)

1.4 Место дисциплины в структуре основной профессиональной образовательной программы.

Дисциплина «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» относится к вариативной части профессионального цикла.

Для освоения дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» обучающиеся используют знания и умения, сформированные в процессе изучения дисциплин вариативной части

профессионального цикла: «Введение в языкознание», «Практика устной и письменной речи», «Практическая грамматика».

Освоение дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика изучаемого языка» является необходимой основой для последующего изучения дисциплин вариативной части профессионального цикла («Практика устной и письменной речи», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения»), а также для написания выпускной квалификационной работы по филологии, прохождения педагогической практики.

2. Структура дисциплины (модулей)

Структура дисциплины для очной формы обучения

Изучение курса «Теоретическая грамматика» предусматривает 4кредита в 5 семестре (общ. 120 часов), соответствующий к общим целям ГОС ВПО.

Распределение трудоемкости дисциплины по видам учебной работы:

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины – 120 ч

Аудиторные занятия – 64 ч

Лекции-32

Семинарские -32

СРСП - 18 ч

СРС – 38 ч

в том числе: самостоятельное изучение отдельных тем модулей, подготовка к промежуточной аттестации и рубежному контролю – экзамену.

| п/п | Раздел, темы дисциплины | семестр | недели | лекции | семинар | срс | срсп | Формы текущего контроля успеваемости | Информационные и образовательные технологии на семинарах |
|------------------|--|---------|--------|--------|---------|-----|------|--|--|
| 5 семестр | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | Grammar in the systematic conception of language | 5 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | - | Опрос, участие в дискуссии на семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 2 | Grammar in the systematic conception of language | 5 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии на семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 3 | Structure of the word | 5 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии на семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 4 | Grammatical classes of words | 5 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии на семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 5 | Grammatical classes of words | 5 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии на семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| | Модуль №1 Письменная работа | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|---|----|---|---|---|---|-------------------------------------|--|
| 6 | Noun and its categories | 5 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 7 | Adjective and its categories | 5 | 7 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 8 | Verb and its categories | 5 | 8 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 9 | Verb and its categories | 5 | 9 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 10 | Phrase, its peculiarities and types | 5 | 10 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| Модуль №2 | | | | | | | | | |
| Письменная работа | | | | | | | | | |
| 11 | Sentence as a syntactical unit | 5 | 11 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 12 | Sentence as a syntactical unit | 5 | 12 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 13 | Simple sentence and its problems | 5 | 13 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 14 | Composite sentence and its problems | 5 | 14 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| 15 | Mixed types of sentences | 5 | 15 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| Модуль №3 | | | | | | | | | |
| Письменная работа | | | | | | | | | |
| 16 | Mixed types of sentences | 5 | 16 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | Опрос, участие в дискуссии семинаре | Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе. |
| Экзамен | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------|--|--|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|--|--|
| | Итого | | | 32 | 32 | 3 | 1 | | |
| | | | | | | 8 | 8 | | |

3. Содержание дисциплины

| <i>№</i> | <i>Наименование раздела, темы дисциплины</i> | <i>Краткое содержание</i> |
|----------|--|---|
| 1 | Grammar in the systematic conception of language | General Characteristics of Linguistic Units. Language and Speech. Grammar, its Types and Parts. History of English Grammars. General Characteristics of the Grammatical Structure of Language. Methods of Grammatical Investigation. |
| 2 | Structure of the word | Morphological System of Language. Word as the Central Unit of Language. Morphemic Structure of the Word. Categorical Structure of the Word. |
| 3 | Grammatical classes of words | General Characteristics of the Parts of Speech as Lexico-grammatical Word Classes. The History of Development of Parts of Speech Classifications. Classical and Functional Approaches to the Parts of Speech Classification. Distributional Approach to the Parts of Speech Classification. Complex Approach to the Parts of Speech Classification. The Parts of a Sentence |
| 4 | Noun and its categories | General Characteristics of the Noun as a Part of Speech. Grammatical Category of Number. Grammatical Category of Case. Grammatical Category of Gender. Article as a Specific Unit Accompanying the Noun |
| 5 | Adjective and its categories | General Characteristics of the Adjective as a Part of Speech. The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison. Substantivization of Adjective. The Problem of A-lexemes. |
| 6 | Verb and its categories | General Characteristics of the Verb as a Part of Speech. The Grammatical Category of Tense. The Grammatical Category of Aspect. The Grammatical Category of Voice. The Grammatical Category of Mood. |
| 7 | Phrase, its peculiarities and types | The Units of Syntax. A Phrase and a Sentence. A Phrase Definition and its Structural Peculiarities. Classification of Phrases in English. |
| 8 | Sentence as a syntactical unit | A Sentence as a Unit of Syntax. A Sentence and an Utterance. The Definition of a Sentence. Classification of Sentences. Functional Sentence Perspective |

| | | |
|----|-------------------------------------|---|
| 9 | Simple sentence and its problems | A Simple Sentence as a Unit of Syntax and its Constituent Structure. Classification of Simple Sentences. |
| 10 | Composite sentence and its problems | General Conception of a Composite Sentence. Classification of Composite Sentences. Complex Sentences and their Classification. Compound Sentences and their Classification. |
| 11 | Mixed types of sentences | The Problem of Mixed Sentences. Sentences with Homogeneous Members. Semi-complex Sentences. Semi-compound Sentences. |

4. Конспект лекции

LECTURE 1

GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMATIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

1.1. General Characteristics of Linguistic Units

1.2. Language and Speech

1.3. Grammar, its Types and Parts

1.4. History of English Grammars

1.5. General Characteristics of the Grammatical Structure of Language

1.6. Methods of Grammatical Investigation

1.1. General Characteristics of Linguistic Units

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

The phonological level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit: is *the phoneme*. It is a distinctive unit (bag — back). **The morphological level** has two level units:

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

The syntactical level has two level units as well:

- a) *the word-group* — the dependent syntactic unit;

b) *the sentence* — the main communicative unit.

The supersyntactical level has *the text* as its level unit. All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

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

Linguistic units represent bilateral elements possessing both a directly observable material structure and directly unobservable content or meaning: a linguistic unit has a particular form and a particular meaning. It follows that any linguistic unit is a double entity, or in other words, it has two aspects. It unites a concept (meaning) and a sound image (form). The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish the content side and the expression side:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \text{[CONTENT} & \text{SIDE]} \\ \text{LINGUISTIC UNIT} = & \text{-----} & \\ & \text{[EXPRESSION SIDE]} & \end{array}$$

1.2. Language and Speech

The discrimination of language and speech is the fundamental principle of linguistics. This principle has sustained throughout the whole history of the study of language. With a special demonstrative force it was confirmed by LA. Beaudoin de Courtenay (end of the XIX c.) and F. de Saussure (beginning of the XX c.).

Language in the narrow sense of the word is a system of means of expression, while speech is a manifestation of the system of language in the process of communication. The system of language includes the body of material units - sounds, morphemes, words, word-groups, and a set of regularities or "rules" of the use of these units. **Speech** comprises both the act of producing utterances and the utterances themselves, i.e. the text made up of lingual units of various status.

Language and speech are inseparable, they form an organic unity. The stability of this unity is ensured by grammar since it dynamically connects language with speech by categorially determining the process of utterance production.

1.3. Grammar, its Types and Parts

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Its main function is being communicative. The grammatical description of language is provided by the science of Grammar.

The word "Grammar" is of Greek origin, the basic notions of modern Grammar appeared in ancient Greece. The meaning of the word itself was "art of writing" and it keeps till our days. Primarily the task of Grammar was to teach people to write and speak properly. Today Grammar can be regarded from the practical or theoretical point of view.

A **practical grammar** aims at providing people with a manual of practical mastery of the language, i. e. the rules of proper speaking and writing.

The aim of **theoretical grammar** is to give a theoretical description of the grammatical system of a given language, or to scientifically analyze and define its grammatical categories and to study the mechanisms of grammatical formation of utterances out of words.

The main parts of grammar are morphology and syntax. **Morphology** deals with the morphemic structure: classification and combinability of words. It faces two units: morphemes and words. As to **syntax**, it deals with the structure, classification and combinability of sentences.

Grammar is closely connected with the History of language, Lexicology and other branches of linguistics.

1.4. History of English Grammars

Until the 17th century the term "Grammar" in English was applied only to the study of Latin. Latin grammar was the only grammar learned in schools (grammar schools). Until the end of the 16th century there were no grammars of English. One of the most popular Latin grammars was written in English by William Lily. It was published in the first half of the 16th century and went through many editions. This book was very important for English grammar as it set a standard for the arrangement of material. Latin grammatical paradigms with their

English equivalents made possible the presentation of English forms in a similar way, using the same terminology as in Latin grammar. Lily's "Latin Grammar" may be considered as the precursor of the earliest English grammars. The first English grammar was written by William Bullokar ("Bref Grammar for English", 1585). There were 5 cases of nouns in Bullokar's grammar (cf. 6 cases in Latin). However, even early grammarians noticed some typical features which made the structure of English different from that of Latin.

Generally speaking, the history of English grammars may be divided into two periods. The first is the age of prescientific grammar beginning with the end of the 16th century and lasting till about 1900. It includes two types of grammars which succeeded each other. The first type of grammars in

the history of English grammars is represented by early **prenormative** grammars of English (the first among them is W. Bullokar's "Bref Grammar for English").

By the middle of the 18th century, when many of the grammatical phenomena of English had been described and the English language norms established, the prenormative grammars gave way to a new kind of grammar, a **prescriptive** (normative) grammar. It stated strict rules of grammatical usage and set up a certain standard of correctness to be followed by learners. One of the most influential grammars of that period was R. Lowth's "Short Introduction to English Grammar", first published in 1762 in London. On the other side of the Atlantic, in New York, Lindley Murray wrote a very successful work, "English Grammar Adapted to the Different Classes of Learners". It was first published in 1795 and later underwent 50 editions in its original form and more than 120 - in an abridged version. Some of the 19th-century normative grammars were reprinted in the 20th century. For example, W. Lennie's "Principles of English Grammar" underwent numerous editions, the 99th edition being published in 1905; or, else, J. C. Nesfield's grammar ("English Grammar Past and Present", 1898) underwent twenty five editions in different variants and was still on sale in the 1960s.

Grammars of the second type (prescriptive, or normative grammars) written by modern authors are usually referred to as practical grammars of English.

By the end of the 19th century, when the system of grammar known in modern linguistics as traditional had been established, there appeared a new type of grammar (the third on the list), the scientific grammar. In contrast with prescriptive grammars, the classical scientific grammar **was both descriptive and explanatory**. H. Sweet's grammar book appeared in the last decade of the 19th century (H. Sweet, "A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical". Part I. Oxford, 1892; Part II. Oxford, 1898). The title of the book speaks for itself, so it is common practice nowadays to take the date of 1900 as the dividing line between the two periods in the history of English grammars and the beginning of the age of the scientific grammar. Classical scientific grammar accepted the traditional grammatical system of prescriptive grammars. During the first half of the 20th century, an intensive development of scientific English grammar took place, with great contributions to it being made by O. Jespersen ("The Philosophy of Grammar", 1924; "Essentials of English Grammar", 1933; "A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles", 7 vols, 1914-1949), E. Kruisinga ("A Handbook of Present-Day English", 1909), H. Poutsma ("A Grammar of Late Modern English", 5 vols, 1904-1929), C. T. Onions ("An Advanced English Syntax", 1904), G. O. Curme ("A Grammar of the English Language", 1931) and some other scholars.

In the 1950s a new trend in linguistic studies came to the fore, **the structural grammar** (the fourth on the list). It was very popular with grammarians for about 40 years and took different directions in its development which are known as Descriptive Linguistics, Transformational Grammar,

Generative Grammar, Generative Semantics. The main ideas of structural approach to language were advanced by Ferdinand de Saussure ("Cours de linguistique generale", 1922) and Leonard Bloomfield ("Language", 1933). Those ideas were accepted and further developed by H. Whitehall ("Structural Essentials of English", 1956), Z. S. Harris ("Methods in Structural Linguistics", 1961), Ch. C. Fries ("The Structure of English", 1963), H. A. Gleason ("Linguistics and English Grammar", 1965), E. Bach ("An Introduction to Transformation Grammars", 1964), N. Chomsky ("Syntactic Structures", 1957; "Language and Mind", 1968), and a great number of other linguists.

When comparing the two periods in the history of English grammars, one can see that during the first period (the 17th — 19th centuries) there was only one kind of grammar in use at a time, whereas in the 20th century there were several types of grammatical descriptions used and developed in parallel. The coexistence and a certain interaction of different types of grammars is a typical feature of the second period (the scientific one). Among modern trends we cannot but mention the **communicative grammar** (the fifth on the list), which has been gaining popularity since the 1980s. In grammar books of this type the grammatical structures are systematically related to meanings, uses, and situations of communication.

1.5. General Characteristics of the Grammatical Structure of Language

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

Synthetic languages are defined as the ones of "internal" grammar of the word — most of 9 grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions (Russian, Ukrainian, Latin, etc). Analytical languages are those of "external" grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (will do). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic — the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

1.6. Methods of Grammatical Investigation

Many different methods of linguistic study have been worked out. The most essential of them are:

1) **the historical examination** of the development of any grammatical phenomenon explains the origin of a grammatical phenomenon and to see the trends in its development. Thus, Old English

nouns had gender, number, and case distinctions. There were three grammatical genders (masculine, feminine, and neuter), two numbers (singular and plural), and four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative). The decay of noun inflections that began in the Middle English period is due to the following:

- the functional devaluation of inflections: some of their syntactic functions came to be expressed by prepositions and word order, i. e. by analytical means;
- the Scandinavian invasion: the two languages (English and Scandinavian) were closely related. Since the roots of the words often sounded alike, the speakers tended to ignore the inflections which hindered the process of communication.

The loss of inflections, which began in the Middle English period, resulted in the disappearance of the grammatical category of gender and the reduction of the case paradigm in Modern English to two forms: common and genitive.

2) **the method of comparison** helps to obtain a deeper understanding of certain linguistic phenomena comparing them with corresponding phenomena in cognate languages. Thus, the suppletive case system of personal pronouns is common to all the languages of the Indo-European family: English: I — me; German: ich — mich.

3) the thorough analysis of the grammatical phenomena can be achieved with the help of **oppositional analysis**.

Oppositions can be of 3 types:

Private are formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterized by the presence of a certain differential feature (strong, marked, positive), while the other member is characterized by the absence of the feature (weak, unmarked, negative). Eg.: *sing(-)pl(+)*; *active(-)passive(+)*.

Gradual (all the members are marked) *clever-cleverer -the cleverest*. **Equipollent** (равнозначный, равноценный) (each member is marked by its own specific feature) *present -s; past- ed; future- will*.

LECTURE 2

STRUCTURE OF THE WORD

2.1. Morphological System of Language

2.2. Word as the Central Unit of Language

2.3. Morphemic Structure of the Word

2.4. Categorical Structure of the Word

2.1. Morphological System of Language

The morphological system of language reveals its properties through the *morphemic structure of words*. It follows from this that morphology as part of grammatical theory faces the two segmental units: *the morpheme* and *the word*. But the morpheme is identified as a certain part of the word.

It should be kept in mind that the morpheme is smaller than the word because the morpheme is its segmental unit. The word may consist of one morpheme (*he, she, but, one*) or more than one (*way - s, train -ed*). A particular feature of the morpheme consists in the fact that it has both form and meaning, e.g. in *way-s* the meaning of more than one is realised through S, in *teach-er er* renders the meaning of the doer of an action. The word is formed by morphemes while the morpheme is formed by phonemes which have the form but fail to have any meaning.

The word reflects reality; it reflects some objects or things of the real world. The morpheme does not have any direct connection with reality. It is indirectly connected with reality through a lexical morpheme with which it is linked.

As a component of the word the morpheme is elementary.

American scholars - representatives of Descriptive Linguistics founded by L. Bloomfield - recognized not the word and the sentence, but the phoneme and the morpheme as the basic categories of linguistic description, because these units are the easiest to be isolated in the continual text due to their "physically" minimal, elementary segmental character: the phoneme being the minimal formal segment of language, the morpheme, the minimal meaningful segment.

2.2. Word as the Central Unit of Language

The word is considered to be the central (though not the only) linguistic unit of language. The word is so much a part of everyday knowledge that it is taken for granted. Grammar books often make no attempt to give a definition of the word though they happily define other grammatical units in terms of it. The sentence, for instance, is a "combination of words" and the parts of speech are "classes of words". But what a word is and how it can be defined is often not considered.

Sometimes the word is simply defined as a linguistic unit larger than a morpheme but smaller than a phrase. In this case words can be defined in at least four different ways, and these ways are not equivalent at all:

An orthographic word is something written with white spaces at both ends but no white space in the middle. Orthographic words are of minimal linguistic interest.

A phonological word is something pronounced as a single unit.

A lexical item, or *lexeme*, is a dictionary word, an item which we would expect to find having its own entry in a dictionary.

A grammatical word-form (GWF) (or morphosyntactic word) is any one of the several forms which a lexical item may assume for grammatical purposes.

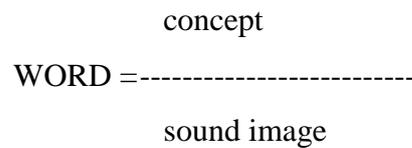
Let us look at some examples. The item *fee cream* is two orthographic words, but a single phonological word (it is pronounced as a unit), a single lexical item (it has its own entry in a dictionary) and a single GWF (indeed, it hardly has another form unless you think the plural ice cream is good English).

The singular *dog* and the plural *dogs* are each a single orthographic word, a single phonological word, and a single GWF, but they both represent the same lexical item (they would get only one entry in the dictionary). The same is true of *take*, *takes*, *took*, *taken* and *is taking*: five orthographic words, five phonological words, five GWFs (at least), but only one lexical item.

The contraction *hasn't* is a single orthographic word and a single phonological word but it presents two lexical items (*have* and *not*), and two GWFs (*has* and *not*). The phrasal verb *make up* (as in *She made up her face*) is two orthographic words, two phonological words, but only one lexical item (because of its unpredictable meaning, it must be entered separately in the dictionary). And it has several GWFs: *make up*, *makes up*, *made up*, *making up*. The very different sense of *make up* illustrated by *She made up a story* would be regarded by most linguists as a different lexical item from the preceding one (a separate dictionary entry is required), but this lexical item exhibits the same orthographic, phonological and grammatical forms as the first.

Consequently, when we are talking about words, it is essential to specify exactly which sense we have in mind, and it may be preferable to use one of the more specific labels. Therefore, we have to admit that the word is not a clearly definable linguistic unit. For the sake of linguistic description, we will proceed from the statement that the **word** is a meaningful unit differentiating word-groups at the upper level and integrating morphemes at the lower level. It is the main expressive unit of human language, which ensures the thought-forming function of language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of "language" and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of

the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides — the content and expression sides:



2.3. Morphemic Structure of the Word

In accord with the traditional classification, morphemes are divided into **lexical morphemes** (roots) and **grammatical morphemes** (affixes).

The lexical morpheme is obligatory for any word; it expresses its main lexical meaning. The word may cover some grammatical meanings which the morpheme can't. E.g. the word *way* has the meaning of singularity which the lexical morpheme lacks. The word *way* consists of two morphemes: one is lexical "way" with the meaning "pass", "road" etc. and the second morpheme is grammatical (it renders the meaning of singularity, oneness). The lexical morpheme is discovered in all the forms of a given word, it unites them into a definite set of words which is called a *lexeme*. E.g. *open - opens - opened - is opened - was opened, is being opened, has opened - had opened - has been opened - had been opened - opening*.

A morpheme never expresses both lexical and grammatical meanings but a **slovoform** does. E.g. *ways* covers two meanings (lexical and grammatical). But each morpheme *way* and *-s* expresses only one meaning each. One grammatical morpheme may express two or more grammatical meanings: E.g. *reads* where "read" is a lexical morpheme and *-s* is a grammatical one, it renders the meanings of tense, mood, person, number, voice, aspect. This phenomenon is called **syncretism**.

The particular feature of the grammatical morphemes consists in the fact that they may have different representations. The function of *-en* in *oxen* and of *-s* in *ways* is the same, they represent the morpheme with the meaning of more than one. They are variants or *allos* of the morpheme itself which is their *invariant*.

The theory of variants and invariants of linguistic units is called **alloemic theory**. In accord with it the EME-terms denote generalized invariant units of language (phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, syntaxemes, etc). Their variants are concrete manifestations of a definite morpheme: the morpheme of more than one is an invariant while *en, -s, ren, vowel change, no change at all* are its **allomorphs**.

The grammatical morphemes fall into the following groups:

1. On their dependence on the lexical morpheme they are FREE and BOUND. The bound ones can't produce words themselves, they are components of the words. The free morphemes can produce the word by themselves. In *ways* "way" is a free morpheme and "-s" is a bound one.

There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. Being extremely narrow, the list of them is complicated by the relations of homonymy. These morphemes are the following:

1) the segments *-(e)s* [-z, -s, -iz]: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;

2) the segments *-(e)d*[-d, -t, -id]: the past and past participle of verbs;

3) the segments *-ing*: the gerund and present participle;

4) the segments *-er, -est*: the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

The auxiliary word-morphemes of various standings should be interpreted in this connection as "semi-bound" morphemes, since, being used as separate elements of speech strings, they form categorial unities with their notional stem- words.

2. On the basis of formal presentation we distinguish OVERT and COVERT morphemes. The covert morpheme is a meaningful absence of a morpheme but it expresses a certain function. *WAYS* has two overt morphemes, but in *WAY* there are two morphemes too, one is lexical *WAY* and the second one is *0*, which is grammatical with the meaning of singularity.

3. On their segmental relation we differ SEGMENTAL or LINEAR and SUPRASEGMENTAL morphemes. The latter stand above the phonemes, they are stress, intonation and pauses: '*IMPORT-IMPORT*', '*EXPORT-EX'PORT*'.

4. On the basis of linear characteristics we differ DISCONTINUOUS and LINEAR morphemes. The linear ones follow lexical morphemes. By a discontinuous morpheme a two element grammatical morpheme is meant which consists of an auxiliary and a grammatical suffix. They embed the lexical morpheme as in:

be ... ing - for the continuous verb forms (*e.g. is going*); **have ... en-**

for the perfect verb forms (*e.g. has taken*); **be ... en** - for the passive

verb forms (*e.g. is taken*).

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

Prefix (Pr) + Root (R) + Lexical suffix (L) + Grammatical suffix (Gr)

(UN-do) (WAY) (teach-ER) (boy-S)

2.4. Categorial Structure of the Word

Notional words, first of all verbs and nouns, possess some morphemic features expressing grammatical (morphological) meanings. These features determine the grammatical form of the word.

Grammatical meaning is the meaning which is common for all units of the same class. Each word has its own lexical meaning and it is strictly individual. A group of words is united by a general meaning common for this group. E.g. *red, brown, grey, green, etc.* are united by a general meaning of property, it is their grammatical meaning. It distinguishes one class of words from another. The peculiar feature of the word is that it may have more than one grammatical meaning, but only one lexical meaning.

The morphemic features of the word which express grammatical meaning determine its **grammatical form**. That is why the grammatical form does not belong to any word individually but it unites the whole class of words. The grammatical form is stable for a given group of words. For instance, the meaning of the substantive plural is rendered by the regular plural morpheme (*e*) *s*, and in some cases by other more specific means (*a phonemic interchange, absence of any sign, -en, (r)en*)

So, the grammatical form presents a division of the word on the basis of expressing a certain grammatical meaning.

The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by grammatical forms of the word are categorial grammatical meanings. The categorial meanings unite the individual meanings of the correlated grammatical forms and are realized through them. The unity of the grammatical meaning and the grammatical form is the **grammatical category**. That is why the grammatical meaning and the grammatical form are inseparably connected.

The grammatical forms which render the grammatical meaning of the category are exposed by the grammatical oppositions. The opposition is a certain correlation of grammatical forms by means of which a certain function is expressed, e. g. The form of *-s* renders the meaning of more than one. It consists of two correlated members which possess common and different features.

The most important type of morphological opposition is the **binary privative opposition**. It is formed by two contrastive members one of which is characterized by the presence of a certain differential mark (it is actually a morpheme) while the other member doesn't have this mark. The member in which the mark is present is called *marked* or *strong*, the other one is called the *unmarked* or *weak* (it doesn't have any mark).

Contrasting two members one of which is marked and the other unmarked serve as the immediate means of expressing a grammatical meaning. E.g. The form *ways* expresses the meaning of more than one as opposed to the form *way* which renders the meaning of singularity. These two forms (*way - ways*) produce a binary privative opposition in which the plural is a marked member.

The meaning of the weak member is more general and abstract as compared with the meaning of the strong member and it is used in a wider range of contexts.

Any grammatical category is expressed by at least one opposition of forms. E. g. *way - ways* represents the grammatical category of number because semantically the meaning of the second member is more than one and morphologically it is marked by *-s*.

In various contextual conditions one member of the opposition can be used in the position of the other. This phenomenon is known as the **oppositional neutralization**. The latter is a purely syntagmatic process which takes place in the conditions where the distinctive features become irrelevant. The oppositional pair is reduced to only one member, the unmarked one which has a more general meaning. Thus, in *Man conquers nature* the noun *man* is used in the singular form despite the fact that it stands for people in general, for the idea of "mankind". Here the weak member of the categorial opposition of number has replaced the strong one. In syntax the opposition "present - future" or "continuous - non-continuous" is reduced too. E.g. *Tonight we start for Moscow* where the verb "start" takes the form of the present while its meaning is that of the future.

LECTURE 3

GRAMMATICAL CLASSES OF WORDS

1.1. General Characteristics of the Parts of Speech as Lexico-grammatical Word Classes

1.2. The History of Development of Parts of Speech Classifications

1.3. Classical and Functional Approaches to the Parts of Speech Classification

1.4. Distributional Approach to the Parts of Speech Classification

1.5. Complex Approach to the Parts of Speech Classification

1.6. The Parts of a Sentence

3.1. General Characteristics of the Parts of Speech as Lexico-grammatical Word-Classes

The general modern definition of parts of speech places them as **lexico- grammatical word-classes**, which are characterized by a general abstract grammatical meaning, expressed in certain grammatical markers. Parts of speech present a mixed lexical and grammatical phenomenon because, on the one hand, words are characterized by a certain lexical meaning and, on the other hand, each generalized word-class possesses a unifying general abstract meaning. As this kind of meaning covers the whole class, it may be defined as grammatical due to the wide scope of abstraction embracing a wide range of units. Usually parts of speech are considered in grammars as isolated groups, each with their own grammatical meaning and material shape. However, in language, all elements are interconnected, as it presents a system and not a conglomeration of isolated elements. Parts of speech are also *interdependent*. First of all, they are distinguished from the other by the number of words constituting each class. The greatest amount of words is contained in the noun and verb classes. This is conditioned by the functional role that these classes play in coherent speech, in the utterance; and

in the long run the background for word-class distinctions is the logical structure of thought which finds reflection in the syntactic arrangement of elements of the sentence. The noun and the verb are destined to fill the positions of the main sentence elements — subject and predicate, the centre of predication in any connected discourse, and the main elements of proposition. Other word classes with a full lexical meaning are dependent upon these two, they are satellites to the head words — nouns and verbs. For example, adjectives are dependent on the noun. In the sentence, the adjective is attached to the noun denoting its properties by means of attributive or predicative relations. The formal and functional properties of other two classes — numerals and pronouns — are distributed between the noun and the adjective. The verb has one satellite among parts of speech — the adverb, which adheres to the verb, denoting the property of action.

As a rule, the words in a single class do not allow absolutely identical behaviour; instead, they are further divided into several subclasses, often overlapping, which show somewhat different behaviour. This is **subcategorization**.

Some word classes are large and can readily accept new members: these are called **open classes**. Others are small and accept new members only with difficulty: these are closed classes. In English, noun, verb and adjective are open classes, while pronoun and preposition are **closed classes**.

The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. Taking into account different principles of classification, we can group all approaches into four basic ones: classical, functional, distributional and complex.

3.2. The History of Development of Parts of Speech Classifications

The first explicit grammatical teaching was propounded by the great Greek philosopher *Aristotle*. He developed the theory of the sentence; and the theory of word-classes as notional and functional parts of speech. However, being the founder of logic, Aristotle stated grammatical categories in terms of logic. He introduced in grammar the logical notions of subject and predicate. His criterion for discriminating between parts of speech was the ability of words to express the parts of the logical proposition, i.e. *the subject*, *the predicate* and *the copula*. Accordingly, he established three parts of speech: *the "name"* and *the "verb"* (forms expressing both the subject and the predicate), and the *"conjunction"* (forms expressing copulas). Thus, by "names" he understood, in modern terminology, the nominative case of nouns, adjectives, participles; by "verbs" — the infinitive of verbs; by "conjunctions" — different functional words and forms.

The grammatical teaching of Ancient Greece was completed in Alexandria, between the 2nd century B.C. and 2nd century A.D. In the works by *the Alexandrian scholars* many features of grammar were shaped into the form that the linguists of the 19th century called "traditional" grammar. Aristotle's doctrine of "names" and "cases" was reformed. The groups of the language were grouped

into eight parts of speech: *inflected* (name, verb, participle, article, pronoun) and *uninflected* (preposition, adverb, conjunction).

The philosophers of the Middle Ages made some further important observations about Latin Grammar since they saw in the structure of Latin the only natural and logically perfect form of speech in general. They proceeded from the statement that all the languages had essentially the same basic structure as Latin. They defined nouns and adjectives as different parts of speech within the class of names, and also discovered syntactical categories of concord, government and opposition.

The conception that the structure of different languages is based on the same logical, rational categories was developed further through the epoch of the Renaissance (14-16 centuries) and in the 17th century led to the theory of universal grammar based on logical principles, with the same fundamental categories for all languages.

3.3. Classical and Functional Approaches to the Parts of Speech Classification

The classical parts of speech theory of the English language goes back to ancient times and is based on Latin grammar. According to the Latin classification of the parts of speech all words were divided into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech. This system was reproduced in the earliest English grammars. The first of these groups, declinable words, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the second — indeclinable words — adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The inflectional classification is quite successful for Latin or other languages with developed morphology and synthetic paradigms but it cannot be applied to the English language because the principle of declinability/indeclinability is not relevant for analytical languages.

The first classification worthy of attention is that of a prominent English grammarian who worked on the verge of the 20th century, **H. Sweet**. He may be said to be the first grammarian who broke away from the canons of classical Latin grammar and strove at representing the facts of English as they were in that language. His approach may be defined as functional. *He resorted to the functional features of words and singled out nominative units and particles*. To nominative parts of speech belonged noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participles), verb (finite verb, verbals — gerund, infinitive, participles), while adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection belonged to the group of particles. However, though the criterion for classification was functional, Henry Sweet could not fully abstract himself from the rules of classical grammar, which, based on features of highly inflected languages, such as Greek and Latin, departed from form, that is, from the ability of a word to have inflections. Therefore, he failed to break the tradition and classified words into those having morphological forms and lacking morphological forms, in other words, declinable and indeclinable.

Another classical representative of English grammar of the older generation **O. Jespersen** had a different starting point for the analysis of word-classes though his approach is also functional. First,

he gave the traditional list of parts of speech "for the dictionary", as he put it; *for differentiation of the words in speech he produced his theory of "The Three Ranks" based on mutual relations of words in sentence.* The illustration of the three ranks were the following combinations: in a group *an extremely hot weather* or *a furiously barking dog*, the words *weather, dog* are primary; *hot, barking* — secondary; *extremely, furiously* — tertiary. However, the theory of the three ranks did not cover the relations of all the main word- classes. It left out the most important word-class — the verb.

3.4. Distributional Approach to the Parts of Speech Classification

A distributional approach to the parts of speech classification can be illustrated by the classification introduced by **Ch. Fries**. The researcher belongs to the American school of descriptive linguistics for which the starting point and basis for any linguistic analysis is the distribution of elements, the co-occurrence of linguistic units in linear order. He worked out the classification of the vocabulary based on a syntactical criterion. Ch. Fries shares the idea that syntactic signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. The morphological and the syntactical signals (they are word order and intonation contour) in the sentence with nonsensical words "Woggles ugged diggles" make us understand that some actors acted upon some objects and state that it has its own grammatical meaning (actor - action - thing acted upon) which shows the relation between the words in it.

This classification is based on the study of the combinability of the words of a sentence by means of a substitution testing. The testing results in developing four main positions of notional words: noun (N), verb (V), adjective (A), adverb (D). The positions may be filled in by nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs or their equivalents. If any word can fit into a position without destroying the grammatical meaning of the sentence it means that the word belongs to the same class.

For his material Ch.Fries chooses tape recorded conversations (50 hours of talk). The words isolated from this corpus are tested on three typical sentences which are used as substitution test-frames:

Frame A. The concert was good.

Frame B. The clerk remembered the tax.

Frame C. The team went there.

As a result of substitution tests on the cited "frames" the following lists of positional words are established:

Class 1 - those which can fill in the N position. They are *concert, coffee, taste, container, clerk, husband, team, tax, food*, etc.

Class 2 - those which can fill in the V position. They are *was, seemed, became, remembered, wanted, saw, went, came, ran, liked*, etc.

Class 3 - those which can fill in the A position. They are *good, large, foreign, new, empty*, etc.

Class 4 - those which can fill in the D position. They are *there, here, always, then, sometimes*, etc.

Filling in the positions of the frames all these words don't affect their general grammatical meaning (thing and its quality, actor-action-thing acted upon, actor-action-direction of the action).

These four classes are further divided into subclasses in accord with the combining power of the words forming a sentence. Thus in the V class one can find a subclass of transitive verbs, a subclass of intransitive verbs, etc.

But there was one more class of words which did not fill in any positions of notional words. They were called the functional words. They are formal signals of the relations between the notional words and are closely connected with the grammatical meaning of the sentence as a whole. According to Ch. Fries there are 154 functional words in English: determiners, modal and auxiliary verbs, connectors (conjunctives, subordinators, relatives), prepositions, introducers, interjections, yes-no words, etc.

3.5. Complex Approach to the Parts of Speech Classification

All the classifications mentioned above appear to be one-sided because parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of only one aspect of the word: either its meaning, or its form, or its function. In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated on the basis of three criteria: semantic, formal and functional. This approach may be defined as complex. The semantic criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The formal criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features, c) its syntactic peculiarities.

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

a) those denoting things, objects, notions, qualities, etc. — words with corresponding references in the objective reality — notional words;

b) those having no references of their own in the objective reality; most of them are used only as grammatical means to form up and frame utterances — functional words, or grammatical words.

It is commonly recognized that the notional parts of speech are the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the pronoun, the verb, the adverb. The features of the noun are the categorial meaning of substance, the forms of number and case, the substantive functions in the sentence (subject, object, predicative); the features of the adjectives are the categorial meaning of property, the forms of the degrees of comparison, adjectival functions in the sentence (attribute to a noun, adjectival predicative); the features of the numeral are the categorial meaning of number, specific forms of composition for

compound numerals, the function of the numerical attribute, numerical substantive. The functional parts of speech are articles, particles, prepositions, conjunctions, modal words and interjections. The division of language units into notion and function words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In notional words the lexical meaning is predominant. In function words the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and function words is not always clear cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to function words — e.g. semi notional words — *to turn, to get*, etc.

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock while function words constitute a smaller group of words. Although the number of function words is limited, they are the most frequently used units.

3.6. The Parts of a Sentence

When any part of speech is used in a sentence (or speech) it becomes a part of a sentence. The division of parts of a sentence is a rather complicated problem. Traditionally they are divided into **main** and **secondary** where the subject and the predicate are main parts and the object, the attribute and the adverbial modifier are secondary which is justified by the difference in their function. *The subject and the predicate make the predication and thus they constitute the sentence. The secondary parts of the sentence serve for their extension* being added to the words of the predication in accord with their combinability (they expand the structure of a simple sentence).

This division is open to criticism from the point of view of its consistency because the sentence parts division combines syntactical and morphological relations: e.g. the name *attribute* shows the subordinate nature of the part of a sentence it denotes. The term *object* does not indicate any subordination but it is connected with the content of the sentence. The term *adverbial modifier* is twofold: it reveals a dependent secondary character of the corresponding part of the sentence, and at the same time it refers to a certain part of speech.

Under a traditional division many units of the sentence (prepositions, conjunctions, particles, etc.) are not considered to be the parts of a sentence at all. There are elements which in one case get their names and in some cases they do not have them. When a noun or an adjective are attached to a link verb, their name is a predicative. E.g. *My sister is a doctor. She is young* where *a doctor and young* are predicatives. But when they are attached to an infinitive they have no any name at all: *To be a good doctor is my wish*.

We think that any division is to be based on a grammatical criterion.

In this manual such a criterion is combinability of the sentence units. The words which contain the structural meaning of predicativity are regarded as structural subjects and predicates. Those notional words which are attached to them and are their adjuncts fall into compliments, attributes and

extensions. Those seminotional words which specify various words (articles, particles) are called specifiers. The words in the sentence with zero connections are parenthetical elements.

The subject is an independent member of a predication unity. It may be expressed by a separate word, by a complex *To see is to believe* or by introductory *there or it* which are structural subjects as they don't have any meaning of their own.

The predicate is the second member of predication. It covers the meanings of person, mood, voice, tense components of predicativity. It may be expressed by a separate word or by a complex. There are two main types of predicates: verbal and nominal. With regard to their structure they fall into simple and compound. A simple predicate is a predicate in which both lexical and grammatical meanings are expressed in one word. E.g. *I saw her yesterday*. A compound predicate is a predicate in which the primary lexical meaning is expressed in one word and the grammatical meaning in another. E.g. *My father is a driver*. A compound predicate falls into compound nominal and compound verbal.

What element of two the subject or the predicate is more important is a question which is under a hot discussion. The points of view are different. One reads that out of two elements the most important is the subject for it is a thing we speak about (Peshkovsky). The opposite point of view reads the subject is the kind of an object to the predicate and a sentence is a predicate with some objects to it (Teniere).

Complements are the units of a sentence connected with the verb. They fall into several subgroups: a) predicative complements (they are the parts attached to *seminotional verbs*) E.g. He is proud of his mother. He became a pilot. b) *objective* complements are nouns connected with the objective verbs They fall into prepositional and prepositionless, which fall into direct and indirect. The direct objects denote something directly affected by the verb action. The indirect objects denote the person for whose benefit the action is performed or towards whom it is directed. c) adverbial complements are units connected with the predicate of the sentence. They convey qualitative or quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of the action denoted by the verb.

Attributes are parts of a sentence which modify nouns or their equivalents. Semantically they express various shadow of relations with the nouns they modify. They fall into the following groups: qualitative (*the deep sea*) quantitative (*many children*), subjective (*his arrival*), they are mostly possessive pronouns or nouns in the possessive case, objective attributes are prepositional phrases connected with the nouns derived from the verbs (reminder of the war, scent of flowers) and appositive attributes, they are nouns placed by the side of other nouns to characterize a person or a thing. They indicate the class or group to which a person or a thing belongs (aunt Mary, doctor Brown).

Extensions are the parts of a sentence which modify adjectives, adverbs or adjective statives (She cried *too* loudly).

Connectives are the parts of a sentence which join other parts. They are prepositions and conjunctions. (I did not go to eat for I was too tired)

Specifiers are the units which specify various words by intensifying their meaning. They are *even, only, merely, etc.* (Even John has come.)

Intencifiers are the units which intencify the meaning of a separate word. They are really, definitely, etc. (He a really strong man)

Parenthetical elements are parts of a sentence which have negative combinability, they express the speaker's attitude towards the content of the sentence. They are modal parenthetical elements. or explanatory elements. (He would buy them out, of course.)

LECTURE 4

NOUN AND ITS CATEGORIES

4.1. General Characteristics of the Noun as a Part of Speech

4.2. Grammatical Category of Number

4.3. Grammatical Category of Case

4.4. Grammatical Category of Gender

4.5. Article as a Specific Unit Accompanying the Noun

4.1. General Characteristics of the Noun as a Part of Speech

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

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

According to the type of nomination they may be *proper* and *common*; According to the form of existence they may be *animate* and *inanimate*. Animate nouns in their turn fall into *human* and *non-human*.

According to their quantitative structure nouns can be *countable* and *uncountable*.

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

Morphological features of the noun. In accord with the morphological structure of the stems all nouns can be classified into: *simple, derived* (stem + affix, affix + stem — thingness); *compound* (stem+ stem — armchair).

The noun has morphological categories of *number* and *case*. Some scholars admit the existence of the category of *gender*.

Syntactic features of the noun. The noun can be used in the sentence in the following syntactic functions: *subject, object, attribute, adverbial modifier* and *predicative*.

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

4.2. Grammatical Category of Number

Modern English, as many other languages, distinguishes between two numbers, **singular** and **plural**. Their categorial meaning is clear enough: the singular number shows that one object is meant, the plural shows that two or more objects are meant. Thus, the opposition is "one — more than one" (e. g. *student — students, girl — girls, story — stories*, etc), with the plural forms being the strong member, marked by the -s inflection in its three phonetic variants: [s], [z], [ɪz].

A. There are some closed groups of nouns which display **exceptional plural forms**.

S Four nouns add the non-productive suffixes -en, -ren: *ox — oxen, child — children, brother — brethren, aurochs — aurochsen*.

S Seven nouns change their vowel; this process is known as mutation, or sound alternation:

man — men, woman — women, goose — geese, foot — feet, tooth — teeth, mouse — mice, louse — lice.

S A few nouns have the same form for both singular and plural. Only the context enables us to know which meaning is intended: *sheep — sheep, deer — deer, salmon — salmon, aircraft — aircraft, offspring — offspring, series — series, species — species*.

S Many nouns, borrowed from Latin or Greek, have kept the original plural, e.g.: *alga — algae, larva*

— larvae, bacterium — bacteria, datum — data, phenomenon — phenomena, criterion — criteria, bacillus — bacilli, locus — loci, nucleus — nuclei, stimulus — stimuli, codex — codices, analysis — analyses, basis — bases, crisis — crises, etc.

B. Many English nouns do not show a contrast between singular and plural. They are classified into several groups:

Nouns with the descriptive plural. The plural form of such a noun has a pronounced stylistic coloring due to the usage of the uncountable noun in the function of the countable noun, e. g. the waters of the Atlantic; Arabia, the land of sands; "A Daughter of the Snows" (J. London). The opposition "one — more than one" does not apply here. We could not possibly say *three waters*, or *five snows*. The real difference in meaning between *water* and *waters*, or *snow* and *snows* is that the

plural form serves to denote a landscape or seascape in order to impress (a vast stretch of water; the ground covered by snow, etc). A peculiar stylistic value of such forms is evident.

Nouns with a fully lexicalized plural form. The plural form develops a completely new meaning which the singular does not have at all, e. g.: *Colour — colours* (флаг), *custom — customs* (таможня).

C. Pluralia Tantum nouns. These are nouns which have only a plural and no singular form. Here belong:

S the names of "two-part" items: *trousers, scissors, binoculars, jeans*, etc;

S nouns of indefinite plurality: *annals, amends, auspices, congratulations, dregs, outskirts, remains, thanks, tropics*, etc;

S a few nouns which look singular but are always plural: *vermin, people, livestock*, etc.

S Singularia Tantum nouns. These are nouns which have only a singular and no plural form. In fact, they are uncountable, because they denote:

S material substance: *air, milk, oxygen, oil*, etc;

S abstract notions : *peace, usefulness, music*, etc.

However, such nouns may become countable if they are used to denote objects made of the material (*iron — irons*), or special kinds of the substance (*wine — wines*), or objects/persons exhibiting the quality denoted by the noun (*beauty — beauties*). Names of subjects, diseases, and games, such as *linguistics, mathematics, physics, mumps, billiards*, etc. are always in the singular.

D. Collective nouns and nouns of multitude. These are nouns denoting groups of human beings (*family, folk, party, government, police*, etc.) and also of animals (*cattle, poultry*) which can be used in two different ways: either they are taken to denote the group as a whole, or else they are taken to denote the group as consisting of a number of individuals (e. g. *My family is small — My family are early risers*).

4.3. Grammatical Category of Case

The problem of case in Modern English nouns is one of the most difficult problems in English grammar. The traditional view presented in most practical grammars is that English nouns have two cases: **a common case** (e. g. *father*) and **a possessive or genitive case** (e. g. *father's*). However, there are some other views which can be divided into two main groups: 1) the number of cases in English is more than two; 2) there are no cases at all in Modern English nouns.

The classical definition of the grammatical category of case reads: "*Case is the category of a noun expressing relations between the thing denoted by the noun and other things, or properties, or actions, and manifested by some formal sign in the noun itself*". This sign is almost always an inflection, and it may also be a zero sign i. e. the grammatically meaningful absence of any sign. It is obvious that the minimal number of case forms in a given language system is two because at least two grammatically correlated elements are needed to establish a category. Thus case is a part of the

morphological system of a language. With this interpretation in view, it is hardly possible to accept the theories which hold that case may also be expressed by prepositions or by the word order.

The problem of case in Modern English has been variously interpreted by many scholars, both in this country and elsewhere. M. Y. Blokh says that four special views should be considered as essential in the analysis of this grammatical phenomenon. The first view called "the theory of positional cases" is directly connected with old grammatical tradition and can be found in the works of J. C. Nesfield, M. Deutschbein, M. Bryant and some other scholars. According to them, the English noun, on the analogy on classical Latin grammar, could distinguish, besides *the inflectional genitive case*, also the noninflectional, i. e. purely positional cases: *nominative*, *vocative*, *dative*, and *accusative*. The prerequisite for such an interpretation is the fact that the functional meanings rendered by cases can be expressed in language by non-morphological means, in particular, by word- order.

The second view is called "the theory of prepositional cases". It is also connected with the old school grammar teaching and was advanced as a logical supplement to the positional view of the case. In accord with the prepositional theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain collocations should be understood as morphological case forms. To these belong first of all *the dative case* (*to* + noun, *for* + noun), *the genitive case* (*of* + noun), *the instrumental case* (*by*+ noun) etc. These prepositions, according to G. Curme, are "inflectional prepositions" equivalent to case inflections. The prepositional cases are taken, by the scholars who recognize them, as coexisting with positional cases together with the classical inflectional *genitive (possessive)* completing the case system of the English noun.

The third view of the English noun case recognizes a limited inflectional system of two cases in English: the common case *and* the possessive (genitive) case. The limited case theory is most broadly accepted among linguists. It was developed by such scholars as H. Sweet, O. Jespersen. In the works of A. I. Smirnitsky and L. S. Barkhudarov it is presented as an oppositional system, the genitive form marked with the -'s inflection being the strong member of the categorical opposition, the common, or the non-genitive form being the weak member. The limited case theory applies to the noun-forms with the -'s inflection; the specific word-combinations of the type *Smith and Brown's office*, *somebody else's daughter*, etc, where the -'s refers to the whole phrase, are not taken into consideration.

The fourth view of the problem of the English noun cases treats the English noun as having lost the category of case in the course of its historical development. All the noun cases, including genitive, are regarded as extinct. The only existing case inflection -'s is described by the proponents of this approach (G. N. Vorontsova and some other scholars) as a specific postpositional element — the possessive postposition. One cannot but acknowledge the rational character of this reasoning; it is

based on the careful observation of the linguistic data. For all that, however, the theory of the possessive postposition fails to take into account the inflectional nature of the -'s.

We have considered theoretical aspects of the problem of case of the English noun. As a result of the analysis, we may come to the conclusion that the inflectional case of nouns in English has practically ceased to exist. The remaining two-case system has a limited application in the expression of various case relations in Modern English.

The personal pronouns in English are commonly interpreted as having a case system of their own, quite different from that of nouns. The two cases traditionally recognized here are the nominative case (*I, you, he, etc.*) and the objective case (*me, you, him, etc.*).

4.4. Grammatical Category of Gender

The term "gender" is opposed to the term "sex". The first term (gender) is a pure grammatical term which deals with the grammatical expression of grammatical gender, i.e. the expression of *masculine, feminine* and *neuter* genders. The second word (sex) is used as a common word for both male and female. Thus, it is often used to denote biological notions. Speaking about the Modern English language we can say that the English nouns do not have a grammatical category of gender. It is because that the nouns do not have constant grammatical means to express the gender distinctions.

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

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

1. gender may be indicated by a change of words that is, by the help of lexic- semantic means: *man - woman, cock (rooster) - hen, bull-cow, Arthur, Ann, Edgar, Helen* and so on.
2. gender may be indicated by the addition of a word that is, by syntactic means: *Grandfather - grandmother, manservant - maidservant, male cat - female cat or he cat - she cat* and so on.
3. gender may be expressed by the use of suffixes: *host - hostess, hero - heroine, tiger - tigress*. There are opinions according to which these suffixes are morphological means, thus they are grammatical means and because of this fact one may consider that English has the grammatical category of gender. But it can hardly be accepted.

There is a regular correspondence between English nouns and the personal pronouns in the third person singular *he, she, it*. But this correspondence is not equal with the one which is found in Russian.

In the Russian language this correspondence is based on both the lexical-semantic and the grammatical aspects but in English it is based on only the lexical-semantic aspect, that is "he" is usually used to indicate real biological male sex, "she" indicates real biological female sex and "It" is used to indicate inanimate objects. It is important to remember that the pronouns he, she, may also be used with regard to inanimate nouns. Such a use of these pronouns is explained by the cultural and historical backgrounds and it has nothing to do with the grammatical expression of the meaning of gender. Examples: moon — she, ship — she, love — he and so on.

4.5. Article as a Specific Unit Accompanying the Noun

Article is a unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in a communicative collocation. The problem of English articles has been the subject of hot discussions for many years. Today the most disputable questions concerning the system of articles in English are the following: the identification of the article status in the hierarchy of language units, the number of articles, their categorial and pragmatic functions.

There exist two basic approaches to the problem of the article status: some scholars consider the article a self-sufficient word which forms with the modified noun a syntactic syntagma; others identify the article with the morpheme-like element which builds up with the nounal stem a specific morph.

In recent works on the problem of article determination of English nouns, more often than not an opinion is expressed that in the hierarchy of language units the *article occupies a peculiar place — the place intermediary between the word and the morpheme*. The system of articles in English is described as one consisting of three articles — the definite article, the indefinite article, and the zero article, which, correspondingly, express the categorial functions (meanings) of identification, relative generalization, and absolute generalization.

In the light of the oppositional theory the article determination of the noun should be divided into two binary correlations connected with each other hierarchically. The opposition of the higher level operates in the whole system of articles. It contrasts the definite article with the noun against the indefinite article and the meaningful absence of the article. In this opposition the definite article should be interpreted as the strong member by virtue of its identifying and individualizing function, while the other forms of article determination should be interpreted as the weak member, i.e. the member that leaves the feature in question ("identification") unmarked. The opposition of the lower level contrasts the two types of generalization, i.e. the relative generalization distinguishing its strong member (the indefinite article plus the meaningful absence of the article as its analogue with uncountable nouns and nouns in the plural) and the absolute, or "abstract" generalization distinguishing the weak member of the opposition (the meaningful absence of the article).

The invariant function of all the articles (i.e. the function all of them are used in) is that of determination. Any human language has a system of devices used to determine words as parts of speech. In analytical languages the article is the basic noun determiner. In synthetic languages, like Russian and Ukrainian, the same function is performed by inflexions.

The articles *a* and *an* are modified forms of the word one; the article *the* is a modified form of an older demonstrative that. In a sense, these older meanings still hold true as a guide to the use of the articles in Modern English.

A) FUNCTIONS OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

1. The classifying function of the indefinite article is realized in the so-called classifying utterances. Their invariant sentence pattern is: N1 + Vbe + N2. Those are: a) structures with the verb "to be", for example: *This is a computer.*
b) exclamatory sentences beginning with "what" or "such". E.g. *What a long story! He is such a nuisance!*
c) sentences including an adverbial modifier of manner or comparison, for example: E.g., *You look like a rose! She works as a teacher.*
2. The indefinitizing function is realized when the referent of the noun is not a real thing, but it exists in the speaker's imagination only. Those are sentences containing modal verbs or verbs with modal meaning, forms of the Subjunctive Mood, Future Tense forms, negative and interrogative sentences. E.g., *I wish I had a home like you do. Have you ever seen a tiger?*
3. The introductory function is realized when, before sharing some information about the object, we need to introduce it to the hearer. Fairy tales can be used as ideal illustrations of the use of the indefinite article in its introductory function. E.g. *Once upon a time there lived an old man. He had a wife and a daughter. He lived in a small house.*
4. The quantifying function: the indefinite article developed from the numeral "one". The meaning of "oneness" is still preserved when the article is used with the nouns denoting measure, like "*a minute*", "*ayear*" or "*a pound*".

B) FUNCTIONS OF THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

The definite article may be used in the following functions:

1. The identifying function. When we speak, we may want to point out to something that both the hearer and we perceive with our organs of feeling. There are five different ways of getting the information about something existing in the objective reality. We can see it (*Do you like the picture?*), hear it (*I believe, the music is too loud*), feel it (*The pillow is so soft!*), smell it (*What is the name of the perfume?*) or taste it (*The soup tastes bitter*).

2. The definitizing function. The object or thing denoted by the noun is presented as a part of some complex. In modern linguistics, the term "frame" is often used. The frame is a structurally organized system of images. For example, the frame "classroom" includes a window, a blackboard and a door. So if both the speaker and the hearer know what classroom they are speaking of, the constituents of the classroom do not need any special concretization and the indefinite article will be used. Eg.: *want to talk to the dean (even if you have never met the man).*

3. The individualizing function. The object in question may be presented as a unique thing with the hearers attention focused on its distinguishing features, which are represented with the help of a particularizing attribute. The object is singled out from the class it belongs to. The particularizing attribute can be expressed by:

a) adjectives in the superlative degree: e.g., *This is the easiest way out.*

b) ordinal numerals: e.g., *I have forgotten the first word.*

c) attributive relative restrictive clauses: e.g., *I need the book I bought yesterday.*

C) FUNCTIONS OF THE ZERO ARTICLE

In most cases, the zero article performs the same functions as the indefinite one. The difference is that the combinability of the latter is restricted to the group of countable nouns used in the singular form, whereas the zero article combines *with uncountable nouns and countable nouns in the plural.* E.g. *It was a large room with windows. The toasts were in champagne.* Still, there are situations where the zero article is used in its specific functions which are different from those of the indefinite article. When used with the zero article, the noun loses its general grammatical meaning of thingness to a certain degree and acquires the meaning of qualitiveness. For example, the nouns "day" and "night" used with the zero article stand for "light" and "darkness" rather than time units. The speaker and the hearer know what classroom they are speaking of, the constituents of the classroom do not need any special concretization and the indefinite article will be used.

LECTURE 5

ADJECTIVE AND ITS CATEGORIES

5.1. General Characteristics of the Adjective as a Part of Speech

5.2. The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison

5.3. Substantivization of Adjective

5.4. The Problem of A-lexemes

5.1. General Characteristics of the Adjective as a Part of Speech

As any other part of speech, the adjective can be characterized by three criteria: *semantic* (the meaning), *morphological* (the form and grammatical categories) and *syntactical* (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the Adjective. The categorical meaning of the adjective is quality. Adjectives describe the *qualities of people* (a guilty man; He is guilty.), *things* (a heavy box) and *abstractions* (The situation is serious).

Morphological features of the Adjective. Morphologically the adjective is a poor part of speech. It has neither number, nor case, nor gender distinctions.

Traditionally all the adjectives fall into two large groups: *qualitative* and *relative*. Relative adjectives express the direct relation of the substance to some other substance: *a wooden house, an iron gate* which means a house made of wood, a gate made of iron, etc.

Qualitative adjectives denote various qualities of substances: *a difficult task, a large family*. They have degrees of comparison which make part of the morphological system of the language. Thus, the only morphological problem concerning adjectives is that of degrees of comparison.

Many adjectives take the inflectional suffixes *-er* and *-est* to mark morphological category of degrees of comparison. *E.g.: dark (positive degree) - darker (comparative degree) - darkest (superlative degree)*.

Structurally adjectives are differentiated into *simple* (red, tall, fast, etc.), *derived* (eatable, beautiful, useless, etc.) and *compound* (color blind, home-made, ice-cold, etc.) types. There are some *compound-derivatives* too (broad shouldered, narrow-minded, etc.).

The stem-building affixes are: *-ful* (hopeful), *-less* (flawless), *-ish* (bluish), *-ous* (famous); *un-* (unpleasant), *in-* (inaccurate), etc.

Syntactic features of the Adjective. Syntactically adjectives and adjective phrases are most commonly used as *attributes* (A beautiful girl came in) and as *predicatives*, following the link verb in a clause (It's nice and warm in here.).

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific *combinability* with nouns, which they modify, if not accompanied by adjuncts, usually in pre-position, and occasionally in post-position; by a combinability with link-verbs, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs.

5.2. The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison

When studying the problem we are going to consider some disputable questions. The first one is how many degrees of comparison the English adjective has. Some scholars are of the opinion that the category of adjectival comparison is the opposition of 3 forms: *o* the positive degree (*basic form*), *o* the comparative degree, *o* the superlative degree.

The others state that the only degrees of the adjective are *comparative* and *superlative*, as for the first form it does not express any idea of comparison by itself and that is why it is not a degree of comparison at all. It coincides with the stem of an adjective. But the oppositional interpretation does not admit such an approach, "on the contrary, the non-expression of superiority by the basic form is understood in the oppositional presentation of comparison as a prerequisite for the expression of the category as such" (Blokh). The basic form or the positive degree is the unmarked member in this expression of the category.

A more serious problem is that of the forms *more difficult* - *the most difficult*. Are they an analytical comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective *difficult*? If it is then *the more* and *the most* are auxiliary words serving to make up that analytical form. If it is not *more difficult* and *the most difficult* are free word combinations. The arguments that the above forms are free word combinations are the following: 1) *the more/most* combinations are semantically analogous to combinations of *less/least* (*less difficult*, *the least difficult*); 2) *more* and *the most* may be used in other word combinations with the indefinite article expressing not the superlative but the elative meaning (*a most significant attack*).

But the actual meaning of *more difficult* and *the most difficult* does not differ from that of the degrees of comparison *larger*, *the largest* and the possibility of the most combinations to be used with the indefinite article can't be considered as a definite demonstration of its non-grammatical character, since the functions of the two superlative (the elative superlative and the genuine superlative with *the*) are different.

The next problem is a few adjectives which do not produce any degrees of comparison by means of inflexion. They are *good* (better, the best), *bad* (worse, the worst) and a few more. These formations are suppletive forms of the adjectives *good*, *bad* and some others. The relation *good* : *better* = *larger* : *larger* is of the same kind as the relation *go* : *went* = *live* : *lived*.

5.3. Substantivization of Adjectives

As is known adjectives under certain circumstances can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns. B. Khaimovich states that "when adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances but substances possessing these attributes. It means that they can act like nouns, they acquire the specific features of a noun:

- The ability to form a plural;
- The ability to have a form in -s' if a living being is denoted;
- The ability to be modified by an adjective and to have any attribute;The ability to perform the function of subject or object in a sentence;
- The ability to be used with the definite and indefinite article.

In some cases adjectives do not possess all the characteristics of nouns but merely some of them. It will be right to say that they are partially substantivized. Such adjectives stand somewhere between an adjective and a noun: *the rich, the poor, the English, the wounded, the accused*.

So, there are two groups of substantivized adjectives.

1. **Wholly substantivized** (converted into nouns and acquire all the nounal features):

a) *a native, a relative, a criminal, a black, a liberal, a European, a stupid;*

b) adjectives denoting nationalities: *a Russian, an American, a Greek, etc.;*

c) some substantivized participles II;

2. **Partially substantivized** (they take only the definite article):

a) adjectives denoting all the persons possessing the quality mentioned by the adjectives as a group, but not separate individuals: *The rich were his enemies;*

b) adjectives denoting nations and ending in - sh, ch. Used with the definite article, they denote the whole nations: *The English and the French were in arms against each other;*

c) some participles: *the unemployed, the invited;*

d) adjectives denoting abstract notions: *the useful, the agreeable the cold, etc. (He lost his direction in the dark);*

e) adjectives with a singular meaning in the following prepositional phrases: *in the negative, on the whole, in the main, in short, etc.;*

f) adjectives the comparative phrases: *to get the better of something, a change for the better, etc.;*

g) adjectives in the superlative phrases: *in the least, for the best, at one's best*

5.4. The Problem of A-lexemes

Another problem is the status of lexemes like *afraid, ajar, afire, afloat, etc* built up by the prefix A- and denoting different temporary states. In traditional grammar they were considered as predicative adjectives, since their most typical position in the sentence is that of a predicative. Prof. Ilysh subjected them to a lexico-grammatical analysis and gave them the part of speech heading the words of the category of state. Later the term was changed into stative words or statives.

The above interpretation of the statives has found its proponents as well as its opponents. Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya in their "Grammar" have given them a consistent study. As they denote states (and adjectives denote qualities), have a specific prefix A-, and don't have any degrees of comparison they should be regarded as a specific part of speech.

A sound objection to the above theory was propounded by Barkhudarov L.S. who reconsidered the lexeme status of the English statives and proved that they are a specific kind of adjectives. His grounds are: 1) the basic meaning of the statives is "stative property" which does not differ from classical adjective meaning; 2) the statives are not used in attributive preposition but they have the left hand combinability both with nouns and link verbs: *the household astir - the household active, the door ajar- the door open, etc.*; 3) they fulfil the same function in the sentence as adjectives do, that of the predicative and the attribute; 4) statives are capable of expressing comparison analytically: *Jack was the one most aware of...* . The final conclusion about the nature of the statives is they are a specific kind of adjectives in Modern English.

LECTURE 6.

VERB AND ITS CATEGORIES

6.1 General Characteristics of the Verb as a Part of Speech

6.2 The Grammatical Category of Tense

6.3 The Grammatical Category of Aspect

6.4 The Grammatical Category of Voice

6.5 The Grammatical Category of Mood

6.1. General Characteristics of the Verb as a Part of Speech

The verb is the most complex part of speech. It possesses an intricate system of grammatical categories. All these complexities are due to the central role that the verb plays in the expression of predication. *Predication* reflects the connection between the situation denoted in the sentence and reality. The verb falls into two different sets of forms: *the finite* and *the non-finite*.

As any other part of speech, the Verb can be characterized by three criteria: *semantic* (the meaning), *morphological* (the form and grammatical categories) and *syntactical* (functions, distribution).

Semantic features of the Verb. The general categorial meaning of the verb is *process presented dynamically, developing in time*. This general processual meaning is embedded in the semantics of all the verbs, including those that denote states, forms of existence, types of attitude, evaluations rather than actions. And this holds true not only about the finite verb, but also about the non-finite one. The processual categorial meaning of the notional verb determines its characteristic combination with a noun expressing both the doer of the action (its subject) and, in cases of the objective verb, the recipient of the action (its object). It also determines its combination with an adverb as the modifier of the action.

Morphological features of the Verb. Morphologically the verb is the most complex part of speech. It is the only part of speech in M. English which has a morphologically developed system based on a series of categories, it has a lot of analytical forms, its only synthetic forms are the forms of the Present Tense, the Indicative.

The following grammatical categories find expression in the English verb forms: **Tense**, denoting the reflection of objective divisions of time — present, past, and future, plus, in English, time viewed from some point in the past, the so-called future-in-the-past which will be named "future II" as opposed to "future I" (simple future); **Mood**, expressing any supposition, non-fact (the subjunctive and conditional moods) as opposed to the expression of fact (the indicative mood) or command (the imperative mood); **Voice**, which denotes in the form of the verb that the subject of the action is acted upon (in the majority of cases), is not the agent of the action in the passive voice, as opposed to the active voice; **Aspect** (duration), which marks the duration of the action in the form of the verb, as opposed to unmarked duration in the other member of aspectual oppositions; **Person-number**, which should be considered a joint category, as it has one common exponent -s in the 3rd person singular, present, or finds formal expression in the auxiliaries be and have; it stands outside meaningful oppositions in the verbal system. The paradigmatic system of the verb adapted to the expression of grammatical categories is structured according to some definite principles and presents a systemic organization of correlated elements, both in form and in meaning due to the fact that grammatical categories are always relational. Verbs have their own *stem-building elements*. They are: postfixes:
-fy (simplify, magnify, identify...) -ize (realize, fertilize, standardize.) -ate (activate, captivate.)
prefixes:
re- (rewrite, restart, replant.)
mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate.)
un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown.)

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

Verbs are distinguished by a specific *combinability* with the doer of the action or its recipient. It can be modified by an adverb.

Classification of the Verb:

from the point of view of their structure the verbs fall into *simple* (go, take, love, read,), *derived* (broaden, classify, blacken), *compound* (blackmail, proofread), *phrasal* (give a smile, take a bath); semantically they fall into *notional*, *seminotional* and *functional*. The first set is derivationally open, it covers the bulk of the verbal lexicon. Seminotional and functional verbs have a faded lexical meaning. They are auxiliaries, modal verbs and link verbs;

on the basis of the subject-object relation the notional verbs fall into *actional* (make, do, act) and *statal* (sleep, live, rest);

in accord with the verbal aspective semantics to the idea of an action limit the verbs fall into *terminative* and *non-terminative* (drop, arrive, aim, etc are terminative, move, sleep, work are non-terminative verbs);

from the point of view of the verbal combining power verbs fall into *objective* and *subjective*;

from the point of view of their ability of taking objects. In accord with this we distinguish two types of verbs: *transitive* and *intransitive*.

Transitive verbs are subdivided into two groups:

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

verbs which take prepositional objects: *to wait for, to look at, talk about, depend on...*

Intransitive verbs are subdivided into three groups:

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

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

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

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

6.2. The Grammatical Category of Tense

The category of tense is universally recognized by the grammarians, but the number of tenses in English is a problem. **Tense** is a verbal category which reflects the objective category of time and expresses the relations between the time of the action and the time of the utterance. Tense is an inherent verbal category interrelated with Aspect. It is common practice to teach tense-aspect forms in general English courses. In grammatical theory, this approach is supported by I. P. Ivanova, who distinguishes

between pure tense forms and tense-aspect forms, the latter being treated as the complexes expressing both temporal and aspective meaning.

Past, present, and future are the objective time divisions. However, it does not mean that tense systems of different languages are identical. Moreover, English grammar admits two different tense systems. According to one interpretation, there are three tenses in English: present, past and future, represented by the synthetic forms (e. g. *write, writes, wrote*) or analytical forms (e. g. *will write*). This three tense system is supported by many scholars, in particular, B. A. Ilyish.

According to the other view, there are two grammatically relevant tenses in English: the present tense and the past tense. Some doubts about the existence of a future tense in English were first expressed by H. Sweet and O. Jespersen. They assumed that in the phrase "*shall/will* + infinitive" the verbs *shall* and *will* still preserved some of their original modal meaning (obligation and volition, respectively). This approach still prevails with many scholars (e. g. R. Quirk); the phrases "*shall/will* + infinitive" are treated by them as ungrammatical (a sort of free phrases which are used to express future actions).

Structural approach to English grammar admits the binary opposition of the Past (the strong member, marked with the *-ed* inflection) and the Non-Past (the weak, unmarked member), with the Future being excluded. One of the major proponents of this approach, L. S. Barkhudarov based his reasoning on the analysis of the Future-in-the-Past forms. According to him these combinations express both the future and the past time. However, such double marking is impossible for a grammatical category understood in the framework of the oppositional theory. M. Y. Blokh also distinguishes between the past tense and the present tense, the two making up "the category of primary time". However, he introduces one more temporal category — "the category of prospect" as the binary opposition of the forms expressing "*after-action*" (+) and "*non-after-action*" (-). This innovation has been made in order to include the analytical form "*shall/will* + infinitive" in the grammatical system of temporal relations.

As regards the Future-in-the-Past forms, their position in the system of English tenses is very specific. They do not easily fit in the system of tenses represented by a straight line running out of the past to the future. They are rather a deviation from this line. Their starting point is not a present moment, from which the past and the future are reckoned, but the past itself. With reference to these forms it is said that the past is a new centre of this subsystem. The theory of shifted temporal centers was proposed by I. P. Ivanova, and she also suggested that the term "Future-in-the-Past" should be replaced by the term "dependent future".

6.3. The Grammatical Category of Aspect

Grammatical aspective meanings form a variable grammatical category which is traditionally associated with the opposition of *continuous* and *non-continuous* forms of the verb. Yet, one can find a great divergence of opinions on the problem of the English aspect. The main difference lies in the interpretation of the categorial semantics of the oppositional members - continuous and indefinite forms: the categorial meaning of the continuous - form is usually defined as the meaning of duration, while the interpretation of the categorial semantics of the Indefinite form causes controversy (the indefinite form may be interpreted as having no aspective meaning (I.P. Ivanova), as a form having a vague content (G.N. Vorontsova), as a form stressing the fact of the performance of the action (A.I. Smirnitsky). In Modern Linguistics A.I. Smirnitsky's interpretation of the categorial semantics of the indefinite form is widely accepted.

In theoretical grammar the interpretation of *perfect / non-perfect* verb-forms also refers to disputable questions. Some linguists interpret the opposition of perfect / non-perfect forms as aspective (O. Jespersen, I.P. Ivanova, G.N. Vorontsova), others - as the opposition of tense forms (H. Sweet, G.O. Curme, A. Korsakov). A.I. Smirnitsky was the first to prove that perfect and non-perfect make up a special, self-sufficient, category which he called the "category of time correlation"; this viewpoint is shared now by a vast majority of linguists.

Developing A.I. Smirnitsky's views on the categorial semantics of perfect / non-perfect forms, we can come to the conclusion that in English there exist two aspective categories: the category of development (based on the opposition of continuous and non-continuous forms) and the category of retrospective coordination (based on the opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms).

The perfect form has a mixed categorial meaning: it expresses both retrospective time coordination of the process and the connection of the prior action with a time-limit reflected in a subsequent event. The recognition of the two aspect categories also enables one to give a sound interpretation to the perfect continuous forms: they must be treated as forms having marks in both the aspect categories.

The opposition of continuous and non-continuous forms can be neutralized and transponized. Besides, in the category of development verbs which are usually not used in continuous forms can be subjected to the process of reverse transposition, e.g.: *Were you wanting my help?*

As for the opposition of perfect and non-perfect forms, it can undergo only the process of neutralization, transposition being alien to it.

6.4. The Grammatical Category of Voice

The verbal category of **voice** shows whether the subject is the doer of an action or the subject is acted upon, i.e. it shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic structure.

The majority of the linguists recognize only two voices: *passive-non-passive* (active). This is the only opposition which is quite obvious. The voice of the English verb is expressed by a binary opposition of the passive forms of the verb to the non-passive. The passive form is the combination of *be* with *the past participle* of the conjugated verb. The passive form expresses reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction, the active form as the weak member of the opposition expresses non-passivity: *admire - are admired, spoke - was spoken, is speaking - is being speaking, has spoken - has been spoken..*

The forms of the future Continuous and future Perfect Continuous active are practically not used in the passive because of *be* double use. Many verbs of the statal subclass (*have, belong, fall, etc.*) are not actually used in passive.

When we consider the category we run into two problems:

1. the number of voices in Modern English
2. the morphological form of the passive and the nominal predicate with *be*.

As the meaning of the sentences *I read the book* and *The book reads well, He found me in the dark room* and *He found himself in the dark room* is different whereas the form of the verb is almost the same some scholars are of the opinion that there are other voices beyond the passive and non-passive. They are reflexive, reciprocal and middle (sometime they are called medial voices).

The reflexive voice

The main problem is whether *a self* pronoun coming after a verb is a separate part of a sentence or it is a part of the verb it accompanies. If a *self* pronoun is a part of a sentence there is not any ground to speak about voice. But in the sentence *He found himself in the dark room* things are different. This sentence is not parallel to the sentence *He found me in the dark room*. The meaning of the verb in the first sentence is not active since the action expressed is not passed from the subject to any outer object. On the contrary, the action is confined to the subject which is its own object of its action performance. The combination of any verb + a *self* pronoun denoting an action confined to the subject is classed as the case of the reflexive voice.

The reciprocal voice

In the sentences *Tom and Mary kissed* and *The friends will be meeting tomorrow* the actions expressed by the verbs are also confined to the subject, but they are performed by the subjects reciprocally. Tom kissed Mary and Mary kissed Tom. This verbal meaning is called reciprocal and can be rendered either by the active *form* of the verb or by combining the verb with a reciprocal pronoun.

The reflexive and reciprocal uses of verbs are considered to be special grammatical voices called "reflexive" and "reciprocal". The reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are the voice auxiliaries, i.e. they are constituent parts of the verb. It means that the above voices depend mainly on the pronouns

function in the sentence. If a *self* pronoun or a reciprocal pronoun are the parts of verbs we have the right to speak of the reflexive and reciprocal voices. But there is not any ground to speak of any voice if the pronouns are used in the pattern Verb + pronoun + and + Noun or Pronoun (Ilysh), which means that a *self* pronoun or a reciprocal pronoun are in the same relation to the verb as any noun or a pronoun.

The middle voice

A lot of English verbs have a double use, e.g. *I open the door and The door opens well*. The action of the first sentence is performed by the subject itself. In the second sentence the process is going on within the subject. In the first sentence the verb is followed by a noun, which is acted upon by the verb. As for the second sentence there is not any noun to follow the verb. It means that the verb of the second sentence is intransitive.

The above examples can be interpreted in three different ways:

1. *Open 1* and *open 2* are two different verbs, *open 1* is a transitive verb and *open 2* is intransitive because it does not have any opposed form;

2. We have one and the same verb *open*. The difference between *open 1* and *open 2* is the difference in voice. The *open* of the second sentence is in the middle voice. It shows that the action is going on in the subject itself. The difference between the *open 1* and *open 2* is not expressed morphologically. *Open 1* is accompanied by a direct object, *open 2* is not followed by any complement, its absence is a particular feature of the middle voice.

3. As there is no any morphological difference between *open 1* and *open 2* we have the same verb, the same voice. The difference in meaning and a specific syntactic structure are not sufficient reasons to speak of the existence of the middle voice.

In which way should we interpret the above consideration, is there the so called "middle voice" in Modern English or not?

It is more natural to understand the category of voice as consisting of two members: the passive and non-passive. But the non-passive voice is characterized by an indefinite and wide range of meanings. The non-passive forms may be of an active character when the subject is the doer of an action and the object is acted upon, or it may be of the middle character when the subject performs an action for itself or when the actions are within the subject (as in *He washed, shaved and dressed*). The non-passive forms of the verb may be of a reciprocal meaning when each of the subjects is the doer of the action and at the same time it is acted upon or it may render the meaning of a constant character, as in *The book reads well*.

Another problem posed by the category of voice concerns the relation between the morphological form of the passive voice and syntactical form of the corresponding complex nominal predicate with *be*. If we consider two sentences *The door was closed* and *The door was closed by the butler* which seem to be alike we don't see any difference at first sight but the sentences are different.

The first one presents a case of a nominal predicate, the second is a case of a passive voice form. How to discriminate the forms of such syntactical units? The answer is following: if the construction expresses an action it is taken to refer to the passive voice form, if it expresses a state, it is interpreted as a nominal predicate (Blok).

6.5. The Grammatical Category of Mood

The category of **mood** is the most controversial category of the verb. The only points in this sphere which have not been disputed are:

- 1) there is a category of mood in Modern English;
- 2) there are at least two moods in English verb, one of which is **the indicative**.

As to the number of the other moods, their meanings and names, opinions today are as far apart as ever. What makes the problem even more difficult is that the category of mood differs in principle from the verbal categories of tense and aspect. While the categories of tense and aspect characterize the action from the point of view of its various inherent properties, the category of mood expresses the outer interpretation of the action as a whole, namely, the speaker's introduction of this action as actual or imaginary.

The grammatical category of mood makes up a part of a general linguistic category of modality. Verbal mood is regarded as primary modality, while such lexical groups as modal verbs (e. g. *can, must, should*) and modal words (e. g. *perhaps, probably*) as well as the prosodic feature of intonation are considered to be the means of secondary modality.

The category of mood has been given various definitions. One of them reads: The category of mood expresses the relation of the action to reality as stated by the speaker. In other words, the category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen (the indicative mood), or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon, i. e. the subject of a hypothesis, speculation, desire (the imperative mood, the subjunctive mood). This system of three moods is typical of practical grammar courses.

The imperative mood in English is represented by the base form of the verb, or the bare infinitive, e. g. *Come!* There are also lexicogrammatical forms of the imperative with the verb *let*, e. g.: *Let the children do it; Let's go and have some coffee.* The imperative mood forms are limited in their use to one type of sentences, namely, imperative sentences. Most British and American scholars do not recognize the verbal category of the imperative mood, they prefer to speak about the imperative sentences as a special type of utterances.

The subjunctive mood has its own problems. It can be expressed by both synthetic forms (*infinitive, were, the past indefinite*) and analytical forms (*should/would + infinitive*). The latter are

not recognized by many British and American scholars because they are homonymous to the word-combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive.

In the sphere of mood, the main division which is generally accepted is the division into the indicative mood and the other (oblique) moods: the imperative, the subjunctive, the suppositional, the conditional, etc. In linguistic literature one can find the number of English moods ranging from two to sixteen. The binary opposition of two moods is typical of structural approach. L. S. Barkhudarov recognizes the indicative mood and the imperative mood in English, while M. Y. Blokh distinguishes between the indicative mood and the subjunctive mood. The other extreme of the range is the system of sixteen moods, proposed by M. Deutschbein who speaks of every English form expressing unreal action as of a separate mood. Between these two extremes there are several intermediate views such as that of A. I. Smirnitsky who proposed a system of six moods: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive I (the forms that do not contradict reality, e. g. *if he be, I suggest that he go*), Subjunctive II (the forms that contradict reality, e. g. *if it were, if he had known*), Suppositional ("*should* + infinitive" for all persons, e. g. *Should you meet him...*), Conditional (analytical forms of "*should/would* + infinitive" in the main clause of conditional sentences, e. g. *What would you answer if you were asked.*). E. M. Gordon and I. P. Krylova have made a list of forms expressing unreality. These forms are: 1) the plain stem of the verb for all persons, e. g. They propose that he borrow; 2) *were for all persons*, e. g. I wish I were ten years younger; 3) *the past indefinite form*, e. g. He looked as if he knew about it; 4) *the past perfect form*, e. g. He looked as if he had seen a ghost; 5) "*should/would* + infinitive", e. g. If I had a garden I should grow tulips in it; 6) "*should/would* + perfect infinitive", e. g. *If it hadn't rained we would have gone for a walk*; 7) *should* for all persons, e. g. *I insist that he should meet us at the station*; 8) *would* for all persons, e. g. *I wish he wouldn't interrupt me*; 9) "*Can/could/may/might* + infinitive", e. g. *I'm telling you this so that you can write to your parents about it*.

The variety of verbal moods is accounted for by the specific situation with this category in English as one and the same form may have two or more different meanings. For example, *we should come* in the sentence *I think we should come here again tomorrow* is equivalent to *we ought to come*, in the sentence *If we knew that he wants us we should come to see him* denotes a conditional action, in the sentence *How queer that we should come at the very moment when you were talking about us* denotes a real action. On the other hand, one and the same meaning can be expressed by different forms, e. g. *I suggest that we go* — *I suggest that we should go*; *I wish they weren't so noisy* — *I wish they wouldn't be so noisy*.

The described system of English verbal moods has not been completed in the historical development of the language. On the contrary, it is in the state of making and change, which may be illustrated by the fluctuating use of the auxiliaries *should* and *would*. Thus, our task is to register these

phenomena, to explain their mechanism, to show the tendencies of usage in terms of systematic context and stylistic preferences.

LECTURE 7

PHRASE, ITS PECULIARITIES AND TYPES

7.1. The Units of Syntax. A Phrase and a Sentence

7.2 A Phrase Definition and its Structural Peculiarities

7.3. Classification of Phrases in English

7.1. The Units of Syntax. A Phrase and a Sentence

Syntax studies the units of the syntactical level which is considered to be the highest level in the structure of the language. The largest of the units is a text which can be naturally decomposed into the smaller constituent units - sentences and phrases. Syntax also deals with the problems of sentence transformations and a sentence semantic structure, sentence definition, the problem of syntactic unit classification, functional sentence perspective, etc.

As a branch of science syntax is very young, its study became consistent and scientific only in the middle of the 20th century when it was realized that the language accomplishes its communicative function through sentences, morphological forms and lexicon, furnishes building material for sentences realized in speech.

Of all the units, which syntax studies, the most important are a text and a sentence as they always carry information and therefore serve as a means of communication. **A phrase** being an integral element of a sentence only names some phenomenon or process of an extralinguistic reality while a sentence conveys as a rule a complex thought. In this respect some types of phrases are close to words (*a small girl - a girl*) which name things or substances. This is one of the most fundamental differences between a sentence and a phrase. Another difference between them is of the following nature: each element of a phrase can undergo any grammatical changes in accordance with grammatical categories represented in it while the meaning of a phrase as a whole is not destroyed. For example, in the phrase **READ A NEWSPAPER** the first element can change according to the verbal categories of tense, mood, etc., and the second element changes in accord with the category of number. So *watch a film, has watched a film, watched films* are grammatical modifications of one and the same phrase.

Things are different with a sentence because it is a unit in which every element has its definite form and meaning. Any change in the form of at least one element produces a new sentence, a new piece of information. E.g. *My family watches a film* (one film), *My family watch a film* (every member of the family watches it), *My family watches films, etc.*

It must be also born in mind that a phrase has no intonation but for the sentence intonation is its the most important feature, i.e. every sentence has a definite intonation contour.

7.2. A Phrase Definition and its Structural Peculiarities

There exist many definitions of a phrase but of their great number we'll dwell on two of them. The first one reads that a phrase is any combination of two or more notional words (N+N *a brick house*, N's +N *Tom's sister*, A+N *a nice flat*, etc.). This point of view has been put forward by V. V. Vinogradov. But if we limit the notion of a phrase to those groups containing only notional units there is no room for prepositional phrases (*in the room*, *at the desk*, etc.) and predicative phrases (*Mary reads*, *he sleeps*), and the existence of the so called coordinate phrases (*Tom and Mary*, *tables and chairs*, *tall but slim*, etc.) is under great doubt.

In this manual *the term "phrase" means any combination of two or more elements which when combined produce a grammatical unit but which is not an analytical form of a separate word. Thus, IN THE STREET is a phrase while HAS BEEN ASKED is not. This definition of a phrase is the widest possible.*

There is another problem to be considered, the problem of the number of elements in a phrase. According to the definition given above the minimum number of elements within a phrase must be two. It is a combination of a notional word and a preposition or another notional word. But from a theoretical point of view the number of elements in a phrase may be practically unlimited because any phrase can be extended by adding some new elements to it. Thus, a word combination A + N (*a young couple*) is easily extended by modifying "young" *an extremely young couple*, which is further extended by introducing a new unit into its structure - *an extremely young married couple* - *an extremely young newly married couple*, etc.

The extension is centered around the word "couple" which is a word of great importance or a *head word*. Thus we get a system of ranks within a phrase: a head word is modified by another word which in its turn is modified by a third one, etc. This rank dependence of elements within a phrase was firstly pointed out by O. Jespersen. In *an extremely young couple* the word "couple" is the main idea of the combination that is why it is called rank I word, the word "young" modifies the word "couple", it is secondary or rank II word. The word "extremely" modifies "young" and it is rank III word.

7.3. Classification of Phrases in English

All phrases divide into various groups or types which are united by the criteria a scholar employs when classifying them. As a rule those criteria involved are: presence or absence of a head element, the character of the syntactic arrangement (subordinate, coordinate or predicative), means of connection, derivation history, etc.

Thus one and the same phrase can be referred by different linguists to different types. But it should be born in mind that existing classifications of present day phrases do not neglect each other, they provide us with additional information about the nature of a phrase.

A. From the point of view of their derivational history all phrases fall into simple and derived. The theoretical basis for such classification as N. F. Irtenjeva points out is a definite correlation between a sentence and a phrase (when a sentence and a phrase have the same denotatum in reality).

All **derived phrases** are the result of a sentence modification (mostly they are sentence nominalizations), e.g. *My brother has arrived — the arrival of my brother; The boy is good — a good boy.*

A **simple phrase** is a phrase which does not correlate with any sentence. They fall into:

i) **phrase determiners** (*several of my friends, the first of these chapters, just the last two of my first five children*);

ii) **adverbial phrases**, they consist of a head word and an intensifier (*very closely, all alone, a bit too far*);

iii) **adjectival phrases** are those which follow a link verb, they are the phrases of a predicative kind (*just a little nervous* in a sentence *Her voice was just a little nervous*).

B. According to the character of the syntactical relations (arrangement) between the elements of a phrase they fall into subordinate phrases, coordinate phrases and predicative phrases.

Subordinate phrases are binary structures in which one of the members is a leading element and the other elements function as its modifiers. Depending on the nature of the *head* member all subordinate phrases fall into:

i) **noun phrases** (N + N *gold watch*, A + N *cold war*, Adv + N *the then governor*);

ii) **adjectival phrases** (A + A *fair blue*, A + Pr. + AN *good for young boys*);

iii) **adverbial phrases** (D + D *very slowly*, D + A *shrewdly kind*);

iv) **verb phrases** are those in which verbs are combined with other units of the language. As a result there is a striking variety of patterns to be built in present day English: V + A (*came in happy*), V + D (*speak loudly*) etc.

Coordinate phrases are binary structures the immediate constituents of which are linked by coordinate relations. In terms of their grammatical arrangement phrases of this class fall into **asyndetic** and **syndetic** ones.

The syndetic coordinate phrases are joined by function words and coordinators *and, but, nor, not, neither ... nor, as well as, both and*. In most cases the units of a coordinate phrase belong to one and the same morphological class of words, e.g. *slowly and happily, young but clever, Tom and Mary, etc.*

Asyndetic coordinate *phrases* consist of two or more syntactically equivalent units joined by word order and prosody alone, e.g. *tables, chairs, sofas*.

Predicative phrases are binary structures the units of which are linked by predicative relations. The syntactic function of the component parts differ from the function of the phrase as a whole. They are *infinitive phrases* (*for him to go down, for John to speak*), *participial phrases* (they differ in their structure as the head element of such phrases is expressed by participles, e. g. *resting near her, this done*); *gerundial phrases* (*my brother coming, his leaving*).

As we can see the head elements of the above predicative phrases are the infinitive, the gerund and the participle. But recently the term "predicative phrases" has been introduced into linguistics with another meaning. It concerns the pattern N + V. There are two quite different points of view on the problem. The first one reads that any combination of N + V is a phrase and it should be studied alongside with other patterns such as N + N, A + N, etc. The other view is that the combination N + V represents a sentence rather than a phrase. As B. A. Iliysh pointed out the solution of the problem depends on the way we approach it to solve. If we consider the problem on the phrase level (decomposing a sentence into phrases) its existence should be recognized as well as the existence of some other *phrases*. Thus, in the sentence *My grandmother has bought a new dictionary we find the following word groups: my grandmother, a new dictionary, has bought a dictionary, has bought a new dictionary and grandmother has bought*. If we accept an idea that the word group *grandmother has bought* is a phrase it means that each of its elements can change in accord with its paradigm: "grandmother" can be used in plural, "has bought" can change in accord with the verbal categories of aspect, tense, voice, mood: *grandmothers have bought, grandmothers had bought, grandmother will buy, grandmothers will buy, etc.* and they are the variants of one and the same phrase. If we analyze the same phrase on a sentence level things are quite different: *My grandmother has bought a new dictionary* is not the same as *My grandmothers have bought new dictionaries*. They are different sentences.

LECTURE 8

SENTENCE AS A SYNTACTICAL UNIT

8.1. A Sentence as a Unit of Syntax

8.2. A Sentence and an Utterance

8.3. The Definition of a Sentence

8.4. Classification of Sentences

8.5. Functional Sentence Perspective

8.1. A Sentence as a Unit of Syntax

A **sentence** is a basic unit of syntax built up of words according to definite syntactic patterns which is mainly used as a means of communication.

For most linguists, in most circumstances, a sentence is an abstract linguistic object: specifically it is a linguistic object put together entirely in accord with the rules for constructing sentences in a language, rules which have to be identified in a linguistic description by thorough investigation. More particularly, a sentence does not have to be something which somebody might say or write, and not everything that we might say or write is a sentence. On the other hand, a linguistic unit may be treated as a sentence only on the basis of some formal characteristics. Consider Noam Chomsky's famous example sentence: *Colouress green ideas sleep furiously*. Chomsky's point is that, even though this thing makes no sense at all, it is constructed in accordance with all the rules for making sentences in English, and hence it is a grammatical (well-formed) sentence of English.

Being composed of words it may consist of only one word of various lexico- grammatical standing, e.g. *Night. Fire. Certainly*, etc. But there is a great difference between a word as a unit of the word stock and the sentence made up of one word. The word belongs to the vocabulary, it is a nominative unit of language; as for the sentence it is a predicative utterance unit. It means that the sentence names some references with the help of its word constituents presenting them as making up a certain situation. Unlike the word the sentence does not exist in the system of language as a ready made unit, it is created by the speaker in the course of communication. As a unit of speech *a sentence has its own intonation*. It separates one sentence from another rendering essential communicative-predicative meaning (for instance, interrogation, declaration, etc.). The intonation is the form of any sentence while the predicativity is its content. The specific category of **predication** is the relation of the named phenomenon to actual life. It involves the act of speech (it is an event with which all other events correlate in time), a speaker and reality. The connection between the mentioned objects (act of speech, a speaker and surrounding reality) is realized in the general semantic category of modality. But modality is not confined to the sentence as something different from predication. It is a broader category revealed both grammatical elements of language and its lexical units.

As for predication proper it embodies only syntactical modality the centre of which is a finite verb. The latter expresses essential predicative meaning by its categorial form (tense, mood, person, voice). Besides purely verbal categories, the predicative semantics covers such sentence meanings as purpose of communication, modal probability, desirability, etc.

8.2. A Sentence and an Utterance

The distinction between a sentence and an utterance is of fundamental importance because a sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while an utterance is

the actual use of a sentence. In other words, a sentence is a unit of language and an utterance is a unit of speech.

An utterance may be defined as a particular piece of speech produced by a particular individual on a particular occasion. In linguistics, a sentence is an abstract linguistic object forming one part of the total expressive resources of a given language. When we speak, therefore, we do not strictly produce sentences: instead, we produce utterances. An utterance is a single piece of speech marked off as a unit in some way: for example, by pauses and intonation.

There is only one English sentence of the form *What's for dinner?* But every time you say *What's for dinner?*, you are producing a different utterance. Each of these utterances may differ noticeably from others: it may be faster or slower; louder or softer; one may be cheerful or eager, while another may be bored or suspicious, and the particular social context in which it is uttered will vary. But every one of these utterances corresponds to the same English sentence.

Consider the following short conversation:

A: *Where's Betsy?*

B: *In the library.*

Here A's utterance corresponds to an English sentence, but B's response does not: there is no English sentence of the form *In the library*. However, B's response is perfectly normal: it is just that not all of our utterances correspond to sentences. Instead, some of them correspond only to fragments of sentences.

From the viewpoint of their role in the process of communication utterances are divided into four communicative types: **declarative** (statements), **interrogative** (questions), **imperative** (requests or commands) and **exclamatory** (they express various emotions, such as joy, anger, surprise, sorrow, etc.).

8.3. The Definition of a Sentence

There exist many definitions of a sentence but none of them is generally accepted. All definitions fall into logical, psychological, phonetico-intonational and formal.

The earliest definition of the sentence is **logical**. It reads that the sentence is the expression of a complete thought. Later this definition was added by the idea of the subject and predicate to be necessarily present to express a complete thought. A logical approach to a sentence definition is criticized by American scholars who are of the opinion that there are too many sentences in English which have the subject and the predicate but which don't express a complete thought. E.g. *Would you give me some bread? Take some.*

A **phonetico-intonational** approach to a sentence definition is connected with intonation presence. It reads that a sentence is a linguistic unit which has a definite intonation. So any unit which lacks an intonation contour is not a sentence.

A **formal** approach was put forward by American linguists. They regard a sentence as a syntactic construction which is not included into any bigger structure. Thus, *He was ill* is a sentence but in *He says that he was ill* "he was ill" is not a sentence any more, it is a clause because it is a part of a bigger unit *He says that he was ill* which is a sentence.

Despite the great number of definitions any of them must meet the following demands formulated by B. A. Iliysh:

1. It must state the relation of the sentence to thought;
2. It must take into account the specific structure of the language in question;
3. It must leave the room for as many possible varieties of sentences as can be reasonably expected to occur in a given language;

8.4. Classification of Sentences

The sentence classification can be based on different criteria.

1. As to their structure the sentences fall into **simple** (простые) and **composite** (сложные). The sentences with one predicative line (with one predication) are simple. Those sentences which have more than one predicative line are composite. They fall into **complex** (сложноподчиненные) and **composite** (сложносочиненные).

2. Depending on their communicative purposes all sentences fall into **declarative**, **imperative** and **interrogative**. The declarative sentences express statements, either affirmative or negative. Their meaning is expressed by a falling tone. The subject is placed before the predicate. The imperative sentences express inducement, either affirmative or negative. They urge a listener to perform or not perform a certain action, e.g. *Read the text, please, "Send me off", he said.* The interrogative sentences express a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from his interlocutor. Being connected with an answer they form together a question-answer dialogue unity. Its particular feature is the presence of an interrogative word or an auxiliary verb in its structure. Its position is before the subject.

Some scholars speak of the exclamatory type of sentences. But any exclamatory sentence does not possess a complete set of qualities that could place it on one and the same level with the declarative, imperative and interrogative sentences. The property of exclamation is an accompanying feature, and each of the communicative sentence types can be represented as exclamatory or non- exclamatory.

8.5. Functional Sentence Perspective

Any sentence divides into some parts which taken together form the nominative meaning of a sentence. Thus, the sentence *The small lady came into the room* consists of the subject group *the lady*, the predicate *came* and the adverbial modifier of place *into the room*, *small* is an attribute to the subject lady. Such a sentence division is called grammatical or nominative, and it is traditional.

Alongside of the grammatical division theoretical linguistics has put forward an idea of the so called "**actual division**" of the sentence or "**functional sentence perspective**". Its purpose is to reveal the significance of the sentence parts from the point of view of their informative value, i.e. the actual division of a sentence from the point of view of its informative perspective.

The main components of the grammatical division are the subject and the predicate. The components of the actual division of the sentence are **the theme** and **the rheme** (тема и рема). The theme is the starting point of the communication, while the rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication. The rheme denotes an object about which something is reported. It may or may not coincide with the subject of a sentence. The rheme represents the most important informative part of communication. It may or may not coincide with the predicate of a sentence.

The actual division of a sentence is better revealed in a concrete context of speech, that is why it is sometimes called the "contextual" one. The propounder of this piece of theory W. Mathesius considered this kind of the sentence division as a purely semantic factor opposed to the grammatical division.

Every language has developed its own system of the formal means to express the distinction between the rheme and the theme. The languages with a widely developed morphological system and free word order employ word order to mark the theme and the rheme. For Russian, for example, any element that comes last carries the most important information. As for English with its poor morphological system and a strict word order it has developed its own system of expressing the distinction between the theme and the rheme. This system involves lexical, morphological, phonetical, syntactical and graphical means.

Graphical means such as *italics*, *bold type* are used to identify the rheme. They show that not only notional but functional units as well can be stressed in the utterance.

Phonetical means (intonation and logical stress) is confined to oral speech. The logical accent is inseparable from other rheme-identifying means, especially from the word order.

Lexical means is a number of lexical units such as *only*, *just*, *merely*, *notably*, *solely*, *etc.* which expressing a particular shade of meaning point out the rheme, e.g. *Only a large framed photograph of a young man was there...*

Morphological means is an indefinite article use, due to its basic meaning of "indefiniteness" the article signals the new element which represents the rheme, e.g. *Suddenly the door opened and a small lady came in.*

Syntactical means provides for the rhematic identification with the help of the word order, the use of the constructions *It is ... that, It is ... who, It is ... which, passive transforms, e.g. But it was sister's house that had been destroyed, Radio was invented by Popov.* The constructions *there is/are* introduce the rheme too, e.g. *There was a big house in the end of the street, Inside was a microscope. There are some specific means to represent the theme. The main of them is the use of the definite article THE and prepositional phrases introduced by as for (As for others, they moved slowly).*

LECTURE 9

SIMPLE SENTENCE AND ITS PROBLEMS

9.1. A Simple Sentence as a Unit of Syntax and its Constituent Structure

9.2. Classification of Simple Sentences

9.1. A Simple Sentence as a Unit of Syntax and its Constituent Structure

A **simple sentence** is a sentence with one predicative line. It means that sentences with several predicates referring to one and the same subject or several subjects referring to one and the same predicate cannot be considered as simple.

A simple sentence is arranged as a system of definite function-expressing positions. Each of the positions is occupied by the nominative parts such as the subject, the predicate, the object, the adverbial, the attribute. The nominative parts are interconnected and interrelated. Being connected they produce a sentence. This connection may be expressed graphically, e.g. *A big Committee has approved his promotion:*

Committee ----- has approved

big his promotion

which shows the connection of the notional sentence constituents.

The structure of any simple sentence can be presented with the help of **IC (immediate constituent) model**. It consists in dividing the whole of the sentence into *two groups or immediate constituents*: that of the subject (**NP**) and that of the predicate (**VP**). Every language has its own way of structural grouping. The particular feature of English consists in the fact that each layer is to contain two constituents. The structural groupings are shown by the grammatical means (by the grammatical morphemes, function words, intonation and pauses). To represent graphically IC groupings in the

sentence the vertical lines are used. The division begins with the largest ICs - NP and VP - and goes deeper to the smaller constituents.

Thus the sentence (S) *The Committee has approved his promotion* on the upper level divides into the subject NP *the Committee* and the predicate VP *has approved his promotion*. The next step is to divide the subject group (NP) into the determiner *The* and the rest of the phrase (*committee*) to which it semantically refers. The VP (predicate group) divides into VP (*has approved*) and NP (*his promotion*). The last step is to divide NP into its constituents - N (*promotion*) and pronoun (*his*).

The described model is called analytical, it reveals the IC groupings.

9.2. Classification of Simple Sentences

The simple sentence classification can be based on different criteria.

1. Structurally all simple sentences fall into:

- a) expanded and unexpanded (распространенные и нераспространенные) sentences;
- b) one-member and two-member sentences;
- c) complete and elliptical sentences.

The unexpanded sentences are sentences which include obligatory units only (they are the parts which are urgently needed to produce a sentence, e.g. *She has a nice nose* in which all units are obligatory, if we omit even *nice* the sentence becomes ungrammatical because every human being has a nose.

The expanded sentences are those which have some optional units in their structure. Thus a sentence *A small lady came into my room* is constituted by the following obligatory units: *the lady, came in. Small, my, room* are optional elements used to expand the structure of a simple sentence and thus the meaning of a sentence as a whole.

The subject and the predicate are constitutive members of the simple sentence. When both of them are available in the structure of the sentence the latter is called **two member**. A sentence is considered to be **one member** if one part only (the subject or the predicate) is explicitly expressed.

Another structural classification of simple sentences is their classification into **complete** and **elliptical**. In those cases when a sentence is characterized by the omission of units needed to complete its construction or its meaning it is called elliptical. There are two main types of elliptical sentences: **syntagmatically restored sentences** (a missing part can be discovered in the nearest context, e.g. *Where are you going to?* - (I am going) *To the cinema*; and **paradigmatically restored sentences** (to restore it one is to employ the whole syntactic paradigm of the sentences). E. g. *Read, please*. This sentence is considered to be a member of the following paradigm: *Would you be so kind to read; Would you read, please; Would you read; Read, please*.

2. Semantically all simple sentences are classified in accord with the subject categorial meaning into: **personal** (*Mary came in*) and **impersonal** (*It rains; It smells of perfume*).

3. In accord with the prediacte categorial meaning the simple sentences divide into **verbal** (*He runs well*) and **nominal** (*He is young*).

LECTURE 10

COMPOSITE SENTENCE AND ITS PROBLEMS

10.1. General Conception of a Composite Sentence

10.2. Classification of Composite Sentences

10.3. Complex Sentences and their Classification

10.4. Compound Sentences and their Classification

10.1. General Conception of a Composite Sentence

It is universally recognized that a **composite sentence** is a sentence which has more than one predicative line. But there is not any universal theory on it. This situation can be explained by the following reasons: a composite sentence consists of the parts similar to a simple sentence but it has the structure of its own and the information a composite sentence carries is not the sum of information its parts have.

The peculiarities of a composite sentence have resulted in its different interpretation: a) a composite sentence is the combination of minimum two simple sentences connected by conjunction words and adverbs; b) a composite sentence is a means of communication and its constituents are only parts of it. Being the parts they don't have an intonation of their own and can't be used as independent means of communication.

In this manual a **composite sentence** is considered to be a specific syntactical unit which consists of two or more parts. They are predicative units but they are not able to function independently.

In the field of communication any composite sentence is equal to a simple one as it belongs to the syntactical level of the language too and they both are means of communication. But at the same time they are quite opposite: a simple sentence expresses one utterance, while a composite one expresses minimum two utterances. The units under consideration are opposite in their structures: a simple sentence is monopredicative, while a composite one has two predicative lines at least.

10.2. Classification of Composite Sentences

As any linguistic unit a composite sentence may be classified in different ways.

1. In accord with the means of connection all composite sentences fall into: **syndetic** and **asyndetic**. Syndetic composite sentences are those the parts of which are linked together by conjunctions, pronouns or adverbs. If it is a conjunction used to connect the parts of a composite sentence it has no other function in the sentence but that of joining its parts together. In case a pronoun or adverb is used to join the parts of a composite sentence their function within a sentence is twofold (двойственная):

a) it has a connecting function;

b) it is a member of one of the joined parts, e.g. *I met a friend WHO had visited Europe* where WHO is the subject of the second part and at the same time it is used as a connector.

An asyndetic composite sentence is a sentence in which there is no any joining means used to connect two or more parts into one unit.

2. In accord with their structure all composite sentence fall into: **complex** and **compound** which are the two forms of a composite sentence. The difference between them is the following:

a) the parts of a compound sentence are more or less of equal rights, they are coordinated; being united the parts produce an additional information within a composite sentence as a whole. The parts follow one another.

As for the parts of a complex sentence they are not equal. Any complex sentence consists of the main clause and a subordinate one which may take different positions within the main clause;

b) joining means of a compound sentence are coordinating conjunctions or connectors. They do not express any grammatical dependence of the parts producing a compound sentence. Subordinating means of connection (they are called *subordinators*) are more numerous. They subordinate the part of a complex sentence they are used in. Their presence in a part of a sentence makes it dependent upon another part. Thus subordinating means express the grammatical dependence of one part upon the other.

10.3. Complex Sentences and their Classification

A **complex sentence** is a sentence consisting of at least two *clauses*: one is the main clause and the second is subordinate. It is joined to the main clause either by a subordinating conjunction (**syndetically**) or without any means of connection (**asyndetically**), but it does not mean that the main clause expresses the central idea of communication. The information perspective of a complex sentence is not bound to duplicate the division of its clauses into main and subordinate.

The most important problem in connection with a complex sentence is *the problem of subordinate clauses classification*. There are two different approaches to the problem: *functional and categorial*.

1. In accord with the functional criterion all subordinate clauses are classed on the analogy of the positional parts of a simple sentence because most types of subordinate clauses meet the same function tests as the parts of a simple sentence. This classification has undergone two stages in its development. Primarily the classification was based on the analogy between a clause within a complex sentence and a part of speech. The clauses pointed out are: **substantive, adjective and adverb**. Later this classification was modified being based on the analogy between a subordinate clause and a part of a sentence. This correlation has resulted in the following subordinate clauses: **subject, predicate, attributive, adverbial and object**.

2. In accord with the categorial approach all subordinate clauses fall into three groups:

a) **substantive nominal** which name an event as a certain fact, e.g. *He knew too well what was wrong*;

b) **qualification nominal** which name an event but this event is referred to giving definite characteristics to some substantive entity, e.g. *The man who came in the morning left a strange message*;

c) **adverbial subordinate clauses** which provide another event with various additional description, e.g. *He will be in order if we come in time, I'd like to know where he lives, etc.*

Substantive nominal clauses fall into subject, predicative and object. Subordinate clauses of qualification nominal position are attributive clauses which are of two main types: descriptive attributive and restricted attributive clauses. Clauses of adverbial position fall into clauses of time, place, manner and comparison, condition, cause, reason.

10.4. Compound Sentences and their Classification

A **compound sentence** is a sentence consisting of two or more clauses joined to form one syntactical unit, both in meaning and intonation. If taken separately every clause loses some part of its meaning and becomes a different sentence.

There is one problem to be discussed, that is the degree of independence of the clauses making up a compound sentence. The older point of view was that the clauses of a compound sentence are completely independent. The coordinating conjunctions serve to indicate semantic relations between clauses. A new point of view reads that the clauses of a compound sentence are equal but their independence is not complete. The first clause in the order of the clauses is structurally more independent. The structure of the clause to follow is more predetermined by the structure of the first clause. This fact is reflected in the structure of the whole sentence: 1) the second clause may have anaphoric elements, e.g. *I've bought a new book and now IT is mine*; 2) the second clause may have

substitutes, e. g. *She runs quickly but her brother DOES NOT*; 3) the coordinator is in the structure of the second clause and that fact makes it grammatically connected with the previous clause.

The semantic relations between the clauses of a compound sentence depend partly on the lexical meaning of the conjunctions which unite them and partly on the meaning of the words making up the clauses themselves. Coordination covers the following types of connection: copulative, adversative, causal, consecutive. The difference between them is the definiteness of meaning: the conjunction "but" has an adversative meaning which is clear and definite, "and" has wider meaning but the relation it expresses is always understood from the context.

All compound sentences fall into some classes in accord with the type of connection existing between the clauses of a compound sentence.

1. **Compound sentences with copulative connection.** The most common conjunctions to render this kind of relation are *and, both ...and, only ...but also, neither ... nor, etc.* "And" may be used in sentences with:

- a) copulative proper relations, e. g. *This flat was on the fifth floor and the lift was out of order.* This is the only case when the joined clauses are actually equal;
- b) with relative connection (the meaning of *and* approaches the meaning of relative pronoun "which"), e. g. *She looked at him with a tender look and that pleased him;*
- c) with temporal relations, e.g. *... the clock began to strike and she began to cry;*
- d) with contrasting and consecutive relations, e.g. *She switched on the light and the room became more cosy.*

2. **Compound sentences with disjunctive connection.** They express a choice between two mutual alternatives. *Or, otherwise, else, either ... or are* used to connect the clauses of a compound sentence, e. g. *I mustn't talk any more or I shall have to sit up all the night.*

3. **Compound sentences with adversative connection.** The adversative meaning is rendered by *but* or *not that*. This type of connection is differentiated into several shades of meaning. They are sentences with *arrestive relations* (when the second clause denotes something opposite to the conclusion expected from the first clause, e. g. *She seemed to ask something but she could not put it into words*) and with *contrastive relations* (when the meaning of clauses is opposed each other, e. g. *She was dressed in black but his face was even more arresting*).

4. **Compound sentences with causal and consecutive connection** (when the second clause explains the meaning of the first one), e. g. *It was not the day yet for the candle was burning.* The conjunction *for* is used for this purpose. When consecutive relation are exposed in a compound sentence the joined clause contains some results based upon the meaning of the first clause, e.g. *It was Saturday so they did not go to work.*

LECTURE 11

MIXED TYPES OF SENTENCES

11.1. The Problem of Mixed Sentences

11.2. Sentences with Homogeneous Members

11.3. Semi-complex Sentences

11.4. Semi-compound Sentences

11.1. The Problem of Mixed Sentences

There are different mixed types of sentences in English which are between a simple sentence and a compound one.

1. **A sentence with a dependent Appendix.** It falls into some subtypes.

A. The first comes **a sentence which has "than", "the same as" in its structure plus a noun or a pronoun, an adverb, an adjective.** In a broad grammatical term it is a sentence consisting of two propositions, one presented by the main clause and the other by a comparative one. They are compared to something with respect to something they have in common, e.g. *His name is the same as his father's. Mary is older than Jane.* Very similar to these sentences are the units containing adjectives or adverbs preceded by "as" and some other word (*an adjective, a noun, an adverb*), e.g. *His expression had been as blind and clear as the day without.*

B. The next subtype of sentences with a dependent Appendix is **a sentence containing a phrase which is introduced by a subordinating conjunction as though, though, as if, when,** e.g. *When in difficulty, consult a manual. If ready, come to me immediately. Minna went around the living room, from group to group unsteadily as if in danger of falling from her high heels.*

These sentences are interpreted in two different ways: a) they are complex sentences with contracted parts which can be transformed into a clause by introducing (or adding) a required form of the verb; b) the units have to be taken for that they are. The contracted parts are very close to clauses but they are not clauses. Thus, such sentences are intermediate between a simple sentence and a composite one.

2. The second type of sentences of intermediate character is **the sentences with homogeneous members.**

3. Another type of sentences of intermediate character is **the sentences with a secondary predication,** they are sentences which have two predicative lines one of which is implicit (скрытая), e.g. *I saw him run. He painted the fence white.* They are **semi-composite** and fall into **semi-complex** and **semi-compound** sentences.

11.2. Sentences with Homogeneous Members

Homogeneous parts are the parts of the same category standing in the same relations to the other parts of a sentence. According to one point of view such sentences are termed as contracted as if they had been derived out of two or more sentences. Thus, a sentence *I met my relatives and friends yesterday* consists of two initial sentences *I met my relatives yesterday* and *I met my friends yesterday*.

But there are cases when a sentence with homogeneous parts fits into a general type of a simple sentence. It occurs when there are some objects to one predicate, or one or more adverbials to one predicate, e. g. *I only came to THANK YOU and RETURN the present*. This is also true of sentences having two or more attributes to one head word, e.g. *A room of the same size, the same colour was shown to us*. Prof. B. A. Ilyish does not consider them to be compound because they have only one subject and they can't be separated into constituent parts.

11.3. Semi-complex Sentences

As we have stated a semi-complex sentence belongs to a semi-composite sentence. There are two main causes of their existence in the language, each of them is very important in itself. The first one is the tendency of speech to be economical. The second cause is: a semi-complex sentence fulfills its own semantic function, different from the function of a composite sentence proper. Namely it is used to show that the events described in the corresponding sentence parts are more closely connected than the events described in the parts of a composite sentence of a complete composition.

A **semi-complex sentence** is a semi-composite sentence built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from minimum two base sentences, one of which is **matrix** (матричное) and the other is **insert** or **embedded** (встроенное). The insert sentence is transformed into a partially depredicated construction in the process of semi-complexing and is embedded in one of the syntactic positions of the matrix sentence. As a result the matrix sentence becomes its dominant part and the insert sentence - its subordinate semi-clause.

Semi-complex sentences fall into a number of subtypes depending on the character of predicative fusion which is effected by the process of position sharing (or word sharing) or by the process of direct linear expansion. The position sharing sentences are subject sharing and object sharing. The linear expansion sentences are of attributive complication and adverbial complication.

Semi-complex sentences of subject sharing are built by means of two initial sentences overlapping round the common subject. E.g. *The moon rose + The moon was red - The moon rose red*.

Semi-complex sentences of object sharing are built up of two initial sentences overlapping round the word which performs different functions: in the matrix sentence it is the object and in the insert sentence it is the subject, e.g. *We saw him + He approached us - We saw him approach us*.

Three main types of relations between two connected events are revealed in the object sharing sentences. They are: relations of simultaneity in the same place, (they are expressed by constructions

with verbs of perception *see, hear, feel, smell, etc.*); relations of cause and result (they are rendered by constructions with causative verbs *make, let, get, help, etc.*) and relations of mental attitude (they are effected by verbs of mental perception and thinking *think, believe, expect, find, tell, ask, report, etc.*).

Semi-complex sentences of attributive complication are derived from two initial sentences having an identical element that occupies the position of the subject in the insert sentence and any notional position in the matrix one. The insert sentence is usually an expanded one. The insert sentence drops out its subject-identical element and is transformed into a semi-predicative post-positional attribute to the antecedent element in the matrix sentence, e. g. *I came in later for the supper served in the dining room, There is a river flowing through the town, This is a novel translated from French.*

Semi-complex sentences of adverbial complication are derived from two base sentences one of which, the insert sentence, is predicatively reduced and embedded in an adverbial position of the matrix sentence, e. g. *The task was completed + The task seemed a very easy one - The task when completed seemed a very easy one.*

11.4. Semi-compound Sentences

A semi-compound sentence is a sentence built up on the principle of coordination. It is derived from minimum two initial sentences having an identical element belonging to one or both of their principal syntactical positions, i.e. either the subject or the predicate, or both.

A semi-compound sentence of subject coordination is derived from minimum two initial sentences having identical predicate, e.g. *The entrance door stood open + The door of the living room stood open too - The entrance door stood open, and also the door of the living room.*

A semi-compound sentence of predicate coordination is derived from minimum two initial sentences having identical subjects. One of the initial sentences in most cases becomes the leading clause of a complete structure, while the other is transformed into the sequential coordinate semi-clause referring to the same subject, e.g. *The soldier was badly wounded + The soldier stayed in the ranks - The soldier was badly wounded, but stayed in the ranks.*

5. Информационные и образовательные технологии

В учебном процессе занятия лекционного типа составляют половину аудиторных занятий и направлены на ознакомление с дипломатической и консульской службой. Закрепление материала лекционного курса осуществляется во время проведения семинарских занятий, а также в процессе подготовки и презентации результатов аналитической работы. Основными задачами семинарских занятий является формирование у студентов навыков самостоятельной исследовательской работы, т. е. освоение ими принципов научного анализа, поиска и отбора информации, методов осмысления и интерпретации данных, работы с научной

литературой. В сочетании с внеаудиторной работой это способствует формированию и развитию профессиональных навыков обучающихся.

6. Фонд оценочных средств для текущего, рубежного и итогового контролей по итогам освоению дисциплины.

Каждый студент выбирает тему доклада (научного сообщения) самостоятельно или по рекомендации преподавателя из предложенного варианта тем, разработанных на кафедре. Доклад пишется после изучения нескольких тем по соответствующей дисциплине. Доклад (научное сообщение) выполняется самостоятельно в часы самоподготовки. Выполнение доклада позволяет осуществлять контроль за качеством освоения изучаемого материала. Критерии оценки доклада: качество доклада (производит положительное впечатление, сопровождается иллюстративным материалом; четко выстроен; рассказывается, но не объясняется суть работы; зачитывается); использование демонстрационного материала (автор представил демонстрационный материал и прекрасно в нем ориентировался; использовался в докладе, хорошо оформлен, но есть неточности; представленный демонстрационный материал не использовался докладчиком или был оформлен плохо, неграмотно); качество ответов на вопросы (отвечает на вопросы; не может ответить на большинство вопросов; не может четко ответить на вопросы); владение научным и специальным аппаратом (показано владение специальным аппаратом; использованы общенаучные и специальные термины; показано владение базовым аппаратом); качество выводов (полностью характеризуют работу; четкость; имеются нечетки).

6.1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения дисциплины:

| <i>№ п/п</i> | <i>Контролируемые разделы дисциплины (модулей)</i> | <i>Код контролируемой компетенции (компетенций)</i> | <i>Наименование оценочного средства</i> |
|--------------|--|---|---|
| <i>1.</i> | <i>Модуль 1</i> Grammar in the systematic conception of language. Structure of the word. Grammatical classes of words. Noun and its categories. | СК-1, СК-2, СК-4 | Балл |
| <i>2.</i> | <i>Модуль 2</i> Adjective and its categories. Verb and its categories. Phrase, its peculiarities and types. Sentence as a syntactical unit. | СК-1, СК-2, СК-4 | Балл |
| <i>3.</i> | <i>Модуль 3</i> | СК-1, СК-2, СК-4 | Балл |

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | Simple sentence and its problems. Composite sentence and its problems. Mixed types of sentences. | | |
|--|--|--|--|

6.2. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности

| Наименование оценочного средства | Краткая характеристика оценочного средства | Представление оценочного средства в фонде |
|------------------------------------|--|---|
| Эссе, рефераты, доклады, сообщения | Средство контроля способности работы с информацией, ее анализа, структурирования, формирования выводов и рекомендаций | Комплект тем |
| Кейс задача | Проблемное задание, в котором обучаемому предлагают осмыслить реальную профессионально-ориентированную ситуацию, необходимую для решения данной проблемы | Задания для решения кейс задачи |

Методические материалы составляют систему текущего, рубежного и итогового (экзамена) контролей освоения дисциплины (модулей), закрепляют виды и формы текущего, рубежного и итогового контролей знаний, сроки проведения, а также его сроки и формы проведения (устный экзамен, письменный экзамен и т.п.). В системе контроля указывается процедура оценивания результатов обучения, при использовании балльно-рейтинговой системы приводится таблица с баллами и требованиями к пороговым значениям достижений по видам деятельности обучающихся; показывается механизм получения оценки (из чего складывается оценка по дисциплине (модулю)).

Текущий контроль осуществляется в виде опроса, участие в дискуссии на семинаре, выполнение самостоятельной работы и других видов работ, указанных в УМК, а также посещаемости студентов занятий - оценивается до 80 баллов.

Рубежный контроль (сдача модулей) проводится преподавателем и представляет собой письменный контроль, либо компьютерное тестирование знаний по теоретическому и практическому материалу. Контрольные вопросы рубежного контроля включают полный объём материала части дисциплины (модулей), позволяющий оценить знания, обучающихся по изученному материалу и соответствовать УМК дисциплины, которое оценивается до 20 баллов.

Итоговый контроль (экзамен) знаний принимается по экзаменационным билетам, включающий теоретические вопросы и практическое задание, и оценивается до 20 баллов.

| Форма контроля | Срок отчетности | Макс. количество баллов | |
|--|-------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| | | За одну работу | Всего |
| <i>Текущий контроль:</i> - опрос - участие в дискуссии на семинаре - посещаемость | <i>1-16 недель</i> | <i>10 баллов</i> | <i>До 40 баллов</i> |
| | | <i>6 баллов</i> | <i>До 30 баллов</i> |
| | <i>1-16</i> | <i>0,2</i> | <i>10 баллов</i> |
| <i>Рубежный контроль:</i> <i>(сдача модуля)</i> | <i>4,8,12,16 неделя</i> | <i>100%×0,2=20 баллов</i> | |
| <i>Итого за 1 модуль</i> | | | <i>До 100 баллов</i> |

Экзаменатор выставляет по результатам балльной системы в семестре экзаменационную оценку без сдачи экзамена, набравшим суммарное количество баллов, достаточное для выставления оценки от 55 и выше баллов – автоматически (при согласии обучающегося).

Полученный совокупный результат (максимум 100 баллов) конвертируется в традиционную шкалу:

| Рейтинговая оценка (баллов) | Оценка экзамена |
|--|------------------------|
| От 0 - до 54 | неудовлетворительно |
| от 55 - до 69 включительно | удовлетворительно |
| от 70 – до 84 включительно | хорошо |
| от 85 – до 100 | отлично |

6.3. Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания (На усмотрение ППС): Текущий контроль (0 - 80 баллов)

При оценивании посещаемости, опроса и участия в дискуссии на семинаре учитываются:

- посещаемость (1 балл);
- степень раскрытия содержания материала (4 баллов);
- изложение материала (грамотность речи, точность использования терминологии и символики, логическая последовательность изложения материала (6 баллов);

- знание теории изученных вопросов, сформированность и устойчивость используемых при ответе умений и навыков (8 баллов).

Рубежный контроль (0 – 20 баллов)

При оценивании контрольной работы учитывается:

- полнота выполненной работы (задание выполнено не полностью и/или допущены две и более ошибки или три и более неточности) – 8 баллов;
- обоснованность содержания и выводов работы (задание выполнено полностью, но обоснование содержания и выводов недостаточны, но рассуждения верны) – 8 баллов;
- работа выполнена полностью, в рассуждениях и обосновании нет пробелов или ошибок, возможна одна неточность - 8 баллов.

Другие виды учебной деятельности (доклады, рефераты, презентации) 10 баллов

Итоговый контроль (экзаменационная сессия) - ИК = Бср × 0,8 + Бэкз × 0,2

При проведении итогового контроля обучающийся должен ответить на 3 вопроса (два вопроса теоретического характера и один вопрос практического характера).

При оценивании ответа на вопрос теоретического характера учитывается:

- теоретическое содержание не освоено, знание материала носит фрагментарный характер, наличие грубых ошибок в ответе (2 балла);
- теоретическое содержание освоено частично, допущено не более двух-трех недочетов (4 балла);
- теоретическое содержание освоено почти полностью, допущено не более одного-двух недочетов, но обучающийся смог бы их исправить самостоятельно (6 баллов);
- теоретическое содержание освоено полностью, ответ построен по собственному плану (8 баллов).

При оценивании ответа на вопрос практического характера учитывается:

- ответ содержит менее 20% правильного решения (4 балла);
- ответ содержит 21-89 % правильного решения (6 баллов);
- ответ содержит 90% и более правильного решения (10 баллов).

6.4. Контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности.

Модуль № 1

1. Do the morphemic analysis of the words:

condense, grouse, formalizer, manliness, she-goat, cranberry, gentlemanly, agreeablenesses, exclude, resist.

2. Account for the use of the articles.

1. The dog was tamed by man a long time ago.
2. He felt pity as he knew that living with him didn't give her pleasure. It would have been a surprise to hear that she felt attached to him.
3. A group of boys were playing volleyball.
4. The woman who teaches us Italian now is not a teacher.

3. Open the brackets using the forms of degrees of comparison.

1. It is much (pleasant) to go bathing in bright weather than on a rainy day.
2. I'm sure he is the (true) friend I have.
3. He felt even (unhappy) after what he had heard.
4. It is (true) to say that Australian English is (little) influenced by American than British English.
5. It was the (glad) day of her life.

4. Define the type of the subject and the predicate of the following sentences.

1. The door was opened by a scraggy girl of fifteen with long legs and a tousled head.
2. "We've been married for 35 years, my dear. It's too long. "
3. I should merely have sent for the doctor.
4. Mrs. Albert Forrester began to be discouraged.
5. "Who is Corrinne?" "It's my name. My mother was half French." "That explains a great deal.

5. State the structural type of simple sentences.

1. "And what is your opinion of me ?" "Hard as nails, absolutely ruthless, a born intriguer, and as self-centered as they make 'em. "
2. "A woman like me is ageless. "
3. "Glaser, play the accompaniment. "
4. What a strange woman!
5. "You've rung the wrong bell. Secondfloor. "

6. State the type of the composite sentence.

1. I realized that they had fallen in love.

2. If you are successful, people will forgive you practically everything.
3. Will you be still using the computer when I come back to the office after lunch?
4. If you've got the means of getting something done, use it.
5. This afternoon Martha was late for the lecture because she had had a sleepless night.
6. It was an absolutely freezing day when we arrived in Moscow.
7. Although she was extremely surprised she did not show any sign of it.
8. As he had no alarm clock, he overslept.

7. State the type of the clause (subject, predicative, object) in the following complex sentences.

Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. The doctor's advice was that my brother should go to the south immediately.
2. That the matter should have taken such a turn is not surprising.
3. We have never discovered who did it.
4. You may rely upon what he says.
5. I think he is in the library.

8. Translate into English.

1. Я смогу пойти домой только тогда, когда я закончу эту работу.
2. Я не смогу вам дать определенного ответа до тех пор, пока не получу от них письма.
3. Он сидел саду до тех пор, пока не стало совсем темно и он не мог больше читать.
4. Я уверен, что мы уже придем к соглашению к тому времени, когда вы вернетесь.
5. Я расскажу ему об этом, как только он прилет.
6. Становилось прохладней по мере того, как мы подходили к морю.
7. Все будет готово к тому времени, когда вы придете.
8. Он упал, когда он сходил с трамвая.

Модуль № 2

1. Do the morphemic analysis of the words:

condense, grouse, formalizer, manliness, she-goat, cranberry, gentlemanly, agreeablenesses, exclude, resist.

2. Account for the use of the articles.

1. The theatre showed us a new Oscar Wilde, not the great Wilde, but a man in despair, full of doubts.
2. It was better to have a sulky Arthur than no Arthur at all.
3. She was no woman, she was servant.

4. Hollowquay was a has-been if there ever was. Developed first as a fish ing village and then further developed as an English Riviera - and now a mere summer resort, crowded in August.

3. Open the brackets using the forms of degrees of comparison.

1. She closed the door (hastily) than I had expected.
2. The (much) you read the (soon) you enlarge your vocabulary.
3. The boy's ambition was to become a pilot and fly (high) and (fast) of all.
4. Many suggested that we should go (far) into the forest.
5. The patient breathed (hard).

4. Define the type of the subject and the predicate of the following sentences.

1. I could never hope to please the masses.
2. The coincidence was extraordinary.
3. Why should the devil have all the best tunes?
4. No one yet has explored its potentialities.
5. I'm fearfully late.

5. State the structural type of simple sentences.

1. "How are you, my dear? Keeping well, I hope. "
2. "I should have preferred to see you alone, Albert. "
3. "We get on very well together, don't we, old girl? " "Not so bad. "
4. "You're not serious?" "Quite."
5. "I think you must be out of your mind. " "Do you, my dear? Fancy that. "

6. State the type of the composite sentence.

1. The waiter served the food, which had been cooked by the best chef in Paris.
2. The police are looking for the woman, who had kidnapped the child.
3. They ran to the spot where they had hidden the money.
4. They were so poor that they couldn't make both ends meet.
5. Sophia behaves as if the world were at her feet.
6. He had come so close that he and Frank were almost nose to nose.
7. It seemed as if he had been wanting to say all this for years.

7. State the type of the clause (subject, predicative, object) in the following complex sentences.

Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. I shall ask him whether he will arrange it for me.
2. He isn't what he pretends to be.
3. I cannot understand why he did it.
4. I am not satisfied with what I have written.
5. The question is whether they will arrive in time to take part in this work.

8. Translate into English.

1. Он пришел ко мне, когда я обедал.
2. Я пришел, когда они упаковывали свои вещи.
3. Он писал что-то, когда я вошел в комнату.
4. Он говорил так быстро, что я едва мог понять его.
5. Книга была такая интересная, что я читал её весь день.
6. Он такой способный человек, что я уверен, что он изучит немецкий язык в довольно короткий срок.
7. Они встретились, как будто они были друзьями.
8. Он посмотрел на меня, как будто он меня никогда раньше не видел

Экзаменационные вопросы

1. Grammar in the systematic conception of language
2. Morphemic structure of the word
3. Categorical structure of the word
4. Grammatical classes of words
5. The parts of a sentence
6. Noun and its categories
7. Adjective as a part of speech
8. Verb and its categories
9. The category of tense
10. The category of aspect
11. The category of voice
12. The category of mood
13. Phrase and its peculiarities
14. Classification of phrases in English
15. Sentence as a syntactical unit
16. Classification of sentences in English
17. Simple sentence and its problems
18. Composite sentence and its problems
19. Complex sentences and their classification
20. Compound sentences and their classification
21. Mixed types of sentences

22. Periods of the development of English grammar.
23. The pragmatic approach to the study of Language.
24. Parts of speech. Various approaches to the problem.
25. Classes of Noun.
26. Noun: number, gender and case.
27. Adjectives: classes of adjectives, degrees of comparison. Synthetic and analytical forms of adjectives.
28. The problem of the category of 'state'.
29. Grammatical categories of the verb.
30. Verb: semantic classes of the verb.
31. The category of Tense. The stylistic functioning of tense forms.
32. The problem of the future tense.
33. The categories of tense and aspect.
34. The category of voice.
35. The category of 'time relation'.
36. Mood: the controversy of the problem in English.
37. Oblique moods. What is Subjunctive?
38. The Imperative mood.
39. Non-finite forms and their place in the verbal paradigm.
40. The infinitive as the 'head-form' of the verb.
41. The infinitive and the gerund compared.
42. The problem of the 'half-gerund'.
43. The participle and its place among the verbals.
44. Formal vs. communicative approach to syntax.
45. Classification of phrases.
46. Sentence as a language unit. A word and a sentence.
47. Parts of the sentence and parts of speech.
48. Problems of a simple sentence.
49. One-nucleus and double-nucleus structures. Elliptical sentences.
50. Functional sentence perspective.
51. Communicative types of sentences.
52. Composite sentence as a polypredicative construction.
53. The notion of a clause. Syndetic and asyndetic connection.
54. Semi-compound and semi-complex sentences.
55. Sentence in the text.

7. Учебно-методическое и информационное обеспечение дисциплины

7.1. Список источников и литературы

- Основная литература:

- Гурин В.В., Попова М.С. «Theoretical grammar» – Иркутск: Изд-во «Репроцентр А1», 2017.
- Викулова Е.А. «Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка» - Екатеринбург: Изд-во Уральского университета, 2014.
- Iriskulov A.T. «Theoretical grammar of English» - Tashkent, 2006.

- дополнительная литература:

- Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004.
- Blokh M.Y. “A Course of Theoretical English Grammar”, М., «Высшая школа», 2000.
- Ilyish B. A. “The Structure of Modern English”, М., 1965.
- Хрестоматия по английской филологии. /Составитель проф. Александрова О.В. – М., 1991.

7.2. Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», необходимый для освоения дисциплины

www.yazykoznanie.ru.

[/www.lingvoda.ru/transforum/articles/maslovsky_a1.asp](http://www.lingvoda.ru/transforum/articles/maslovsky_a1.asp)

[//www.twirpx.com/file/693771/](http://www.twirpx.com/file/693771/)

www.alba-translating.ru/index.php/ru/ru/articles.html

<http://study-english.info/science.php>

<http://znanium.com/bookread2.php?book=520177>

<https://www.google.com/>

<http://www.multitran.ru/>

<https://iprbookshop.ru>

<http://www.kyrlibnet.kg>

<https://www.biblioteka.kg>

<https://www.ilim.box/>

<https://www.who.int/hinari/en/>

<https://search.epnet.com/>

<https://www.cambridge.org/core>

8. Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся

8.1. Планы практических (семинарских) и лабораторных занятий. Методические указания по организации и проведению

Theme 1 (2h) History of the development of English Grammar

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. Early (prenormative) grammars.
2. The 18th century Universal Grammar and its principles.
3. Classical Scientific grammar. H. Sweet’s *New English Grammar, logical and historical*.
4. A historical comparative method of the 19th century.
5. Grammar of the first half of the 20th century. The systematic conception of language. Ideas of Ferdinand de Saussure, the founder of a new linguistic theory.
6. Schools of Structural linguistics.
7. Prescriptive grammar in the Modern period.
8. Classical Scientific grammar in the Modern period.
9. Structural grammar. Ch. Fries’ Frames. Transformational grammar.
10. Recent developments in the concept of grammar. Pragmatics and Communicative Grammar.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000, - Chapter 1, – P.6-17.
2. Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971, – Introduction, – P.7-13.
3. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. “Readings in the Theory of English Grammar”, Л.: 1981. – P. 5-40.
4. Crystal D. Who Cares about English Usage? – London, 1985//Хрестоматия по английской филологии. /Составитель проф. Александрова О.В. – М., 1991.

Further reading:

1. Irtenyeva N.F., Varsova O.M., Blokh M.Y., Shapkin A.P. A Theoretical English Grammar. — Moscow, 1969, pp. 5-73.
2. Ф. де Соссюр Труды по языкознанию. – М.: «Прогресс», 1977.

Theme 2 (1h) Parts of Speech

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. The traditional classification of words.

2. Notional and functional parts of speech and their characteristics.
3. Viewpoints on discriminating parts of speech in English:
 - a) Henry Sweet and the morphological approach to the problem of parts of speech;
 - b) The three-rank theory by Otto Jespersen.
 - c) Charles Fries's classification of form-classes.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapter 4: “Classes of words”.
2. Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. – С. 79 –108.
3. Пыш В.А. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 2: “Parts of speech” - p.29-38.
4. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. “Readings in the Theory of English Grammar”, Л., 1981. - P. 42-57.

Further reading:

1. Irtenyeva N.F., Barsova O.M., Blokh M.Y., Shapkin A.P. A Theoretical English Grammar. — Moscow, 1969, pp. 55-59.
2. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – М., 1981.

Theme 3 (2h) The Noun and the Article

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. Definition. General characteristics of the noun as a part of speech (semantic, morphological, syntactical).
2. Subclassification of nouns; different criteria for noun classification. Lexico-grammatical classes of nouns.
3. The category of case. Views of the number and kinds of cases in English. The problem of analytical cases. The two-case system. Common case. Genitive case, different meanings rendered by the genitive case-form.
4. The category of number. Grammatical plural and implied plurality. Number in correlation with other linguistic ways of rendering quantity. Pluralia and singularia tantum. The “s” morpheme and the meanings it can signify.
5. The problem of gender in English. Sex and gender. Linguistic ways of expressing sex differences (lexical, morphological and syntactical) in English.

6. Syntactic properties of nouns, their functions and combinability.

7. Article determination.

Literature:

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

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

3. Iyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 2: “Parts of speech” - p.29-38.

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

Further reading:

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

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

Theme 4 (1h) Adjectives, Adverbs and Pronouns

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

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

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

3. Degrees of comparison.

4. The problem of the ‘category of state’.

5. Adverbs. Classification of adverbs.

6. Pronouns: the diversity of pronouns.

Literature:

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

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

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

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

Further reading:

1. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.118-120.
2. Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.

Theme 5 (1h) The Verb: General characteristics. The categories of person, number and tense.

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. General characteristics of the verb as a part of speech (semantic, morphological, syntactical).
2. Various classes of verbs. Verb building devices and their grammatical relevance. Principles used to distinguish verb-classes. Degrees of comparison.
3. Finite forms: the categories of person and number.
4. Time and tense.
 - a) Various approaches to the category of tense.
 - b) The Present and the Past tenses.
 - c) The problem of the Future tense in English.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapters 10, 12, 13, 14.
2. Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. – С. 166– 216.
3. Iyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 9.
4. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. “Readings in the Theory of English Grammar”, Л., 1981. Pp. 68-74.
5. Иванова И.П. Вид и время в современном английском языке. – Л.: Изд-во Ленингр. ун-та, 1961.

Further reading:

1. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.118-120.
2. Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.
3. Bache C. The Study of Aspect, Tense and Action. – Peter Lang GmbH, 1997. Ch. 7, pp. 244-257.

Theme 6 (2h) The Verb: the categories of Aspect and Voice.

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. The category of development. Lexical expression of aspect.

2. Continuous (progressive) aspect. Various approaches to the problem.
3. The category of ‘time-relation’.
 - a) Perfect as a tense category;
 - b) Perfect as an aspect category;
 - c) Perfect as a tense-aspect category;
 - d) Prof. Smirnitsky’s interpretation of the Perfect tense.
4. The category of voice in English:
 - a) various viewpoints of the problem;
 - b) the problem of the reflexive voice;
 - c) the problem of the middle and reciprocal voices.
 - d) English and Russian voices compared.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapters 15, 16.
2. Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. – С 166 – 216.
3. Plyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter 8, 10, 12.
4. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. “Readings in the Theory of English Grammar”, Л., 1981. Pp. 74 - 78.
5. Иванова И.П. Вид и время в современном английском языке. – Л.: Изд-во Ленингр. ун-та, 1961.

Further reading:

1. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.121-126, 131-133, 142-144.
2. Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.
3. Bache C. The Study of Aspect, Tense and Action. – Peter Lang GmbH, 1997. - Ch. 7, pp. 244-257.

Theme 7 (2h) The Verb: Mood

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. Different views on the number and kinds of moods in English.
2. The Imperative mood. Forms and meanings.
3. Terminology to express the meaning of unreality. Forms and meanings of Subjunctive Mood:

4. H.Sweet and G.Curme on the category of mood;
5. O.Jespersen's theory of mood;
6. 'Spective', or 'mood of attitudes'. Modal spective.
7. What does the term 'Oblique moods' mean?
8. Conditional and Suppositional Subjunctives
9. The connection between the time of the supposed action and mood.
10. New tendencies in using Subjunctive in Modern English.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000. – Chapter 17.
2. Plyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. – Chapter
3. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л., 1981. Pp. 82-87.
4. Хлебникова И.Б. «Сослагательное наклонение в английском языке», Саранск, 1994.

Further reading:

1. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С. 144-156.
2. Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. – М., 1957.
3. Храковский В.С. Условные конструкции: взаимодействие кондициональных и темпоральных значений. – ВЯ, - 1994, №6. – С. 129-139.

Theme 8 (2h) The Non-finite Forms of the Verb

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on "Theoretical Grammar"

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. Non-finite forms opposed to finite forms of the verb.
2. The infinitive as the 'head form' of verbals. Forms and functions of the infinitive.
3. The usage of the unmarked infinitive.
4. The gerund. Forms and functions. The problem of the half-gerund.
5. The participle.
6. Correlation of non-finites.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – М. «Высшая школа», 2000, Ch.11, p. 99-119.
2. Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. – С. 140 – 165.
3. Plyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971. Ch. 14: 'Verbals'.

4. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. "Readings in the Theory of English Grammar", Л. 1981, Ch. 4, pp.92-110.

Further Reading:

1. Бархударов Л.С. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка. – М.: «Высшая школа», 1975. – С. 107-116.

2. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.157 - 162.

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

Theme 9 (1h) Syntax: A Simple Sentence

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on "Theoretical Grammar"

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. Word-groups (Phrases)

a). Classification of word-groups.

b). Characteristics of parts of the sentence.

c). Scholars on the syntagmatic relations of words.

2. Sentence.

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

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

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

d). Elliptical sentences.

3. Actual division of a sentence.

4. Communicative types of sentences: the main communicative types; the intermediary communicative types.

Literature:

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

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

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

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

Further reading:

1. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.200 - 224.
2. Слюсарева Н.А. Проблемы функционального синтаксиса современного английского языка. – М., 1986.
3. Смирницкий А.И. Синтаксис английского языка. – М., 1957.

Theme 10 (2h) Syntax: Composite Sentences

Purpose of the class: deepening and consolidation of knowledge on a number of key issues contained in the lecture course on “Theoretical Grammar”

The form of conduct - communication, recitation

1. Compound sentence as a polypredicative construction.
2. Complex sentence. Types of subordinate clauses:
 - a) subject and predicative clauses;
 - b) object, attributive clauses and adverbial clauses;
 - c) parenthetical clauses.
3. Semi-complex and semi-compound sentences.
4. Sentence in the text.

Literature:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Москва: «Высшая школа», 2000, - Chapters 26-31.
2. Blokh M.Y., Semionova T.N., Timofeyeva S.V. Theoretical English Grammar. Seminars. – М.: «Высшая школа», 2004. – С. 359 – 420.
3. Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – Moscow, 1971, -Chapters 33 - 38.
4. Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. “Readings in the Theory of English Grammar”, Л., 1981, Chapters.

Further reading:

1. Бузаров В.В. Основы синтаксиса английской разговорной речи. М., 1998. – С.249 - 288.
2. Вейхман Г.А. Новое в английской грамматике. М.: «Высшая школа», 1990 - С.112-118.
3. Слюсарева Н.А. Проблемы функционального синтаксиса современного английского языка. – М., 1986.

8.2. Методические указания для обучающихся по освоению дисциплины

Содержание самостоятельной работы студентов с преподавателем очной формы обучения в значительной мере определяется заданиями, получаемыми от преподавателей в рамках аудиторных занятий. В ходе самостоятельной работы каждый студент обязан прочитать основную и по возможности дополнительную литературу по изучаемой теме. Выделить непонятные термины, найти их значение в литературе. Студент должен готовиться к

предстоящему семинарскому занятию по всем, обозначенным в учебно-методическом комплексе вопросам. Не проясненные (дискуссионные) в ходе самостоятельной работы вопросы следует выписать в конспект и впоследствии прояснить их на семинарских занятиях или индивидуальных консультациях с ведущим преподавателем.

К особенностям самостоятельной работы очной формы обучения относятся:

- ✓ использование электронной библиотеки и иных электронных ресурсов;
- ✓ активное участие в научно-практических конференциях, научных конкурсах, олимпиадах, факультативных курсах;
- ✓ сбор, обобщение и анализ нормативных источников и иных материалов для участия в диалогах, дискуссиях, ролевых играх предусмотренных планами практических занятий.
- ✓ использование опыта своей практической деятельности для подготовки к аудиторным занятиям. Объем самостоятельной работы студентов очной формы обучения, предусмотренный учебным планом, определяет важнейшее значение данного вида учебной деятельности. В рамках самостоятельной работы студент, обучающийся очно, работает со значительными объемами информации, выполняет поставленные перед ним учебные задания, осуществляет подготовку к промежуточной аттестации.

При этом студент использует все предусмотренные рабочей программой учебной дисциплины виды самостоятельной работы с учетом рекомендаций, полученных им от преподавателя в рамках практического занятия.

Виды самостоятельной работы по всем темам:

- ✓ изучение учебной литературы;
- ✓ изучение дополнительной научной литературы;
- ✓ подготовка эссе и топиков;
- ✓ подготовка презентаций Power Point;
- ✓ рецензирование научных статей;
- ✓ составление схем, таблиц и пр.;
- ✓ выполнение заданий преподавателя;

Одной из интересных форм самостоятельной работы студентов является изучение наизусть топиков. Эта форма работы дает возможность закрепления знаний, речевую практику, словарного запаса, полученных на занятиях, расширения эрудиции у студентов, уяснения терминологии по дисциплине, активизации творческих возможностей студента. Самостоятельное составление топиков студентами осуществляется после освоения половины тематических занятий по дисциплине. Содержание и сдача тестов фиксируется и проверяется преподавателем. На семинарских занятиях все студенческие тесты оглашаются и разбираются. Студентам рекомендуется слушать новости, песни и смотреть фильмы на английском языке.

8.3 Методические рекомендации по подготовке письменных работ

Формами организации самостоятельной работы студента является:

1. Углубленное изучение отдельных вопросов курса (работа с вопросами для самоконтроля).
2. Подготовка вопросов семинарских занятий.
3. В течение 6 семестра студент выполняет 2 доклада, а также иные формы самостоятельных работ (либо 2 презентации в программе Power Point). Студенты самостоятельно осуществляют подбор и изучение литературы и источников к научным докладам, рефератам и презентациям. Выполнение работы формирует навыки самостоятельного анализа выбранной темы.

Рекомендации по выполнению письменной работы:

Требования: 10-12 страниц, шрифт TNR 12, введение, основная часть, заключение, список литературы.

- *Подобрать литературу по данной теме, познакомиться с её содержанием.*
- *Пользуясь закладками отметить наиболее существенные места или сделать выписки.*
- *Составить план сообщения.*
- *Написать план доклада, в заключении которого обязательно выразить своё отношение к излагаемой теме и её содержанию.*
- *Прочитать текст и отредактировать его.*
- *Оформить в соответствии с требованиями к оформлению письменной работы.*

Рекомендации по выполнению презентации:

Требования: 12 слайдов, картинки, текст, стиль.

- *Подобрать литературу по данной теме, познакомиться с её содержанием.*
 - *Пользуясь закладками отметить наиболее существенные места.*
 - *Составить план.*
 - *Сделать презентацию, располагая слайды согласно плана.*
 - *Прочитать текст и отредактировать его.*
 - *Оформить в соответствии с требованиями к оформлению презентации.*
4. Работа над изучением категориального и терминологического аппарата курса, усвоение которого проверяется при помощи контрольных работ на модуле.
 5. Изучение дополнительной литературы по дисциплине.

8.4.Иные материалы

Для дополнительного изучения Теоретической грамматики изучаемого языка студенты могут использовать дополнительную литературу, материалы в сети Интернет и просмотр документальных фильмов по темам. В конце курса дисциплины, студенты должны написать свои рефераты, доклады по изученным темам.

9. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины

В качестве материально-технического обеспечения дисциплины указывается необходимое для обучения оборудование, демонстрационные приборы, мультимедийные средства, учебные фильмы, тренажеры, карты, плакаты, наглядные пособия; требования к аудиториям – компьютерные классы, академические или специально оборудованные аудитории и лаборатории, наличие доски и т.д.

1. Компьютер
2. Доска, маркер
3. Для презентаций проектор

10. Глоссарий по курсу дисциплины

Action verb - A verb which denotes activity: e.g. walk, read, look. (stative verb).

Adjunct - A type of adverbial which provides additional information, and is thus optional: e.g. always, carefully.

Adverb - A word which modifies a sentence, a verb, another adverb, or an adjective: e.g. sometimes, extremely, then.

Adverbial phrase - A group of words which play the grammatical role of an adverb: e.g. with a knife, tomorrow morning. The term adverbial nowadays denotes both single-word adverbs and adverbial phrases.

Agent - A passive sentence, who or what caused something to happen to someone or something else: e.g. in The dinner was prepared by John, John is the agent.

Affective meaning - Related to the personal feelings or attitudes of the speaker (affection, disparagement). Alternatively, it is also sometimes used to refer to the effect an utterance has on the addressee.

Alliteration - Repetition of the same sound beginning several words in sequence: e.g. parrot, parading, parasite.

Allusive meaning - Involves the meaning conjured up by a linguistic unit and often has an element of intertextuality.

○**Anaphora** - For reasons of stylistic effect, the repetition of a reference to a word or phrase at the beginning of successive phrases, clauses or lines. This device is often referred to as rhetorical anaphora, in which case it is contrasted with grammatical anaphora, which involves the use of pronouns to refer to previously mentioned lexical units.

Antithesis - Opposition, or contrast of ideas or words in a balanced or parallel construction.

Antonym - A word that means the opposite of another: e.g. night vs day.

Apposition - A construction in which a noun phrase is placed after another to modify its meaning: e.g. 'This jacket, a hand-me-down, is still in good condition.' ('A hand-me-down' is not connected to the subject by a preposition or conjunction.)

Archaism - The use of an older or obsolete form.

Article - A determiner of a noun phrase that does not have a meaning of its own. In English, there are definite (the) and indefinite (a, an) articles.

Associative meaning - Refers to expectations associated with the referent: e.g. That nurse is a woman.

Assonance - Repetition of the same sounds in words close to each other: e.g. Thy kingdom come, thy will be done.

Asyndeton - Lack of conjunctions between coordinate phrases, clauses, or words.

Attitudinal meaning - Attitude to the referent: choice of word indicates speaker's attitude to referent (derogatory terms).

Attributive - When an adjective (or adjectival phrase) is used to modify a noun and is placed before that noun, it is used attributively: e.g. 'old' in 'an old woman'.

Borrowing - A foreign word is borrowed with only minor, if any, changes (usually only phonologically): e.g. mobile

Calque (loan translation) - The verbatim translation of a ST item into the TT, which involves the retention of the same structure: e.g. skyscraper.

Causative verb - A type of transitive verb which expresses causative meaning: e.g. raise, persuade.

Clause - A part of a complex sentence which contains a subject, a finite verb and a predicate. The structure of a clause is identical to that of a simple sentence.

Co-ordinate: one of two clauses which are equal components of a sentence. In addition, a co-ordinate clause does not serve as a subject, complement, object or adverbial in another clause. The two clauses are linked by conjunctions.

Subordinate: (= dependent clause) a clause which depends on the other (=main clause) clause of the sentence. A subordinate clause is usually introduced by a subordinating conjunction (when, that) or by a relative pronoun (that, which, who, whose, whom).

Code-switching - The alternating use of two or more languages within the same stretch of discourse. This may involve the use of words, phrases or sentences within the same text.

Coherence - The thematic consistence and development within a text that make it a structured whole, rather than a series of non sequiturs.

Cohesion - The linking of parts of a text through various devices such as conjunctions (e.g. and).

Collocate (n.) - A word that tends to co-occur with another one.

Collocation - A set of words that tend to go together: e.g. a hoarse voice,

Collocative meaning - Meaning relating to words that regularly appear together (within certain contexts).

Colloquial - Relating to the everyday (= informal) use of a language.

Communicative translation - A type of translation, which is close to freetranslation and cultural transposition, in which ST expressions are rendered with their situationally appropriate cultural equivalents in the TT.

Compensation - Information, or a stylistic effect from the ST that cannot be reproduced in the same place in the TT is introduced elsewhere in the TT: translated as ‘you wrote the letter O shaykh’, with the vocative particle in English compensating for the absence of a second person pronoun equivalent to the Arabic clitic (the object pronoun مت). Compensation can be either in kind (as in the above example) or in place (with the shift of an effect occurring at different places in the ST and TT).

Complement- A noun phrase which completes, i.e. gives additional information about the subject.

Complex preposition - A preposition consisting of more than one word: e.g. in front of.

Compound (complex) sentence - A sentence which contains two or more clauses.

Concord (= agreement) - Refers to the relation between the number (= singular or plural) of the subject and the form of the verb.

Background Information - Information relating to the source text that helps the translator perform the translation with more accuracy and in context using the correct style and tone. It will provide extra facts about the subject matter, the context, the audience and terminology. Examples include previously translated documents, glossaries with terminology, definitions, etc.

Back Translation - Translation back from the target language into the source language by a second translator. For example, if a document has been translated from English into French, the back translation would go from the translated French back into English to allow a speaker of English to check that no meaning has been lost in the translation process. However, a back translation will not necessarily be precisely same as the original text, nor should it be, as the translation process is much more subtle than a mere mechanical swapping words from one language to another. It includes transferring style, tone, grammar and idioms as well as meaning and this will often require much more than a rigid word-for-word changing of the text.

Deadlines - Deadline refers to the agreed point in time when a translation becomes due to hand over to the client. There is an inverse direct correlation between the urgency of a deadline and the quality of

the translation produced. Most translators prefer to translate around 1500 words per day. This allows them good time for research and checking. Working on an urgent basis around 2500 words can be produced, but this is not sustainable over an extended number of days without an inevitable drop in translation quality. There are numerous factors which can have a bearing on turnaround time, so it is unwise to set over-generalise turnaround times. Clients should be aware of what is realistic. Organisations should always think ahead if the translation of a text is necessary and for best results allow at least as much time for the translation part of a project as was allowed for the production of the source text.

Legal Translation - Legal translations can be complex due to their importance as documents and the actual terminology used. For this reason legal translations are often charged at a higher rate as it involves using translators with specialised knowledge of different countries' laws and legal systems in addition to particular language skills.

Machine Translation (MT) - Translation produced by a computer program without human input into the actual translation process. The quality of machine-translated text, in terms of terminology, meaning and grammar, varies depending on the nature and complexity of the source text, but is never good enough for publication without extensive editing by a real translator. Machine Translation should not be confused with Computer Assisted Translation.

Simultaneous Interpreting - Interpreting of a speaker's words into another language while the speaker is speaking (i.e. without pausing). The interpreter usually sits in a booth and uses audio equipment, except when carrying out Whispered Interpreting. See also "Conference Interpreting" and "Whispered Interpreting".

Source Language - The Language in which text to be translated is originally written

