



ОСНОВЫ ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКОЙ ГРАММАТИКИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

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Учебное пособие предназначено для студентов специальности «Филология (английский язык)» гуманитарных факультетов дневной и заочной форм обучения. Представленные материалы включают перечень тем изучаемого курса, краткий содержание лекций по теоретической грамматике английского языка, вопросы для подготовки к практическим занятиям, самостоятельной работе и модульным работам, глоссарий.

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ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Целью настоящего курса является дать студентам необходимое представление о грамматическом строе английского языка с точки зрения системного подхода к языку. Исходя из этого, основные задачи курса формулируются следующим образом:

1. Представить студентам теоретически обоснованную и систематизированную информацию по основным разделам грамматики, обобщив основные сведения, усвоенные ими в курсе практической грамматики, и дополнив их в соответствии с новейшими исследованиями в лингвистике.

2. Ознакомить студентов с наиболее важными спорными вопросами грамматики в изложении разных языковедов, развивая способность к сопоставлению различных точек зрения и научной аргументации.

3. Научить студентов применять знания, полученные в курсе теоретической грамматики в преподавании английского языка в школе и в переводческой работе.

4. Развивать умение самостоятельно работать с научной информацией по грамматическим исследованиям в филологии.

Особое место данного курса в профессиональной подготовке филологов обусловлено тем, что он тесно связан и опирается на такие ранее изученные дисциплины, как практическая грамматика английского языка, общее языкознание, а также предполагается использование знаний, приобретенных студентами в рамках изучения других теоретических филологических дисциплин – теоретической фонетики английского языка, истории английского языка, стилистики, лексикологии, теории и практики перевода. Отличительной чертой данного курса является то, что он читается на английском языке, тогда как большая часть рекомендуемой теоретической литературы и учебных пособий даются на русском языке; таким образом, освоение курса предполагает достаточно высокий уровень владения английским языком, в частности в его научном функционально-стилистическом варианте, а также наличие определенных умений и навыков перевода с русского языка на английский.

Данная учебная программа разработана на основе учебного плана специальности 6.020303 «Филология. Английский язык и литература». В результате изучения курса студент должен знать основные понятия и методы теоретической грамматики, этапы развития теоретического осмысления грамматики, основные теоретические подходы и главных представителей различных теоретических направлений в грамматике, уметь формулировать проблемы, спорные вопросы и пути их решения в теоретической грамматике, аргументировать выбор собственной точки зрения по каждой проблеме, проводить теоретический анализ различных грамматических явлений на материале английского языка и в сопоставлении с аналогичными явлениями русского (украинского) языка.

Курс лекции, практические (семинарские) занятия, самостоятельную работу и проведение модульных работ. В лекционном курсе освещаются основные положения и направления теоретической грамматики, дается основной понятийный и терминологический аппарат. На практических (семинарских) занятиях проверяется усвоение студентами лекционного материала, уровень владения основными понятиями и терминами теоретической грамматики, выясняются наиболее сложные вопросы, недостаточно усвоенные во время лекций, дается дополнительный материал, заслушиваются доклады и сообщения по вопросам, недостаточно подробно проработанным во время лекций, выполняются упражнения, предусмотренные темами. В ходе семинарских занятий студенты самостоятельно подбирают и анализируют иллюстративный языковой материал, обобщают собственные наблюдения над грамматическим строем английского языка, сопоставляют его с грамматическим строем родного языка и других иностранных языков. В конце курса проводятся модульные контрольные работы или экзамен (в зависимости от формы обучения). Во время

модульной работы или экзамена студенту предлагается продемонстрировать уровень усвоения знаний по теоретическим вопросам, а также выполнить ряд заданий, выявляющих умение применять полученные знания в анализе конкретного грамматического материала. Образцы тестов, предложенные в пособии могут использоваться студентами и преподавателями в ходе подготовки данной дисциплины к государственному экзамену.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ КУРСА

Тема 1: Язык и грамматика. Системный подход

Системность языка в целом и грамматики, как одной из подсистем языка. Понятие языковой единицы. Знаковость языковых единиц. Уровни языковых единиц. Сегментные и сверхсегментные единицы языка. Разграничение языка и речи, как один из основных принципов системной теории языка.

Теоретическая грамматика как лингвистическая дисциплина, изучающая грамматический строй языка, ее соотношение с практической грамматикой. Морфология и синтаксис как два основных раздела грамматики.

Синтагматический и парадигматический аспекты грамматики. План выражения и план содержания грамматических элементов, синонимия и омонимия в грамматике. Диахрония и синхрония в изучении грамматических явлений.

МОРФОЛОГИЯ

Тема 2: Морфемная структура слова

Определение морфемы. Ее статус в уровневой системе языка в соотношении со словом. Традиционная классификация морфем, их позиционная и семантическая характеристика. Корень и аффиксы. Лексические и грамматические морфемы. Внешняя и внутренняя флексия. Особенности флексий в английском языке.

Соотношение морфемы, морфа и алломорфов. Дистрибутивный анализ морфем. Контрастивная, неконтрастивная, дополнительная дистрибуция морфем. Дистрибутивная классификация морфем: морфемы свободные и связанные, открытые и скрытые, сегментные и сверхсегментные, непрерывные и разрывные, аддитивные и заместительные, пустые и полные (понятие нулевой морфемы). Относительный характер выделенных типов морфем.

Тема 3: Грамматические категории слова

Грамматическая форма и индивидуальное грамматическое значение. Грамматическая категория как система выражения обобщенного грамматического значения. Синтетические и аналитические грамматические формы.

Типы грамматических категорий: имманентные и рефлексивные категории/ закрытые и трансгрессивные категории, категории постоянного и переменного признака.

Оппозиционное представление грамматических категорий. Оппозиции бинарные и сверхбинарные; привативные, градуальные и эквиолентные. Сильный и слабый члены оппозиции, их формальное и функциональное различие. Контекстная редукция грамматической оппозиции.

Тема 4: Теория частей речи

Понятие части речи как лексико-грамматического класса слов. Критерии выделения частей слов: семантический, формальный, функциональный. Основные части речи в традиционной классификации.

Проблема адекватности классификации частей речи. Полевая теория частей речи. Полидифференциальные и монодифференциальные классификации частей речи. Синтаксико-дистрибутивная классификация слов Ч. Фриза.

Трехслойное членение словарного состава на основе синтеза традиционной и синтаксико-дистрибутивной классификаций: знаменательные, служебные и местоименные части речи. Открытость и закрытость сверх-классов слов.

Тема 5: Имя существительное

Имя существительное как часть речи, обозначающая предметность. Его формальные и функциональные признаки. Проблема существительного, выступающего в функции определения.

Грамматически существенные подклассы существительного: существительные собственные и нарицательные, исчисляемые и неисчисляемые, одушевленные (личностные и неличностные) и неодушевленные.

Категория рода существительного

Проблема категории рода в английском языке. Категория рода в древнеанглийском и в современном английском языке. Категория рода как значимая (не формальная) категория в английском языке, отражающая реальный биологический пол. Лексические и грамматические способы различения рода в английском языке. Личные местоимения как родовые классификаторы.

Родовые оппозиции и семантика родовых классов: личный род, неличный род, мужской род/женский род, общий род. Оппозиционная редукция категории рода (персонификация).

Категория числа существительного

Формальные и функциональные признаки форм единственного и множественного числа в английском языке. Их оппозиционное представление. Релятивное и абсолютное число. Подгруппы существительных Singularia Tantum и Pluralia Tantum. Случаи редукции оппозиции категории числа.

Категория падежа существительного

Различные теоретические подходы к изучению категории падежа в англистике: теория позиционных падежей и теория предложных падежей, их критическая оценка; теория притяжательного форманта-послелога (теория отсутствия падежа); теория ограниченного падежа. Распад старой системы падежа и установление новой системы падежа в английском языке.

Формальные и функциональные характеристики общего и родительного падежа, их оппозиционное представление. Семантика генетива в английском языке.

Соотношение субстантивного падежа и местоименного падежа.

Категория артиклевой детерминации существительного

Проблема артикля как грамматического определителя существительного. Система артиклей в английском языке: определенный артикль, неопределенный артикль, нулевой артикль (значимое отсутствие артикля).

Семантическое представление артиклей в английском языке. Артикли с различными группами существительных. Соотношение артиклей с другими детерминативами. Ситуационное представление артиклей. Парадигматическое представление артиклей. Генеративное представление артиклей в практической грамматике.

Проблема установления лексико-грамматического статуса артикля и сочетания "артикль+существительное".

Тема 6: Глагол

Глагол как часть речи, обозначающая процессность. Его формальные и функциональные признаки. Сложность грамматических систем глагола, обусловленная его семантико-синтаксической природой.

Грамматически существенные подклассы глагола: глаголы полнзначные и служебные (вспомогательные, связочные/аспектные), акциональные и статальные, предельные и неопределенные, субъектные и объектные/переходные и непереходные. Валентностные подклассы глагола. Проблема подвижности подклассовой принадлежности глагола.

Неличные формы глагола

Категория финитности. Смешанный характер свойств неличных форм глагола: их гибридный (промежуточный) характер.

Инфинитив как неличная форма глагола смешанного процессно-предметного характера. Полупредикативные инфинитивные конструкции. Инфинитив как исходная форма глагольных парадигм. Инфинитив в выражении модальной репрезентации действия.

Герундий как неличная форма глагола смешанного процессно-предметного характера. Инфинитив, герундий и отглагольное существительное; их соотношение в выражении процессной семантики. Полупредикативные конструкции с герундием.

Причастие как неличная форма глагола смешанного процессно-признакового характера. Разграничение двух типов причастий в английском языке: причастие I ("причастие настоящего времени") и причастие II ("причастие прошедшего времени"). Полупредикативные конструкции с

причастием. Проблема нерасчлененной "инговой" формы ("полугерундий", "слитое причастие"); функциональные различия между причастием I и герундием.

Категория лица и числа глагола

Спряжение личных форм глагола: категория лица, категория числа. Их отраженный характер (субстантивная отнесенность). Основания тесной взаимосвязи категорий числа и лица.

Формы числа и лица различных групп глагола. Оппозиционное представление категории. Случаи контекстуальной редукции оппозиции.

Категория времени

Соотношение общепонятийной категории времени и категориальных глагольных форм времени; лексические и грамматические средства передачи временного значения. Абсолютное и относительное время.

Оппозиционное представление категории времени в английском языке: система временных подкатегорий - первичные абсолютные глагольные времена (оппозиция прошедшего и не-прошедшего времени) и вторичные относительные глагольные времена (оппозиция будущего и не-будущего времени). Проблема модального оттенка значения форм будущего времени. Случаи контекстуальной редукции временных оппозиций.

Категория вида

Категориальное значение вида. Лексические и грамматические способы выражения аспектного значения; их взаимозависимость.

Оппозиционное представление категории вида в английском языке: система видовых подкатегорий - первичные виды развития действия (чисто видовое значение продолженного и не-продолженного вида) и вторичные виды временной координации (смешанное видо-временное значение совершенного и несовершенного вида). Случаи контекстуальной редукции видовых оппозиций.

Категория залога

Категориальное значение залога. Залог переходных глаголов: оппозиция активных и пассивных форм. Проблема залоговой характеристики непереходных глаголов. Проблема средних залоговых значений глагола: возвратные, взаимные, срединные залоговые значения.

Омонимия пассивных форм и предикативного употребления причастия II со связующими глаголами; их разграничение.

Категория наклонения

Категориальное значение наклонения. Особая сложность категории наклонения в английском языке как следствие разветвленности модальных глагольных значений и скудности формально-флективной базы глагола. Соотношение прямого и косвенного наклонения (форм со значением реального и нереального действия). Виды косвенных наклонений/соотношение формы и значения каждого вида. Проблема повелительного наклонения. Проблема передачи временных значений в косвенном наклонении: видо-временной сдвиг как маркер косвенного наклонения.

Тема 7: Прилагательное и наречие

Прилагательное

Прилагательное как часть речи, обозначающая признаковость (первичный субстантивный признак). Его формальные и функциональные характеристики.

Категория степеней сравнения прилагательных. Синтетические и аналитические формы степеней сравнения; проблема их грамматического статуса. Абсолютный и элятивный аспект значения степеней сравнения. Проблема восходящего и нисходящего рядов степеней сравнения.

Грамматически существенные подклассы прилагательного: прилагательные качественные и относительные, прилагательные в оценочной и уточнительной контекстных функциях; их соотношение.

Проблема слов категории состояния. Проблема статуса субстантивированных прилагательных; полная и частичная субстантивация прилагательных.

Наречие

Наречие как часть речи, обозначающая признаковость (вторичный несубстантивный признак). Его формальные и функциональные характеристики. Продуктивная модель адвербиальной деривации (суффикс -ly), ее лексический и грамматический статус.

Грамматически существенные подклассы наречия: наречия качественные, количественные, обстоятельственные. Выделение наречий по оценочной и уточнительной контекстным функциям, их соотношение с аналогичным разбиением прилагательных.

Степени сравнения наречий в сопоставлении со степенями сравнения прилагательного.

СИНТАКСИС

Тема 8: Синтаксис словосочетания

Синтаксис словосочетания как "малый синтаксис" в соотношении с синтаксисом предложения как "большим синтаксисом" и синтаксисом текста как "сверх-большим синтаксисом". Словосочетание как полиноминативная языковая единица. Соотношение словосочетания и слова, словосочетания и предложения; переходные явления между ними.

Проблема определения словосочетания. Знаменательные и служебные словосочетания; свободные и устойчивые словосочетания. Синдетическое и асиндетическое объединение слов в словосочетании.

Синтагматические отношения между компонентами знаменательных словосочетаний: эквипотентные (равносильные) и доминационные (подчинительные) связи. Последовательная (непосредственно подчинительная) и присоединительная доминация. Ядро и адьюнкт подчинительного словосочетания. Согласование, управление, примыкание, замыкание. Классификация подчинительных словосочетаний по частям речи, которыми выражено ядро, по функциональному и позиционному критериям. Простые и сложные подчинительные словосочетания; иерархия зависимостей подчинительных словосочетаний. Проблема взаимодоминантных связей предикативных словосочетаний. Взаимная доминация вторично предикативных сочетаний слов.

Последовательная (непосредственно-сочинительная) и присоединительная эквипотентная связь слов. Проблема существования сочинительных словосочетаний.

Смешанные сочинительно-подчинительные и подчинительно-сочинительные словосочетания.

Тема 9: Синтаксис предложения. Номинативное строение предложения

Предложение как основная единица синтаксиса. Предложение как единица сообщения. Предикация как фундаментальный конститутивный признак предложения. Номинативный аспект предложения в соотношении с его предикативным аспектом. Интонационное оформление предложения. Понятие синтаксической модели предложения; предложение как единица одновременно языка и речи. Парадигматическое моделирование предложения в соотношении с парадигматическим моделированием словосочетания, их взаимное преобразование.

Понятие предикативной линии. Простое предложение как монопредикативная синтаксическая конструкция.

Номинативное членение предложения на синтаксические и семантические компоненты. Традиционное членение предложения на члены предложения: главные члены предложения (подлежащее, сказуемое), второстепенные члены предложения (дополнение, обстоятельство/определение), обособленные члены предложения (приложение, обращение, вводный член предложения, междометный член предложения). Анализ предложения по "непосредственным составляющим". Понятие поверхностной и глубинной (концептуальной) структуры предложения; классификация "семантической ролей" Ч. Филлмора, ее дополнительный характер по отношению к традиционным членам предложения.

Глагол как предикативный центр предложения. Валентность глагола. Понятие элементарного (нераспространенного) и распространенного предложений.

Понятие составности предложения: двусоставные и односоставные простые предложения. Полные и неполные (эллиптические) простые предложения. Свободные и фиксированные односоставные предложения.

Классификация простого предложения по семантическим и структурным типам подлежащего и сказуемого.

Тема 10: Актуальное членение предложения

Понятие актуального членения предложения (информативная перспектива предложения). Соотношение актуального членения предложения и логического членения суждения. Компоненты актуального членения: тема, рема, переход. Соотношение темы и ремы в актуальном членении предложения, подлежащего и сказуемого в синтаксической структуре предложения, субъекта и предиката в логическом членении суждения. Прямое (неспециальное, немаркированное) и обратное (специальное, маркированное) актуальное членение.

Актуальное членение предложения и контекст.

Языковые средства выражения актуального членения: фонетические (интонационные), грамматические (детерминативы, интенсификаторы, специальные грамматические конструкции), контекстуальные, графические.

Тема 11: Коммуникативные типы предложения

Понятие коммуникативного типа предложения. Проблема выделения коммуникативных типов предложения. Диагностические модели для дифференциации коммуникативных типов предложения в речи. Ответная реплика как индикатор цели коммуникации.

Актуальное членение предложений разных коммуникативных типов.

Основные коммуникативные типы предложения: повествовательный, вопросительный, побудительный. Проблема восклицательности: восклицательность как сопутствующая коммуникативная черта предложений всех коммуникативных типов.

Проблема промежуточных (смешанных) коммуникативных типов предложения. Промежуточные коммуникативные типы предложений как выразители различных экспрессивных коннотаций. Прагматический аспект интерпретации коммуникативных типов предложений.

Тема 12: Парадигматика предложения

Парадигматический подход к предложению. Теория трансформационной грамматики Н. Хомского. Ядерное предложение как деривационная основа синтаксической парадигмы предложения. Деривационные процедуры (трансформации) в синтаксисе: морфологическое изменение слов, использование служебных слов, субституция, опущение, изменение порядка слов, интонационное оформление. Синтаксическая парадигма как оппозиция моделей предложений.

Теория парадигматического синтаксиса проф. М.Я. Блоха. Выделение предикативных и конструкционных парадигм предложения. Предикативная парадигма предложения: категории коммуникативной установки (расчленяемой на категориальные признаки вопроса и побуждения в раздельном соотнесении с повествованием, бытийного качества (отрицание - утверждение), реализации (нереальность - реальность), вероятности (предположение - констатация), оценки тождества (кажущееся, случайное, неожиданное тождество - констатация), модального отношения субъекта к действию (попытка, удача, неудача относительно производства некоторого действия - констатация), фазиса (начало, конец, продолжение действия - констатация), субъектно-объектного отношения (пассивная конструкция представления действия - активная конструкция), информативной перспективы, интенсивности. Первичный парадигматический ряд предложений по предикативным функциям, конструкционная парадигма предложения. Фрагментализация предложения, частичная и полная номинализация предложения, клаузуализация предложения. Понятие матричного и вставного предложений. Одностатусное и разностатусное парадигматическое упорядочивание преобразованных предложений.

Практическое применение парадигматического подхода к синтаксису предложения в практике преподавания английского языка.

Тема 13: Сложное предложение

Сложное предложение как полипредикативная конструкция. Предикативные линии в сложном предложении. Парадигматическое представление сложного предложения (деривационная база сложного предложения, клаузуализация, матричное и вставное предложения). Понятие подчинительное и сочинительной полипредикации, кумулятивная полипредикация. Синдетические и асиндетические связи между частями сложного предложения.

Сложноподчиненное предложение: главное предложение, придаточное предложение. Подчинительные средства связи: чистые связки (союзы) и наречные связки. Актуальное членение сложного предложения. Классификация сложноподчиненных предложений по типам

придаточных; категориальная и функциональная классификации типов придаточных. Придаточные первичных именных позиций (подлежащие, предикативные, объектные), придаточные вторичных именных позиций (атрибутивные, аппозитивные), придаточные адвербиальных именных позиций. Проблема вводных придаточных: интродуктивные и девиативные вводные придаточные. Классификация сложноподчиненных предложений по степени спайки главного и придаточного: монолитные (одночленные) и сегрегативные (двучленные) сложноподчиненные предложения. Параллельное (гомогенное, гетерогенное) и последовательное подчинение. Глубина подчинительной перспективы.

Сложносочиненное предложение. Проблема существования сложносочиненного предложения: семантико-синтаксические различия между сложносочиненным предложением и последовательностью предложений в тексте. Части сложносочиненного предложения. Виды сочинительных связок: чистые связки (сочинительные союзы) и адвербиальные связки, союзы с присоюзными уточнителями. Маркированное и немаркированное сочинение; соединительные, противительные, разделительные, причинно-следственные отношения между частями сложносочиненного предложения. Сложноподчиненное предложение как диагностирующая модель для сложносочиненного предложения; проблема синонимии сложносочиненных и сложноподчиненных предложений. Открытые и закрытые сложносочиненные предложения.

Тема 14: Осложненное предложение

Осложненное предложение как полипредикативная конструкция неразвернутого сложения предложений (совмещение, слияние предикативных линий). Осложненное предложение как промежуточная конструкция между простым и сложным типами предложений. Парадигматическое представление осложненного предложения. Главная и осложняющая части осложненного предложения. Осложняющая часть как конструкция вторичной (неполной, потенциальной) предикации. Осложненно-подчиненные и осложненно-сочиненные предложения.

Типы осложненно-подчиненного предложения: осложненно-подчиненные предложения с общим подлежащим и с общим дополнением (сложное подлежащее, сложное дополнение); осложненно-подчиненные предложения с атрибутивным осложнением; осложненно-подчиненные предложения с адвербиальным осложнением. Проблема абсолютной синтаксической конструкции. Осложненно-подчиненные предложения с нелично-глагольным именным осложнением свободного типа (инфинитивная конструкция/герундиальная конструкция).

Типы осложненно-сочиненного предложения: предложения с несколькими сказуемыми при одном подлежащем, предложения с несколькими подлежащими при одном сказуемом (проблема однородных и неоднородных подлежащих).

Проблема соотношения между системами сложного и осложненного предложений.

Тема 15: Синтаксис текста

Синтаксис текста как "сверх-большой" синтаксис. Текст как сфера функциональной манифестации всех языковых единиц. Соотношение текста и предложения.

Монологический и диалогический текст. Понятие тематической цельности. Сверхфразовое единство как единица монологического текста. Диалогическое единство как единица диалогического текста. Сверхфразовое единство и абзац.

Семантико-синтаксическая связность как аспект текста. Проспективные (катафорические) и ретроспективные (анафорические) связи в тексте. Конъюнкционные связи в тексте; корреляционные связи в тексте. Кореференция в тексте. Интонационное оформление текста.

Промежуточные явления между предложением и сверхфразовым единством: парцелляция и внутреннее присоединение в предложении.

SHORT LECTURE COURSE ON THEORETICAL GRAMMAR

Lecture 1. The scope of theoretical grammar

Outline

1. Grammar in the systemic conception of language.
2. Language is a system of means of expression.
3. Hierarchy of levels within the system of language

GRAMMAR IN THE SYSTEMIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE

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. It incorporates three constituent parts:

- phonological system
- lexical system
- grammatical system

Each of the aforesaid is studied by a particular linguistic discipline. Grammar can be regarded from the practical or theoretical point of view. 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.

Another aim is to consider mood controversial points on which different points of view can be expressed.

It is worth noting that English grammatical theory is represented by a number of grammatical schools. The most influential of them are:

- the classical scientific grammar (Henry Sweet, Jespersen, etc)
- American structural or descriptive linguistics (Bloomfield, Wells, Nida, Hockett, Fries, Trager, Smith, Pike)
- Transformational generative linguistics (Harris, Chomsky)
- The Soviet school - Vinogradov, Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov, Reformatsky, Vorontsova, Ilyish, Solntsev.

Systemic character of language is especially stressed in Middle English. Its constituent parts form the Microsystems within the framework of the macrosystem of language. This approach was developed by the Russian scholars, Boduen de Kuortane, Ferdinand de Saussure. They outlined the difference between speech proper and language proper.

LANGUAGE IS A SYSTEM OF MEANS OF EXPRESSION.

Speech is the realization of the system of language in the process of humane intercourse. Grammar connects language with speech because it determines the process of utterance formation through grammatical categories.

The two fundamental types of relations between linguistic units are syntagmatic and paradigmatic. Syntagmatic relations are linear relations between units in a segmental sequence. Words are syntagmatically connected within any sentence and morphemes are always syntagmatically connected within words.

Relations opposed to syntagmatic are called paradigmatic. They are intrasystemic relations which find their expression in the fact that each linguistic unit is included in a set of similar units with common formal and functional properties, e.g. a set of related grammatical forms realises the grammatical category of number of the nouns. These forms make up grammatical paradigms.

HIERARCHY OF LEVELS WITHIN THE SYSTEM OF LANGUAGE

This approach was worked out by the school of descriptive linguistics and the Soviet school.

The theory claims that units of any higher level are formed of units of the immediately lower level. Thus phrases are decomposed into words, words into morphemes, morphemes into phonemes.

The scheme is as follows:

Supraphrasal unit > text > propositum level (predicative units) > phrasemic level

➤ lexemic level (nominative units) > morphemic level (elementary meaningful unit)

➤ phonemic level (differential unit)

Predication shows the relation of the denoted event to reality. SPU is made up of sentences or, occasionally, a sentence. Text is the main lingual unit.

There are two levels which are of most importance:

- the one of words, because they are units of nomination

- the one of sentences since they are units of predication.

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.

Lecture 2. Grammatical meaning and grammatical category

Outline

1. Grammatical meaning.
2. The characteristic features of a grammatical category.
3. Means of expressing grammatical meanings.
4. Types of form-building means.
5. Correlation between various means of form-building in English.

GRAMMATICAL MEANING

Grammatical meanings are more general and abstract than lexical meanings. Words with different lexical meanings can express the same grammatical meaning.

e.g. boy – boys

cat – cats

box – boxes grammatical meaning of the category of number

sheep – sheep

ox – oxen

Grammatical meaning is expressed by means of a certain formal sign or signal – the marker of a grammatical form. Grammatical form unites a whole class of words so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its lexical meaning.

Grammatical meaning is generalized, abstract to some extent meaning that unites large classes of words and is expressed through a certain form of sign or the absence of the sign.

Grammatical category is the central concept. A unity of a grammatical form and a grammatical meaning is realised through a grammatical category. It is a system of expressing a generalised grammatical meaning through means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms (Blokh):

Notion of paradigm

Notion of word-form

Notion of form-class

A word-form is a combination of the stem of a word with some inflectional sign or symbol.

A form-class is a set of word-forms having different roots and stems but similar form-building signal or its allomorphs.

The meaning of these two form-classes are mutually excluding. They are opposed to each other in meaning and in form.

THE CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF A GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY

1. Any grammatical category is based on the opposition of at least two form-classes which are opposed to each other in both form and meaning. In this opposition one of the members of the opposition is usually the marked member as it has a certain marker.

The marked member is the strong member. The opposite member is an unmarked one and it is weak.

2. Form-classes within one and the same grammatical category are mutually excluding. A word-form of one form-class cannot express the meaning of the opposite form-class. No word-form can be the form of both form-classes of the same grammatical category simultaneously.

3. A word-form can be opposed to a number of word-forms within different grammatical categories. E.g. the word-form WRITES

Write (I write) - person

Write (they write) – number

Wrote – tense

Is writing – aspect

Is written – voice

Has written – time correlation / retrospective coordination

MEANS OF EXPRESSING GRAMMATICAL MEANINGS

Word-building means serve to express new notions (e.g. WORK – WORKER – WORKABLE) and they are treated in lexicology.

Form-building means are ones of building up grammatical forms of words and they are treated in Grammar (Morphology).

There are traditionally singled out different types of morphemes: root-morphemes and affixal morphemes. The roots of notional words are lexical morphemes. Affixal morphemes are prefixes, lexical suffixes, inflexions. Prefixes and lexical suffixes have word-building functions. It is inflexions (or, grammatical suffixes) that express different grammatical meanings.

The abstract morphemic model of a common word can be represented in the following way:

PREFIX – ROOT – LEXICAL SUFFIX – GRAMMATICAL SUFFIX (INFLEXION)

Morphemes can be free and bound. Free morphemes can build up words by themselves while bound ones cannot.

Morphemes can be overt and covert. Overt is a genuine, explicit morpheme (material). Covert is a zero-morpheme (contrastive absence of a morpheme).

Barkhudarov introduced a so-called discontinuous morpheme. It comprises the following elements:

- an auxiliary word
- some form-building signal of a notional word.

In the perfect form there is singled out the discontinuous morpheme **HAVE + -en** where **en** is a symbolic denotation of the third form of the verb.

Form-building and word-building suffixes can be productive and non-productive, and both of them can be polysemantic.

TYPES OF FORM-BUILDING MEANS

There are two principal types of form-building means: synthetic and analytical.

The synthetic form-building means is the expression of the relation of words in the sentence by means of a change in the word itself. There are three types of the synthetic form-building means:

- affixation
- sound interchange (morphological alteration)

- suppletion (suppletive means)

Affixation is the most productive means of expressing a grammatical meaning. The number of grammatical suffixes is small (8). They are: **-s, -ed, -ing, -er, -est, -en, -m (him, them, whom), zero.**

Sound interchange is a change of a sound in the root of the word. There exist two kinds of sound interchange – vowel and consonant ones (spend – spent). This type of form-building means is non-productive.

In suppletive forms there is a complete change of the phonetic shape of the root. Suppletive forms belonging to the paradigm of a certain word were borrowed from different sources.

Suppletive forms are found in the paradigm of such words as TO BE, TO GO, degrees of comparison of the adjectives GOOD, BAD and in case-forms of some pronouns.

Блох notes that suppletivity can be recognized in the paradigm of some modal verbs too: CAN – BE ABLE, MUST – HAVE TO, MAY – BE ALLOWED.

Moreover, he says that it can be observed in pronouns (ONE – SOME), NOUNS (INFORMATION – PIECES OF INFORMATION, MAN – PEOPLE).

Suppletive forms are few in number, non-productive, but very important, for they are frequently used

Analytical forms were described as a combination of an auxiliary and a notional word.

This definition is not precise enough and due to its ambiguity such word-combinations as TO THE CHILD, MORE INTERESTING were treated as analytical forms.

To define a true analytical form the theory of splitting of functions should be taken into account.

There must be a splitting of functions between the elements of an analytical form. The first (auxiliary) element is the bearer of a grammatical meaning only. It is completely devoid of lexical meaning, and it is the second (notional) element that is the bearer of lexical meaning.

This process can be complete (perfect form) or incomplete (continuous form). The idiomaticity of an analytical form is a characteristic of a true analytical form. An analytical form functions as a grammatical form of a word.

Barkhudarov notices that “analytical forms have a specific feature, a specific morpheme which is called a discontinuous morpheme which comprises an auxiliary word and a form-building signal of a notional word. The root of a notional word is not included in the discontinuous morpheme (HAVE + -en ; BE + -ing).

CORRELATION BETWEEN VARIOUS MEANS OF FORM-BUILDING IN ENGLISH

Analytical forms are much more typical of ME. Synthetic form-building means are few in number but widely used. Some grammatical suffixes are very productive. Analytical forms comprise synthetic forms. Although sound interchange is non-productive it is extensively used through the paradigm of the irregular verbs. Though suppletive forms are found through the paradigm of very few words they are very frequently used words.

Middle English is not a purely analytical language, it is mainly analytical. Espersen mentioned that “English is an ideal language. Analytical languages reflect a more developed mentality.

Lecture 3. The parts of speech problem. Word classes.

The term PART OF SPEECH was introduced long ago and is considered conventional. There are three principles of the classification: semantic, formal, functional.

In many grammar schools the semantic principle is employed. This principle is based on universal forms of human thought which are reflected in three main categorial meanings of words:

Substance (предметность)

Process (процессуальность)

Property (качество, свойство)

But it doesn't always work, for it is hard to define the category of meaning of such words as WHITENESS, ACTION etc.

Another point of view is that only the form should serve as a criterion of the classification of the part of speech. This principle is called "the formal criterion". It was widely used by H. Sweet and others. They singled out the classes of declinable and indeclinable words. To the class of indeclinable words belong: THE, FOR, AS, ENOUGH, MUST. But this criterion is unreliable because they include MUST in the group. For MUST functions as many other verbs: SHALL > MUST (MUST WE GO?; SHALL WE GO?).

Some linguists representing this approach define parts of speech as morphological classes. They are words of similar paradigm of word-forms (Fortunatov).

This definition cannot be applied to the languages like Chinese where morphological system is non-existent or poorly-developed

Reformatsky puts it that "parts of speech are grammatical word-classes. In singling out parts of speech they take into consideration their morphological and syntactical property. This particular approach is the boarder-line case between the second and the third approaches.

Only the function of a word should be taken into consideration as a criterion for the part-of-speech classification. It is called "the functional criterion". The champions of this approach are Revzina, Revzin, Peshkovsky, Bloomfield.

Charles Fries puts it: "The words that occupy the same sets of in English sentences must belong to the same class of words." It is based on the combinability of words and the method used by Charles Fries is called SUBSTITUTION TESTING. It resulted four main positions of notional words. Accordingly all notional words are grouped into 4 classes:

- of nouns
- of verbs
- of adjectives
- of adverbs

Pronouns were included into the corresponding classes as their substitutes. The number of functional words is 154 and they fall into 15 groups or into 3 sets.

Lecture 4. Verb.

Outline

1. **General characteristics.**
2. **The category of tense.**
3. **The problem of the future and future-in-the-past.**
4. **The category of voice.**
5. **Types of passive constructions.**
6. **Reasons for the frequent occurrence of the passive in English.**

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

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.

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.

In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the function of the verb-predicate. The non-finite verb performs different functions according to its intermediary nature. In other words, the non-finite forms perform a potentially predicative function, constituting secondary predicative centres in the sentence. In each case of such use they refer to some subject of their own which is expressed either explicitly or implicitly.

Roddy cared enough about his mother to want to make amends to Arabella > *Roddy wanted to make amends...* > *Roddy will make amends*

Changing gear, the taxi turned the sharp corner > *The taxi changed gear and turned the corner.*

Acting as mate is often more difficult than acting as captain. > *One acts as mate; one acts as captain.*

THE CATEGORY OF TENSE

The immediate expression of grammatical time, or tense, is one of the typical functions of the finite verb. It is necessary to strictly distinguish between the general notion of time, the lexical denotation of time, and the grammatical time proper.

The general notion of time is that the latter, as well as space, are the basic forms of the existence of matter, they both are inalienable properties of reality and as such are absolutely independent of human perception.

All the lexical expressions of time are divided into present-oriented (absolute) and non-present-oriented (non-absolute) expressions of time. The absolute time denotation distributes the intellectual perception of time among three spheres: the sphere of present, with the present moment included within its framework; the sphere of the past, which precedes the sphere of the present by way of retrospect; the sphere of the future, which follows the sphere of the present by way of prospect.

Thus, words and phrases like now, last week, in our century, in the past etc are absolute names of time.

The non-absolute time denotation does not characterize an event in terms of orientation towards the present. This kind of denotation may be either relative or factual.

The relative expression of time correlates two or more events showing some of them either as preceding the others (priority), or following the others (posteriority), or happening at one and the same time with them. Here belong such words and phrases as after that, before that, some time later etc.

The factual expression of time either directly states the astronomical time of an event or else conveys this meaning in terms of historical landmarks. Under this heading should be listed such words and phrases as in (the year of) 1066, during the First World War, at the early period of civilization etc.

The grammatical expression of verbal time (tense) is effected in two correlated stages. At the first stage, the process receives an absolute time characteristic by means of opposing the past tense to the present tense. The marked member of this opposition is the past form. At the second stage, the process receives a non-absolute relative time characteristic by means of opposing the forms of the future tense to the forms of no future marking.

THE PROBLEM OF THE FUTURE AND FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST

The combinations of the verbs SHALL / WILL with the infinitive have of late become subject of heated discussions. Many linguists do not include the Future Tense in the system of tenses. In "PHYLOSOPHY OF GRAMMAR" Espersen points out that the Future Tense does not exist in English for there is no grammatical form of the Future standing on the same grammatical footing with the forms of the Present and the Past. He analysed the phrase SHALL / WILL + INFINITIVE and said that it couldn't be treated as the analytical form of the Future

according to the theory of the splitting of functions. SHALL / WILL is not deprived of the lexical meaning because they retain their modal meaning;

SHALL – obligation; WILL – volition.

Barkhudarov basically agrees with Espersen. His objection consists in the demonstration of the double marking of this WOULD-BE tense form by one and the same category: the combinations in question can express at once both the future time and the past time (the form FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST), which hardly makes any sense in terms of a grammatical category. Indeed, the principle of identification of any grammatical category demands that the forms of the category in normal use should be mutually exclusive. The category is constituted by the opposition of its forms, not by their co-position.

Blokh agrees with the both but he develops their ideas. He believes that SHALL / WILL + INFINITIVE belongs to a new specific temporal category – the category of prospective time. This category is built on the opposition of forms with SHALL / WILL-marker and forms without this marker. As to the difference in meaning the forms with SHALL / WILL-marker express an AFTER-ACTION whereas the forms without this marker express NON-AFTER-ACTION.

The prospective time is relative – the future action is relative to the present or the past time. If they are relative to the present time we speak of the form of the FUTURE. If they are relative to the past time we speak of the FUTURE-IN-THE-PAST.

The category of the prospective time is not the one singled out by Блох. The other one, pointed out by this scholar is the category of the primary time. It provides for the absolute expression of the time of the process, or, it refers the action to the moment of speech. It is built on the opposition of two forms: PRESENT versus PAST.

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE

Ilyish points out two approaches to the definition of voice that used to exist:

1. The category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the action.
2. The category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the object of the action.

Now those definitions of voice are more widely accepted that indicate that the form of the verb shows the direction of an action in respect of the subject.

If the subject of a sentence is the agent of the action, or, the action comes from it, we speak of the Active Voice.

If the subject of a sentence is the recipient of the action, or, the action is directed upon it, we speak of the Passive Voice.

From the point of view of the oppositional theory the category of voice is built up on the opposition of the Active and Passive voice. The passive voice is the marked element of the opposition, the marker is the discontinuous morpheme BE + -EN. The form of the passive voice is a true analytical form.

TYPES OF PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

According to the number of elements in a passive construction, the latter can be divided into:

1. a two-member passive construction
2. a three-member passive construction

A two-member passive construction includes the subject of the construction which is the recipient of the action, and the second member is the action itself.

The child will be looked after.

A three-member passive construction consists of the subject of the construction which is the recipient of the action, the action itself and the agent of the action. This kind of the passive construction is considered emphatic and is usually used to emphasize the doer of the action.

There are several reasons why passive constructions are more extensively used in English than in Russian. The fact is that only one type of Passive exists in Russian in which a

direct object of the active construction becomes the subject of the passive construction. And indirect object cannot be used as the subject of the passive construction.

Unlike in Russian, many English verbs that take two objects can feature them both in the position of the subject of the passive construction.

Thus the following types of passive constructions exist:

- the direct passive
- the indirect passive
- the prepositional passive
- the adverbial passive

REASONS FOR THE FREQUENT OCCURENCE OF THE PASSIVE IN ENGLISH

It is common knowledge that the Passive is extensively used in English. This seems to be due to a number of reasons.

- In English there are no means of avoiding the indication of the doer of the action in active constructions. In other languages we find special active constructions which make it possible to avoid any mention of the agent. For instance, in Russian there several grammatical means to serve the purpose:

➤ the so-called indefinite-personal sentences in which there is no subject and the predicate is in the third person plural:

Греков держали как пленников, но при этом обращались с ними самым почтительным образом и предоставляли им всевозможные блага.

➤ sentences with reflexive verbs:

Эта картина ценилась выше, чем все другие.

Он знал, что оставался ещё один важный вопрос

Его неожиданное появление объяснялось очень просто.

➤ impersonal sentences

Не слышалось никакого шума.

Взорвало плотину.

Всё небо обложило тучами

It is true that in English the indefinite pronoun ONE and occasionally the personal pronouns WE, YOU, THEY and the noun PEOPLE may be used in the same way. But for some reason or other, the use of this kind of sentences is restricted, and English, instead, resorts to passive constructions.

➤ In English, owing to the loss of distinction between the accusative and the dative cases, the number of verbs taking a direct object is quite considerable. It accounts for the extensive use of the Direct Passive.

➤ There is a great variety of passive constructions in English. Although some of them are restricted in their application, they still contribute to the frequent occurrence of the Passive.

Lecture 5. The question of the number of voices.

Outline

- 1. The reflexive voice.**
- 2. The reciprocal voice.**
- 3. The middle voice.**

Most grammarians agree that there are two voices in ME. However, three other voices have been singled out:

- the Reflexive voice
- the Reciprocal voice
- the Middle voice

THE REFLEXIVE VOICE:

I will shave and wash.

Actually the direction of the action in this example is different from that of the Active Voice. The action is performed by the subject upon itself, or, as Блох characterizes it, “The action comes from the subject and back to it”.

This kind of direction is called “reflexive”. It can be rendered explicitly (that is with the help of reflexive pronouns) or it can be rendered implicitly (without reflexive pronouns).

But the trouble is that this meaning is not expressed formally, by the form of the verb itself.

Ilyish notices: “In order to acknowledge the existence of the Reflexive Voice it is necessary to prove that reflexive pronouns used in here are voice auxiliaries”.

E.g. He is helping himself and his friends.

However, there is an example of a different kind:

He found himself alone. / Help yourself.

They cannot be joined by any conjunction and a noun. So in that case the SELF-PRONOUNS can be treated as voice-auxiliaries. However, Ilyish is very cautious and says that there is no sufficient ground for recognizing the REFLEXIVE VOICE and he leaves the question open.

THE RECIPROCAL VOICE.

Nelly and Christopher divorced two years ago.

The friends will be meeting tomorrow.

These sentences can be used with reciprocal pronouns (EACH OTHER; ONE ANOTHER). The direction of the action in these examples is specific, it differs from that of the ACTIVE VOICE. In fact the action is performed by the subjects on one another. Or, the action goes on between the elements of the subject. And this kind of verbal meaning is called reciprocal. It can be rendered explicitly or implicitly.

The grammarians who support the existence of the RECIPROCAL VOICE treat reciprocal pronouns as voice-auxiliaries. However, most grammarians do not recognize reciprocal voice-forms as grammatical. Блох says: “They are phrasal derivatives and can be interpreted syntactical-lexical. There are four main directions of an action:

- from the subject
- to the subject
- from the subject and back to it
- between the elements of the subject.

The first two directions are indicated by the form of the verb and therefore they are included in the opposition of the category of voice. The other two directions are indicated lexically either by a verb or by reflexive or reciprocal pronouns.

THE MIDDLE VOICE

The door opened.

The book is selling well.

The transitive verbs in these examples are used specifically. The action is confined to the subject, it appears to go on of its own accord. The action goes on within the subject without affecting any object. It differs from the ACTIVE VOICE in meaning and syntactical construction.

However, it is not recognized because it is lacking in regularity and the outer form of expression.

Блох points out: “they are cases of neutralization of voice opposition but peculiar ones. Because the weak member does not coincide with the strong one but is located between the two members.

Lecture 6. Mood and aspect.

Outline

1. The category of mood.

2. The category of aspect.

THE CATEGORY OF MOOD.

It is the most controversial category. Ilyish notices: “The category of mood in the present English verb has given rise to so many discussions, and has been treated in so many different ways, that it seems hardly possible to arrive at any more or less convincing and universally acceptable conclusion concerning it”.

The only and true cause of the multiplicity of opinion in question lies in the complexity of the category as such, made especially peculiar by the contrast of its meaningful intricacy against the scarcity of the English word inflexion.

The category of mood expresses the character of connection between the process denoted by the verb and the actual reality, either presenting the process as a fact that really happened, happens or will happen, or treating it as an imaginary phenomenon, i.e. the subject of hypothesis, speculation, desire. It follows from this that the functional opposition underlying the category as a whole is constituted by the forms of oblique mood meaning, i.e. those of unreality, contrasted against the forms of direct mood meaning, i.e. those of reality, the former making up the strong member, the latter – the weak member of the opposition.

In traditional grammar three moods are singled out;

- The Indicative
- The Imperative
- The Subjunctive

The three moods correspond to three principal modal meanings;

- the meaning of fact
- the meaning of urge
- the meaning of potentiality

THE INDICATIVE MOOD is used to show that the speaker represents an action as an actual fact.

The Imperative form of the verb is traditionally referred to as the Imperative Mood. It is used to express the modal meaning of urge. In form it coincides with the infinitive stem, so it is a synthetic form. But the emphatic and negative forms of the Imperative are analytical.

The Imperative has one person (second). However, Ilyish claims that there is no category of person in the Imperative since the second person does not oppose any other person.

The Imperative has no number, tense or aspect distinctions. Generally it is used in one-member sentences. Though the Imperative has no category of Tense it has a temporal meaning of future, more or less immediate.

As to theoretical grammar not all grammarians recognize the Imperative Mood as a separate one. They deny it the status on the grounds that it has no specific morphological characteristics. Ilyish points out that in form it coincides with the infinitive, Blokh puts it that in form it coincides with the Spective Mood which belongs to the Subjunctive Mood.

The aforesaid mood is represented by the following examples:

Be what may. God forgive us. It is important that he arrive here as soon as possible. My orders are that the guards draw up.

As to the participation of the Imperative Mood in the above-mentioned, Blokh proves it by the transformation of imperative constructions.

Be off! > I demand that you be off etc

Semantical observation of the constructions with the analyzed verbal form shows that within the general meaning of desired or hypothetical action, it signifies different attitudes towards the process denoted by the verb (desire, supposition, speculation, suggestion etc). Thus, the analyzed forms present the mood of attitudes, which is traditionally called Subjunctive One. Blokh suggests that this mood should be called SPECTIVE, employing the Latin base for the notion of “attitudes”.

The counted above form-types can be used with modal verbs such as MAY / MIGHT, SHOULD, LET:

May it be as you wish. Orders were given that the searching group should start out at once. Let me try it. Etc.

Being the functional equivalents of the pure Spective Mood, these form-types are characterized by a high frequency occurrence, they are more universal stylistically than the pure spective form, and Blokh names them as MODAL SPECTIVE.

Considering the forms of the subjunctive referring to the past order of the verb we should identify the specific form of the conjugated BE as the only native manifestation of the categorial expression of unreal process.

If I were in your place, I'd only be happy.

It is only the first and third persons singular that have suppletive marking feature WERE, the rest of the forms coincide with the past indicative.

Usually this form-type occurs in complex with the principal clause with WOULD / SHOULD marker. Thus, the most characteristic construction in which the two form-types occur in such a way that one constitutes the environment of the other is the complex sentence with a clause of unreal condition. The subjunctive form-type used in the conditional clause is the past-unposterior; the subjunctive form-type used in the principal clause is the past-posterior. The subjunctive past unposterior is called by some grammarians SUBJUNCTIVE TWO. Blokh suggests that the term SUBJUNCTIVE be reserved for denoting the mood of unreality as a whole. The term SPECTIVE cannot be used here for the simple reason that the analysed mood-form does not express attitudes.

➤ Even though it were raining, we'll go boating on the lake. [We don't know whether it will be raining or not, but even in case it is raining we will go boating] – concession.

➤ She was talking to Bennie as if he were a grown person. [She was talking to Bennie as she would be talking to him if he were a grown person] – comparison

As we see, the subjunctive form under analysis in its various uses does express the unreality of action which constitutes a condition for the corresponding consequence. So, as Blokh proposes, the appropriate term for this form of the subjunctive would be STIPULATIVE. Or, the subjunctive form-type which is referred to on the structural basis as the past unposterior, on the functional basis will be referred as stipulative.

As to the form-type of the subjunctive presenting past-posterior its most characteristic use is connected with the principal clause of the complex sentence expressing a situation of unreal condition: the principal clause conveys the idea of its imaginary consequence, thereby also relating to unreal state of events. Apart from complex sentences, the past posterior form of the subjunctive can be used in independent sentences, though, these sentences are based on the presupposition of some condition, the consequence of which they express.

He would be here by now: he may have missed his train. > He may have missed his train, otherwise (i.e. if he hadn't missed it) he would be here by now.

As it can be beheld, the subjunctive form-type in question essentially expresses an unreal consequential action dependent on an unreal stipulating action, so, relying on Latin etymology, Блох considers the term CONJECTIVE the most appropriate.

So, the subjunctive, the integral mood of unreality, presents the two sets of forms according to the structural division of verbal tenses into the present and the past. These form-sets constitute the two corresponding functional subsystems of the subjunctive, namely, the spective (the mood of attitudes) and the conditional (the mood of appraising causal-conditional relations of processes). Each of these, in its turn, falls into two systemic sub-sets, so that on the immediately working level of presentation we have the four subjunctive form-types identified on the basis of the strict correlation between their structure and their functions: THE PURE SPECTIVE, THE MODAL SPECTIVE, THE STIPULATIVE CONDITIONAL, THE CONJECTIVE CONDITIONAL.

THE CATEGORY OF ASPECT

The aspective meaning of the verb, as different from its temporal meaning, reflects the inherent mode of the realization of the process.

The continuous verbal forms analysed on the principles of oppositional approach admit of only one interpretation, and that is aspective

The continuous forms are aspective because, reflecting the inherent character of the process performed by the verb, they do not, and cannot denote the timing of the process. The opposition constituting the. The continuous verbal forms analysed on the principles of oppositional approach admit of corresponding category is effected between the continuous and non-continuous (indefinite) forms. The categorial meaning discloses the nature of development of the verbal action, on which ground the suggested name for the category as a whole will be development. As is the case with the other categories, its expression is combined with other categorial expressions in one and the same word-form, involving also the category that features the perfect. Thus, it should be identified, within the framework of the manifestations of the category of development, not only the perfect continuous forms, but also the perfect indefinite forms (i.e. non-continuous).

The perfect, as different from the continuous, does reflect a kind of timing, though in a purely relative way. It coordinates two times, locating one of them in retrospect towards the other. Should the grammatical meaning of the perfect have been exhausted by this function, it ought to have been placed into one and the same categorial system with the future, forming the integral category of time coordination (correspondingly, prospective and retrospective). But it cannot be done, because the perfect expresses not only time in relative retrospect, but also the very connection of a prior process with a time limit reflected in a subsequent way. Thus, the perfect forms of the verb display a mixed, intermediary character, which places them apart both from the relative posterior tense and the aspective development. Блох suggested that the name for this category be RETROSPECTIVE COORDINATION (RETROSPECT). The categorial member opposed to the perfect is named IMPERFECT (NON-PERFECT).

The aspective category of development is constituted by the opposition of the continuous forms of the verb to the non-continuous. The marked element of the opposition is the continuous. It is represented by the discontinuous morpheme BE + ...ING.

The category of retrospective coordination (retrospect) is constituted by the opposition of the perfect forms of the verb to the non-perfect (imperfect). It is shown with the help of the discontinuous morpheme HAVE + ...EN.

Lecture 7. Verbids.

Outline

- 1. The general characteristics of non-finite forms (Verbids).**
- 2. The Infinitive.**
- 3. The Gerund.**
- 4. The Present Participle.**
- 5. The Past Participle.**

THE GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF NON-FINITE FORMS (VERBIDS)

Verbids are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexico-grammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. The mixed features of these forms are revealed in the principal spheres of the part-of-speech characterization, i.e. in their meaning, structural marking, combinability, and syntactic functions.

Every verb-stem (except for a few defective verbs), by means of morphemic change, takes both finite and non-finite forms, the functions of the two sets being strictly differentiated. While the finite forms serve in the sentence only one syntactic function (that of

the finite predicate), the non-finite forms serve various syntactic functions other than that of the finite predicate.

The strict division of functions clearly shows that the opposition between the finite and non-finite forms of the verb creates a special grammatical category. The differential feature of the opposition is constituted by the expression of the verbal time and mood: while the time-mood grammatical signification characterizes the finite verb in a way that it underlies its finite predicative function, the verbid has no immediate means of expressing time-mood categorial semantics and therefore presents the weak member of the opposition. The category expressed by this opposition is called the category of FINITUDE (Strang, Barkhudarov).

In other words, we may say that the opposition of the finite verbs and the verbids is based on the expression of the functions of full-predication and semi-predication.

The English verbids include four forms distinctly differing from one another within the general verbid system:

- the Infinitive
- the Gerund
- the Present Participle
- the Past Participle

In compliance with this difference, the verbid semi-predicative complexes are distinguished by the corresponding differential properties both in form and in syntactic-contextual function.

THE INFINITIVE

The infinitive is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun, serving as the verbal name of a process.

The infinitive is used in three fundamentally different types of functions:

- as a notional, self-positional syntactic part of the sentence
- as the notional constituent of a complex verbal predicate built up around a predicator verb
- as the notional constituent of a finite conjugation of the verb

The first use is grammatically “free”, the second is grammatically “half-free”, the third is grammatically “bound”.

The dual verbal-nominal meaning of the infinitive is expressed in full in its free, independent use.

Do you really mean to go away and leave me here alone? ~ What do you really mean?

The combinability of the infinitive also reflects its dual semantic nature, in accord with which there can be distinguished its verb-type and noun-type connections. The verb type combinability of the infinitive is displayed in its combining:

- with nouns expressing the object of the action
- with nouns expressing the subject of the action
- with modifying adverbs
- with predicator verbs of semi-functional nature forming a verbal predicate
- with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical forms of the verb

The self-positional infinitive, in due syntactic arrangements, can perform the following functions:

- the subject
- the predicative
- the object
- the attribute
- the adverbial modifier

The infinitive is a categorially changeable form. It distinguishes three grammatical categories sharing them with a finite verb:

- the category of aspect (continuous in opposition)

- the category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition)
- the category of voice (passive in opposition)

Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the infinitive of the objective verb includes eight forms:

- the indefinite active (to take)
- the continuous active (to be taking)
- the perfect active (to have taken)
- the perfect continuous active (to have been taking)
- the indefinite passive (to be taken)
- the continuous passive (to be being taken)
- the perfect passive (to have been taken)
- the perfect continuous passive (to have been being taken)

The infinitive paradigm of the non-objective verb, correspondingly, includes four forms:

- the indefinite active (to go)
- the continuous active (to be going)
- the perfect active (to have gone)
- the perfect continuous active (to have been going)

THE GERUND

The gerund is the non-finite form of the verb which, like the infinitive, combines the properties of the verb with those of the noun. Similar to the infinitive, the gerund serves as the verbal name of the process, but its substantive quality is more strongly pronounced than that of the infinitive. Namely, as different from the infinitive, and similar to the noun, the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or its pronominal equivalents (expressing the subject of the verbal process), and it can be used with prepositions.

The general combinability of the gerund, like that of the infinitive, is dual, sharing some features with the verb, and some features with the noun. The verb type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining:

- with nouns expressing the object of the action
 - with modifying adverbs
 - with certain semi-functional predicator verbs, but other than modal
- of the noun type is the combinability of the gerund:
- with finite notional verbs as the object of the action
 - with finite notional verbs as the prepositional adjunct of various functions
 - with finite notional verbs as the subject of the action
 - with nouns as the prepositional adjunct of various functions.

The gerund, in the corresponding positional patterns, performs the functions of all the types of notional sentence-parts:

- the subject
- the predicative
- the object
- the attribute
- the adverbial modifier

Like the infinitive, the gerund is categorially changeable. It distinguishes the two grammatical categories, sharing them with the finite verb and the present participle:

- the category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition)
- the category of voice (passive in opposition)

Consequently, the categorial paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb includes four forms:

- the simple active (taking)
- the perfect active (having taken)
- the simple passive (being taken)

- the perfect passive (having been taken)

The gerundial paradigm of the non-objective verbs, correspondingly, includes two forms:

- the simple active (going)
- the perfect active (having gone)

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE

The present participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serving as the qualifying-processual name. In its outer form the present participle distinguishes the same grammatical categories with gerund as retrospective coordination and voice.

The verb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed:

- in its being combined with nouns expressing the object of the action
- with nouns expressing the subject of the action
- with modifying adverbs
- with auxiliary finite verbs (word-morphemes) in the analytical form of the verb.

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

The adverb-type combinability of the present participle is revealed in its association with the modified verbs

The self-positional present participle, in the proper syntactic arrangements, performs the functions:

- the predicative (occasional use, and not with the pure link BE)
- the attribute
- the adverbial modifier of various types.

THE PAST PARTICIPLE

The past participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the qualifying-processual name. The past participle is a single form having no paradigm of its own. By way of the paradigmatic correlation with the present participle, it conveys implicitly the categorial meaning of the perfect and the passive. As different from the present participle, it has no distinct combinability features or syntactic function features specially characteristic of the adverb. Thus, the main self-positional functions of the past participle in the sentence are those of the attribute and the predicative.

Lecture 8. The Noun.

Outline

- 1. The category of number of the nouns.**
- 2. The category of case of the nouns.**
- 3. The theory of positional cases.**
- 4. The theory of prepositional cases.**
- 5. The limited case theory.**
- 6. The theory of the possessive postposition.**

THE CATEGORY OF NUMBER OF THE NOUNS

The noun as a part of speech has the categorial meaning of SUBSTANCE (THINGNESS). The class of nouns falls into four subclasses:

- proper and common nouns
- animate and inanimate nouns
- human and non-human nouns
- countable and uncountable nouns
- concrete and abstract

As to the category of number, it is expressed by the opposition of the plural form of the noun to its singular form. The strong member of this binary opposition is the plural, its productive formal mark being the suffix -(e)s. The productive formal mark correlates with the absence of the number suffix in the singular form of the noun. The semantic content of the unmarked form means the presence of the zero-suffix of the singular in English.

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

The most general quantitative characteristics of individual words constitute the lexico-grammatical base for dividing the nounal vocabulary as a whole into countable nouns and uncountable nouns. The constant categorial feature quantitative structure is directly connected with the variable feature number since uncountable nouns are treated grammatically as either singular or plural. Namely, the singular uncountable nouns are modified by the quantifiers much / little and they take the finite verb in the singular, while the plural uncountable nouns take the finite verb in the plural.

The two subclasses of uncountable nouns are usually referred to, respectively, as *singularia tantum* / *pluralia tantum*.

Since the grammatical form of the uncountable nouns of the *SINGULARIA TANTUM* subclass is not excluded from the category of number, it stands to reason to speak of it as the absolute singular, as different from the correlative (common) singular of the countable nouns. The absolute singular excludes the use of the modifying numeral ONE as well as the indefinite article.

The absolute singular is characteristic of the names of:

- abstract notions (peace, love, joy ...)
- branches of professional activity (chemistry, architecture, linguistics...)
- mass materials (water, snow, steel...)
- collective inanimate objects (foliage, fruit, furniture...)

Some of these words can be used in the form of the common singular with the common plural counterpart, but in this case they come to mean either different sorts of materials, or separate concrete manifestations of the qualities denoted by abstract nouns, or concrete objects exhibiting the respective qualities.

Joy is absolutely necessary for human life. – It was a joy to see her among us.

On the other hand, the absolute singular can be used with countable nouns. In such cases the nouns are taken to express either the corresponding abstract ideas, or else the meaning of some mass-material correlated with its countable referent.

Waltz is a lovely dance. The refugees needed shelter.

Under this heading comes also the generic use of the singular.

Man's immortality lies in his deeds.

In the sphere of the plural there should be recognized the common plural form as the regular feature of countability and the absolute plural form peculiar to the uncountable subclass of *pluralia tantum* nouns. The absolute plural cannot directly combine with numerals, and only occasionally does it combine with the quantifiers many, few.

The absolute plural is characteristic of the uncountable nouns:

- which denote objects consisting of two halves (trousers, scissors, spectacles...)
- expressing some sort of collective meaning, i.e. rendering the idea of indefinite plurality, both concrete and abstract (supplies, outskirts, clothes; tidings, earnings, contents, politics; police, cattle, poultry ...)

➤ denoting some diseases as well as some abnormal states of the body and mind (measles, rickets, creeps, hysterics...)

The absolute plural, by way of oppositional reduction, can be represented in countable nouns having the form of the singular, in uncountable nouns having the form of the plural, and also in countable nouns having the form of the singular.

The first type of the reduction, consisting in the use of the absolute plural with countable nouns in the singular form, concerns collective nouns, which are thereby changed into nouns of multitude.

The family were gathered round the table. The government are unanimous in disapproving the move of the opposition.

This form of the absolute plural may be called multitude plural.

The second type of the described oppositional reduction, consisting in the use of the absolute plural with uncountable nouns in the plural form, concerns cases of stylistical marking of nouns.

The sands of the desert; the snows of the Arctic; the waters of the ocean; the fruits of the toil.

This variety of the absolute plural may be called descriptive uncountable plural.

The third type of oppositional reduction concerns common countable nouns used in repetition groups. The acquired implication is indefinitely large quantity intensely presented. The nouns in repetition groups may themselves be used either in the plural or in the singular.

There were trees and trees around us. I lit cigarette after cigarette.

This variety of the absolute plural may be called repetition plural.

THE CATEGORY OF CASE OF THE NOUNS

Case is the immanent morphological category of the noun manifested in the forms of noun declension and showing the relations of the nominal referent to other objects and phenomena.

This category is expressed by the opposition of the form in -'s [-z, -s, -iz], usually called the possessive (genitive) case, to the unfeatured form of the noun, usually called the common case.

In fact, in the course of linguistic investigation the category of case in English has become one of the vexed problems.

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

THE THEORY OF POSITIONAL CASES

This theory is directly connected with the old grammatical tradition, and its traces can be seen in many contemporary text-books for school in the English-speaking countries (J.C. Nesfield, M. Deutschbein, M. Bryant and others). In accord with this theory, the unchangeable forms of the noun are differentiated as different cases by virtue of the functional positions occupied by the noun in the sentence. Thus, the English noun would distinguish, besides the inflexional genitive case, also the uninflexional, purely positional cases: nominative, vocative, dative, accusative.

The nominative case (subject to a verb): Rain falls.

The vocative case (address): Are you coming, my friend?

The dative case (indirect object to a verb): I gave John a penny.

The accusative case (direct object, and also an object to a preposition): The man killed a rat. The earth is moistened by rain.

The cardinal blunder of this view is that it substitutes the functional characteristics of the part of the sentence for the morphological features of the word class. In reality, the case forms as such serve as means of expressing the functions of the noun in the sentence, and not vice versa.

THE THEORY OF PREPOSITIONAL CASES

In accord with the prepositional theory, combinations of nouns with prepositions in certain object and attributive collocations should be understood as morphological case-forms. To these belong first of all the dative case (to + NOUN, for + NOUN) and the genitive case (of + NOUN). These prepositions, according to G. Curme, are inflexional prepositions, i.e. grammatical elements equivalent to case-forms.

The prepositional theory, though somewhat better grounded than the positional theory, nevertheless can hardly pass a serious linguistic trial. As is well known from noun-declensional languages, all their prepositions, and not only some of them, do require definite cases of nouns. This fact, together with a mere semantic observation of the role of prepositions in the phrase, shows that any preposition stands in essentially the same grammatical relations to nouns. It should follow from this that not only of-, to-, for- phrases, but also all the other prepositional phrases in English must be regarded as analytical cases. As a result of such an approach illogical redundancy in terminology would arise: each prepositional phrase would bear then another, additional name of prepositional case, the total number of the said cases running into dozens upon dozens without any gain to theory.

THE LIMITED CASE THEORY

This view of the English noun case recognizes a limited inflexional system of two cases in English, one of them featured, the other – unfeatured (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, A.I. Smirnitsky, L.S. Barkhudarov).

The limited case theory in its modern presentation is based on the explicit oppositional approach to the recognition of grammatical categories. In the system of the English case the functional mark is defined which differentiates the two case-forms:

- the possessive (genitive) as the strong member of the categorial opposition;
- the common (non-genitive) as the weak member of the opposition.

THE THEORY OF THE POSSESSIVE POSTPOSITION

This view approaches the English noun as having completely lost the category of case in its historical development. All the nounal cases, including the much spoken of genitive, are considered as extinct, and the lingual unit that is named the GENITIVE CASE by force of tradition, would be in reality a combination of a noun with a postposition (i.e. a relational postpositional word with preposition-like functions) [Vorontsova].

Of the various reasons substantiating the postpositional theory the following two should be considered as the main ones.

1. The postpositional element –'s is but loosely connected with the noun, which finds the clearest expression in its use not only with single nouns, but also with whole word-groups of various status: somebody else's daughter, another stage-struck girl's stage finish. . .

2. There is an indisputable parallelism of functions between the possessive postpositional constructions and the prepositional constructions, resulting in the optional use of the former. This can be shown by transformational reshuffles of the above examples: the daughter of somebody else, the stage finish of another stage-struck girl.

One cannot but acknowledge the rational character of the cited reasoning. However, the theory of the possessive postposition fails to take into due account the consistent insight into the nature of the noun form in –'s achieved by the limited case theory.

The latter has demonstrated that the noun form in -'s is systemically contrasted against the unfeatured form of the noun, which does make the whole correlation of the nounal forms into a grammatical category of case-like order.

The solution of the problem is to be sought on the ground of a critical synthesis of the positive statements of the two theories: the limited case theory and the possessive postposition theory.

A two case declension of nouns should be recognized in English, with its common case as a direct case, and its genitive case as the only oblique case. But, unlike the case system in

ordinary noun-declensional languages based on inflexional word change, the case system in English is founded on a particle expression. The particle nature of -'s is evident from the fact that it is added in post position both to individual nouns and to nounal word-groups of various status, so two subtypes are to be recognized: the word genitive and the phrase genitive.

The described particle expression of case may to a certain extent be likened to the particle expression of the Subjunctive mood in Russian. As is known, the Russian subjunctive particle бы not only can be distanced from the verb it refers to, but it can also relate to a lexical unit of non-verb-like nature without losing its basic subjunctive-functional quality:

Если бы не он. Мне бы такая возможность. Как бы не так.

Lecture 9. The Article.

Article is a determining unit of specific nature accompanying the noun in communicative collocation.

A mere semantic observation of the articles in English, i.e. the definite article THE and the indefinite article A/AN, at once discloses not two, but three meaningful characterizations of the nounal referent achieved by their correlative functioning:

- one rendered by the definite article;
- one rendered by the indefinite article
- one rendered by the absence (or non-use) of article.

The definite article expresses the identification or individualization of the referent of the noun: the use of this article shows that the object denoted is taken in its concrete, individual quality.

The indefinite article is commonly interpreted as referring the object denoted by the noun to a certain class of similar objects; in other words, the indefinite article expresses a classifying generalization of the nounal referent, or takes it in a relatively general sense.

As for the various uses of nouns without an article, from the semantic point of view they all should be divided into two types. In the first place, there are uses where the articles are deliberately omitted out of stylistical considerations.

Telegram received room reserved for week-end (the text of a telegram).

Conference adjourned until further notice (the text of an announcement).

Big red bus rushed food to strikers (the title of a newspaper article).

The purposeful elliptical omission of the article in cases like that is quite obvious, and the omitted articles may easily be restored.

Alongside of free elliptical constructions, there are cases of the semantically unspecified non-use of the article in various combinations of fixed type, such as prepositional phrases (on fire, at hand, in debt ...), fixed verbal collocations (take place, make use, cast anchor...), descriptive coordinative groups and repetition groups (man and wife, day by day...), and the like. These cases of traditionally fixed absence of the article are quite similar to the cases of traditionally fixed uses of both indefinite and definite articles (in a hurry, at a loss, have a look, give a start; in the main, out of the question, on the look-out...).

Outside the elliptical and fixed constructions there exists a really semantic absence of the article with the noun. It is this semantic absence of the article that stands in immediate meaningful correlation with the definite and indefinite articles as such.

The meaningful non-uses of the article admit of a very explicit classification founded on the countability of the noun. The essential points of this classification are three in number.

The meaningful absence of the article before the countable noun in the singular signifies that the noun is taken in an abstract sense expressing the most general idea of the object denoted (the meaning of absolute generalization).

Law begins with the beginning of human society. Steam-engine introduced for locomotion a couple of centuries ago has now become obsolete.

The absence of the article before the uncountable noun corresponds to the two kinds of generalization: both relative and absolute

John laughed with great bitterness. The subject of health. Coffee or tea, please? Coffee stimulates the function of the heart.

The absence of the article before the countable noun in the plural, likewise, corresponds to both kinds of generalization, and the exposition of the meaning in each case can be achieved by the same semantic tests. Cf.:

Stars, planets and comets (these kinds of objects: relative generalization) are different celestial bodies (not terrestrial bodies: relative generalization). Wars (in general: absolute generalization) should be eliminated as means of deciding international disputes.

To distinguish the demonstrated semantic functions of the non-uses of the article by definition, we may say that the absence of the article with uncountable nouns, as well as with countable nouns in the plural, renders the meaning of “ uncharacterized generalization”, as different from the meaning of “ absolute generalization”, achieved by the absence of the article with countable nouns in the singular.

So much for the semantic evaluation of the articles as the first stage of our study.

Passing to the situational estimation of the article, there should be pointed out that the basic principle of their differentiation here is not a direct consideration of their meanings, but disclosing the informational characteristics that the article conveys to its noun in concrete contextual conditions. In the situational study of syntax the starting point of the communication is called its theme, while the central informative part is called its rheme.

In accord with the aforesaid situational functions, the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the definite article is the thematic subject, while the typical syntactic position of the noun modified by the indefinite article or by the meaningful absence of the article is the rhematic predicative.

The day was drawing to a close, the busy noises of the city were dying down.

How to handle the situation was a big question. The sky was pure gold above the setting sun.

It should be noted that in many other cases of syntactic use the articles reflect the same situational functions.

Another essential contextual-situational characteristic of the articles is their immediate connection with the two types of attributes to the noun. The first type is a limiting attribute, which requires the definite articles before the noun; the second type is a descriptive attribute which requires the indefinite article or the meaningful absence of the article before the noun.

The events chronicled in this narrative took place some four years ago (limiting).

She was a person of strong will and iron self-control (descriptive).

The third stage of the analysis is concerned with the consideration of the articles in the light of the oppositional theory.

Bearing in mind the facts established at the two previous stages of observation, it is easy to see that oppositionally, 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 two other forms of article determination of the noun. In this opposition the definite article should be interpreted as the strong member of the opposition by virtue of its identifying and individualizing function, while the other forms of article determination should be interpreted as the weak member.

The opposition of the lower level operates within the article subsystem that forms the weak member of the upper opposition. This opposition 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 data obtained through the analyses show that the English noun, besides the variable categories of number and case, distinguishes the category of determination expressed by the article paradigm of three grammatical forms: the definite, the indefinite, the zero.

Lecture 10. The Adjective as a part of speech.

Outline

- 1. General characteristics.**
- 2. The category of adjectival comparison.**

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

The adjective expresses the categorial semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes (предполагает) relation to some noun the property of whose referent it denotes, such as its material, colour, position, state and other characteristics both temporary and permanent. Adjectives, unlike nouns don't possess a full nominal value.

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

In the sentence the adjective performs the functions of an attribute and a predicative (именная часть составного сказуемого). The more specific function of the adjective is the attribute, since the function of a predicative can be performed by a noun as well. The predicative adjective expresses some attributive property of its noun-referent, whereas the predicative noun expresses various substantival characteristics of its referent, such as its identification (classification) of different types.

E.g.: It will be silent as a grave. – I'll be like a silent grave.

To the derivational features of adjectives belong a number of suffixes and prefixes of which the most important are: -ful (hopeful), -less (flawless), -ish (bluish), -ous (famous); un- (unpleasant), in- (inaccurate).

All the adjectives are traditionally divided into 2 large subclasses: qualitative and relative..

1. Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance. E.g.: wood – wooden hut; history – a historical event; surgery – surgical treatment.

2. Qualitative adjectives denote various qualities of substances which admit (позволять) of a quantitative estimation (оценка). The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, optimal or excessive, sufficient or insufficient. E.g.: an awkward situation – a very awkward situation, a difficult task – a too difficult task, etc.

In this connection, the ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective and is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. E.g.: a pretty girl – a prettier girl; a hearty welcome – the heartiest welcome, etc. But there are 2 typical classes of contradiction should be pointed out here.

- Some qualitative adjectives are incapable to form degrees of comparison. Here refer adjectives like extinct, deaf, immobile, final, fixed, etc.

- Many adjectives considered under the heading of relative can form degrees of comparison. E.g.: a mediaeval approach – rather a ..., a grammatical topic – a purely ..., the most

THE CATEGORY OF ADJECTIVAL COMPARISON expresses the quantitative characteristic of the quality of a nominal referent, thus, it gives a relative evaluation of the quantity or quality. The purely relative nature of the categorial semantics of comparison is reflected in its name.

This category is constituted by the opposition of the three forms under the heading of degrees of comparison:

1. the basic form – positive degree, having no features of comparison;
2. the comparative degree form, having the feature of restricted superiority;
3. the superlative degree form, having the feature of unrestricted superiority.

Some linguists exclude the positive degree from the category as one having no features of comparison, and recognize comparative and superlative degrees. But sometimes the basic form can express comparative degree, but as the unmarked member, not distinguished by any comparative suffixes, while the superiority forms are the marked members, distinguished by the comparison suffixes or comp. auxiliaries.

E.g.: The remark was as bitter as could be. That was the bitterest remark I've ever heard from the man.

Thus, at the upper level of presentation the superiority degrees as the marked member of the opposition are contrasted against the positive degree as its unmarked member. The synthetical forms of comparison in “-er” and “-(e)st” coexist with the analytical forms of comparison effected by the auxiliaries “more, most”, which perform a double function: they are used with the evaluative adjectives, that consist of more 2-syllable composition and cannot normally take the synthetic forms of comparison; the analytical forms of comparison are used to express emphasis. E.g.: The audience became more and more noisy.

Some scholars consider more/most and less/least-combinations to be free syntactic constructions and semantically analogous to each other. The inherent superlative semantics is emphasized by the definite article normally.

There exist suplative forms of degrees of comparisons: good – better – the best, bad – worse – the worst, etc.

Lecture 11. Sentence as the main object of Syntax.

Outline

- 1. Some grammatical properties of the sentence.**
- 2. Communicative types of sentences.**

SOME GRAMMATICAL PROPERTIES OF THE SENTENCE

Sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The sentence, being composed of words, may in certain cases include only one word of various lexico-grammatical standings. E.g.:

Night. Congratulations. Away! Why?!

The actual existence of one-word sentences, however doesn't contradict the general idea of the sentence as a special syntactic combination of words.

While the word is a component element of the word-stock and as such is a nominative unit of language, the sentence is a predicative utterance unit, linguistically. It means the sentence not only names some referents with the help of its word-constituents, but also, presents these referents as making up a certain situation, a situational event; and reflects the connection between the nominal denotation of the event and objective reality, showing the time of the event, its being real or unreal, necessary or unnecessary, etc. E.g.:

I'm satisfied, the experiment has succeeded. – I would have been satisfied if the experiment had succeeded. – The experiment seems to have succeeded – why then I'm not satisfied?

The sentence is characterized by its specific category of predication, which establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. Predication is the connection between the subject and predicate. The centre of predication in a sentence of verbal type (which is the predominant type of sentence structure in English) is a finite verb, that expresses essential

predicative meaning by its categorial forms (tense, mood). Besides the purely verbal categories, in the predicative semantics are included such syntactic sentence meanings as purposes of communication (declaration – interrogation – inducement), modal probability, affirmation and negation and others.

The sentence is intonationally delimited. Intonation separates one sentence from another. The role of intonation is especially important for sentences, which have more than one predicative centres. E.g.:

The class was over. The noisy children filled the corridors.

The general semantic category of modality is also defined by linguists as exposing the connection between the named objects and surrounding reality. But modality is not specifically confined (замкнутый, заключенный) to the sentence; this is a broader category. Thus, every word expressing a definite correlation between the named substance and objective reality should be recognized as modal with the meanings of “probability”, “desirability”, “necessity”. Here belong semi-notional words and phrases of probability and evaluation, such as perhaps, maybe, by all means, etc.; particles – just, even, would-be, etc. Predication reflects only syntactic modality.

Different sentences may express questions or statements. If it is a question the speaker expects to hear an answer. However, if it is a statement, the aim of the speaker is just to express some thoughts. The sentence has a question pattern if it is a question. The question is addressed to a listener. Generally, long sentences have some kind of punctuation. According to the purpose of communication we speak about the following types of sentence; all of them show marked peculiarities in their structure.

1. Declarative sentences expressing a statement;
2. Imperative sentences expressing inducement;
3. Interrogative sentences expressing a question.
4. Some linguists include one more type – exclamatory sentences expressing people’s emotions.

COMMUNICATIVE TYPES OF SENTENCES.

Sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose. Therefore the sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

The sentence is a communicative unit, therefore the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. The principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the “purpose of communication”. Different sentences may express questions or statements. If it is a question the speaker expects to hear an answer. However, if it is a statement, the aim of the speaker is just to express some thoughts. The sentence has a question pattern if it is a question. The question is addressed to a listener. Generally, long sentences have some kind of punctuation.

In accord with the purpose of communication three cardinal sentence-types have long been recognized in linguistic tradition: the declarative sentence; the imperative (inductive) sentence; the interrogative sentence. These communicative sentence-types stand in strict opposition to one another.

The declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative. E.g.:

“We live very quietly here, indeed we do; my niece here will tell you the same.” – “Oh, come, I’m not such a fool as that,” answered the squire (D. du Maurier)

The imperative sentence expresses inducement, either affirmative or negative. That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not perform a certain action. The imperative sentence is situationally connected with the corresponding “action response”. E.g.:

Let’s go and sit down there!

“Send him back!” – “Nonsense, old chap.”

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. It is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer dialogue unity. E.g.:

“What do you suggest I should do, then?” said Mary helplessly. “If I were you I should be waiting to the last moment.

Alongside the three cardinal communicative sentence-types, another type of sentences is recognized in the theory of syntax, namely, the so-called exclamatory sentence. It doesn't possess any complete set of qualities that could place them on one and the same level with the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. In other words, each of the cardinal communicative types of sentences can be represented in the two variants, exclamatory and non-exclamatory. E.g.:

What a very small cabin it was! – It was a very small cabin. Why, if it isn't my lady! – It is my lady. Her we can easily identify exclamatory sentences-statements with their non-exclamatory declarative prototypes.

Similarly, exclamatory questions are related in the syntactic system to the corresponding interrogative sentences.

E.g.: Whatever do you mean, Mr,Smith? – What do you mean?

Imperative sentences, naturally, are characterized by a higher degree of emotive intensity than the other two cardinal sentence-types. E.g.:

Peter, will you please try to speak loudly! – Try to speak loudly.

All the three pairs of variant communicative types of sentences (non-exclamatory – exclamatory for each cardinal division) make up distinct semantico-syntactic oppositions effected by regular gram. means of language, such as intonation, word order and special constructions with functional-auxiliary lexemic elements.

To Ilysh's point of view sentences are divided into:

1. Declarative including emotional words;
2. Interrogative including emotional words;
3. Imperative including emotional words;
4. Purely exclamatory sentences. (“Great Heavens!”, “Good Lord!”, etc.)

Lecture 12. Complex sentences.

Outline

1. The principles of subordination.
2. Subject, predicative, object clauses.
3. “Descriptive” attributive and “restrictive” attributive clauses.
4. Four groups of adverbial clauses.

THE PRINCIPLES OF SUBORDINATION.

The complex sentence is a polypredicative construction built up on the principle of subordination. It is derived from two or more *base sentences* one of which performs the role of a matrix in relation to the others, the *insert sentences*. The complex sentence of minimal composition includes two clauses - a principal one and a subordinate one. The subordinate clause is joined to the principal clause either by a subordinating connector (subordinate), or, with some types of clauses, asyndetically.

Moyra left the room. > (I do remember quite well) that Moyra left the room. > (He went on with his story) after Moyra left the room. > (Fred remained in his place) though Moyra left the room. > (The party was spoilt) because Moyra left the room. > (It was a surprise to us all) that Moyra left the room...

The minimal, two-clause complex sentence is the main volume type of complex sentences. It is the most important type, first, in terms of frequency; second, in terms of its paradigmatic status.

SUBJECT, PREDICATIVE, OBJECT CLAUSES.

Clauses of primary nominal positions - subject, predicative, object - are interchangeable with one another in easy reshufflings of sentence constituents. Cf.:

What you saw at the exhibition is just *what I want to know*. > *What I want to know* is just *what you saw at the exhibition*. > I just want to know *what you saw at the exhibition*.

The *subject clause*, in accordance with its functional position, regularly expresses the theme at the upper level of the actual division of the complex sentence. The thematic property of the clause is well exposed in its characteristic uses with passive constructions, as well as constructions in which the voice opposition is neutralized. E.g.:

Why he rejected the offer has never been accounted for. *What small reputation the town does possess* derives from two things.

The *predicative clause*, in conformity with the predicative position as such, performs the function of the nominal part of the predicate, i.e. the part adjoining the link-verb. The link-verb is mostly expressed by the pure link *be*, not infrequently we find here also the specifying links *seem* and *look*; the use of other specifying links is occasional. E.g.:

The trouble is *that I don't know Fanny personally*. The question is *why the decision on the suggested innovation is still delayed*. The difficulty seems *how we shall get in touch with the chief before the conference*. After all those years of travelling abroad, John has become *what you would call a man of will and experience*.

The predicative clause introduced by the conjunctions *as //*, *as though* has an adverbial force, which is easily shown by contrast:

She looks *as though she has never met him*. > She behaves *as though she has never met him*.

The predicative clause in a minimal complex sentence regularly expresses its rheme. Therefore there is an essential informative difference between the two functional uses of a categorially similar nominal clause: that of the predicative and that of the subject. Cf.:

The impression is *that he is quite competent*. *That he is quite competent* is the impression.

The second sentence (of an occasional status, with a sentences-stress on the link-verb), as different from the first, suggests an implication of a situational antithesis: the impression may be called in question, or it may be contrasted against another trait of the person not so agreeable as the one mentioned, etc.

The third type of clauses considered under the heading of clauses of primary nominal positions are object clauses.

The *object clause* denotes an object-situation of the process expressed by the verbal constituent of the principal clause.

The object position is a strong substantive position in the sentence. In terms of clausal relations it means that the substantivizing force of the genuine object-clause derivation is a strongly pronounced nominal clause-type derivation. This is revealed, in particular, by the fact that object clauses can be introduced not only non-preposition-ally, but also, if not so freely, prepositionally. Cf.:

They will accept with grace *whatever he may offer*. She stared *at what seemed a faded photo of Uncle Jo taken half a century before*. I am simply puzzled *by what you are telling me about the Carfairs*.

The semantic content of the object clause discriminates three types of backgrounds: first, an immediately substantive background; second, an adverbial background; third, an uncharacterized background of general event. This differentiation depends on the functional status of the clause-connector, that is on the sentence-part role it performs in the clause. Cf.:

We couldn't decide *whom we should address*. The friends couldn't decide *where they should spend their vacation*.

The object clause in (the first of the cited sentences is of a substantive background (*We should address - whom*), whereas the object clause in the second sentence is of adverbial-local background (*They should spend their vacation - where*).

The first object clause in the above two sentences is of substantive background, while the second one is of an adverbial-causal background.

Object clauses of general event background are introduced by conjunctions:

Now he could prove *that the many years he had spent away from home had not been in vain*.

The considered background features of subordinate clauses, certainly, refer to their inner status and therefore concern all the nominal clauses, not only object ones. But with object clauses they are of especial contrastive prominence, which is due to immediate dependence of the object clause on the valency of the introducing (subordinating) verb.

An extremely important set of clause-types usually included into the vast system of object clauses is formed by clauses presenting chunks of speech and mental-activity processes. These clauses are introduced by the verbs of speech and mental activity (*Lat. "verba sentiendi et delectandi"*), whose contextual content they actually expose. Cf.:

Who says *the yacht hasn't been properly prepared for the voyage!* She wondered *why on earth she was worrying so much, when obviously the time had come to end the incident and put it out of mind*.

“DESCRIPTIVE” ATTRIBUTIVE AND “RESTRICTIVE” ATTRIBUTIVE CLAUSES

Subordinate clauses of secondary nominal positions include attributive clauses of various syntactic functions. They fall into two major classes: "descriptive" attributive clauses and "restrictive" ("limiting") attributive clauses.

The descriptive attributive clause exposes some characteristic of the antecedent (i.e., its substantive referent) as such, while the restrictive attributive clause performs a purely identifying role, singling out the referent of the antecedent in the given situation.

Descriptive clauses, in their turn, distinguish two major subtypes: first, "ordinary" descriptive clauses; second, "continuative" descriptive clauses.

The ordinary descriptive attributive clause expresses various situational qualifications of nominal antecedents. The qualifications may present a constant situational feature or a temporary situational feature of different contextual relations and implications. Cf.:

It gave me a strange sensation to see a lit up window in a big house *that was not lived in*. He wore a blue shirt *the collar of which was open at the throat* They were playing such a game as *could only puzzle us*.

The continuative attributive clause presents a situation on an «equal domination basis with its principal clause, and so is attributive only in form, but not in meaning. It expresses a new predicative event (connected with the antecedent) which somehow continues the chain of situations reflected by the sentence as a whole. Cf.:

In turn, the girls came singly before Brett, *who frowned, blinked, bit his pencil, and scratched his head with it, getting no help from me audience*, who applauded each girl impartially and hooted at every swim suit, as if they could not see hundreds any day round the swimming pool (M. Dickens).

FOUR GROUPS OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

The whole system of adverbial clauses is to be divided into four groups.

The first group includes clauses of *time* and clauses of *place*. Their common semantic basis is to be defined as "localization" - respectively, temporal and spatial. Both types of clauses are subject to two major subdivisions, one concerning the local identification, the other concerning the range of functions.

The second group of adverbial clauses includes clauses of *manner* and *comparison*. The common semantic basis of their functions can be defined as "qualification", since they give a

qualification to the action or event rendered by the principal clause. The identification of these clauses can be achieved by applying the traditional question-transformation test of the *how-type*, with the corresponding variations of specifying character. Cf.:

He spent the Saturday night as *was his wont*. > How did he spend the Saturday night?
You talk to people as *if they were a group*. > How do you talk to people? I planned to give my mother a length of silk for a dress, as thick and heavy as *it was possible to buy*. > How thick and heavy the length of silk was intended to be?

All the adverbial qualification clauses are to be divided into "factual" and "speculative", depending on the real or unreal prepositional event described by them.

The third and most numerous group of adverbial clauses includes "classical" clauses of different *circumstantial semantics*, i.e. semantics connected with the meaning of the principal clause by various circumstantial associations; here belong clauses of *attendant event, condition, cause, reason, result (consequence), concession, purpose*. Thus, the common semantic basis of all these clauses can be defined as "circumstance". The whole group should be divided into two subgroups, the first being composed by clauses of "*attendant circumstance*"; the second, by clauses of "*Immediate circumstance*".

The fourth group of adverbial clauses is formed by *parenthetical* or *insertive* constructions. Parenthetical clauses, as has been stated elsewhere, are joined to the principal clause on a looser basis than the other adverbial clauses; still, they do form with the principal clause a syntactic sentential unity, which is easily proved by the procedure of diagnostic elimination. Cf.:

Jack has called here twice this morning, if I *am not mistaken*. > Jack has called here twice this morning.

Lecture 13. Compound sentences.

Outline

1. The characteristics of compound sentences.
2. "Leading" and "sequential" clauses of compound sentences.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

The compound sentence is a composite sentence built on the principle of coordination. Coordination, the same as subordination, can be expressed either syndetically or asyndetically.

The main semantic relations between the clauses connected coordinatively are copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causal, consequential, resultative. Similar semantic types of relations are to be found between independent, separate sentences forming a continual text.

Some *subordinate* clauses of a complex sentence can also be separated in the text, thus being changed into specific independent sentences. Cf.:

Suddenly Laura paused as *if she was arrested by something invisible from here*. > Suddenly Laura paused. *As if she was arrested by something invisible from here*.

"LEADING" AND "SEQUENTIAL" CLAUSES OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

The compound sentence is derived from two or more base sentences which, are connected on the principle of coordination either synthetically or asyndetically. The base sentences joined into one compound sentence lose their independent status and become coordinate clauses - parts of a composite unity. The first clause is "leading" (the "leader" clause), the successive clauses are "sequential".

The coordinating connectors, or coordinators, are divided into conjunctions proper and semi-functional clausal connectors of adverbial character. The main coordinating conjunctions, both simple and discontinuous, are: *and, but, or, nor, neither, for, either ... or, neither ... nor*, etc. The main adverbial coordinators are: *then, yet, so, thus, consequently, nevertheless, however*, etc. The adverbial coordinators, unlike pure conjunctions, as a rule can shift their position in the sentence (the exceptions are the connectors *yet* and *so*). Cf.: Mrs. Dyre stepped into the room,

however the host took no notice of it. > Mrs. Dyre stepped into the room, the host, *however*, took no notice of it.

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR. SEMINAR CLASSES.

Seminar Class № 1.

Theoretical Grammar in the systemic conception of language.

Outline.

1. Grammar as a linguistic discipline.
2. Theoretical and practical purposes of grammar.
3. The three constituent parts of language.
4. Hierarchy of levels within the system of language.
5. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in the system of language.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. *Аракин В.Д.* Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Л.: Просвещение, 1979. – 260 с. (любое издание)
2. *Блох М.Я.* Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М.: Высшая школа, 1997. 383 с. (или любое издание)
3. *Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г.* Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. М.: Высшая школа, 1981. 285 с.
4. *Ильинова Е.Ю.* Теоретическая грамматика английского языка: пространственное измерение и анализ. Волгоград: Изд-во ВолГУ, 2002. 162 с.

Seminar Class № 2.

The English Verb. The characteristic features of a grammatical category. Means of expressing grammatical meaning.

Outline.

1. The general categorial meaning of the verb.
2. The category of tense.
3. The problem of the Future and Future-in-the-Past
4. The category of voice.
5. Types of passive constructions.
6. Reasons for the frequent occurrence of the Passive in English.
7. The question of the number of voices.
8. Mood.
9. Aspect.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. *Аракин В.Д.* Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Л.: Просвещение, 1979. – 260 с. (любое издание)
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4. *Ильинова Е.Ю.* Теоретическая грамматика английского языка: пространственное измерение и анализ. Волгоград: Изд-во ВолГУ, 2002. 162 с.

Seminar Class № 3.

The Verb. The non-finite forms of verb.

Outline.

1. The general characteristics of non-finite forms.
2. The Infinitive.
3. The Gerund.
4. The Present Participle.
5. The Past Participle

Рекомендуемая литература

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Seminar Class № 4.

The category of number and the category of case of the Nouns.

Outline.

1. The absolute singular.
2. The absolute plural.
3. The theory of positional cases.
4. The theory of prepositional cases.
5. The limited case theory.
6. The theory of the possessive postposition

Рекомендуемая литература

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Seminar Class №5.

The Article. The category of adjectival comparison.

Outline.

1. The definite article
2. The indefinite article
3. The absence of the article.
4. The Adjective as a part of speech.
5. The functions of the adjective in the sentence.
6. Relative adjectives.
7. Qualitative adjectives.
8. Degrees of comparison.

Рекомендуемая литература

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Seminar Class № 7. Composite sentences.

Outline.

1. Communicative types of sentences.
2. Complex Sentences.
3. The principles of subordination.
4. Subject, predicative, object clauses.
5. “Descriptive” attributive and “restrictive” attributive clauses.
6. Four groups of adverbial clauses.
7. Compound Sentences.
8. The characteristics of compound sentences.
9. “Leading” and “Sequential” clauses of compound sentences.

Рекомендуемая литература

1. Аракин В.Д. Сравнительная типология английского и русского языков. Л.: Просвещение, 1979. – 260 с. (любое издание)
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TASKS FOR PRACTICAL CLASSES

Task 1. Write each word, putting a hyphen between its morphemes. Identify and characterize the morphemes:

- segment morphemes: the root morpheme, derivational affixes, inflexional affixes;
- non-segment morphemes: the zero morpheme, vowel interchange, stress shift.

Overcarefulness, activities, news, reviewed, unfortunately, stuck, unreliability, risen.

Task 2. How many lexemes are there in each line? How many word forms of each lexeme?

a. a building build built builder be building

b. jump has jumped will be jumping

c. fortunately unfortunately fortunate

Task 3. In the passage below, identify the class each word belongs to:

- lexical words (parts of speech proper) – a noun, a lexical verb, an adjective,
- an adverb, a pronoun or a numeral;
- function words – a preposition, a conjunction etc.; or
- words outside the sentence structure/ inserts, e.g. parenthetical elements.

A: Um can you get me a screw driver?

B: Where?

A: Uh well just bring my tool box.

B: Oh okay. Wow. Be careful. We're gonna have to take off the light fixture...

Do circuits run back there?

A: Yep.

B: Okay. Move this. You want me to take off this? Ouch!

A: you okay?

B: Yeah. I guess I should put on shoes.

Task 4. The following passage contains several nonsense words, which are underlined. Identify the word class of each made-up word. Briefly state what evidence you used to determine the word class.

Other reports have remanstroted an even chranger positive bitegration with plasma charestarob, which is the main cholesterol-carrying wisotrotein.

Task 5. Identify the type of the genitive in the sentences below.

1. *This follows his company's successful outdoor production of Shakespeare's A Midsummer Night's Dream in Saltburn's* Valley Gardens last summer.*

* Saltburn = a place in Scotland.

2. *Bank's net loss.*

Europe's richest indoor women's tennis tournament in Brighton is in danger of collapsing after Midland Bank yesterday withdrew their sponsorship.

Task 6. A. Do the genitive constructions below sound natural and correct? If they don't, why not?

B. Can you rephrase them using prepositional constructions?

1. *his parents' home*

2. *the demonstrators' crowd*

3. *Spain's inflation*

4. *a grapes' bunch*

5. *the government's denial of the need*

6. *a paper's sheet*

7. *a book's page*

8. *This was a good idea of Johnny's.*

9. *It's not my handwriting. It's Celina's.*

10. *the brutal child's murder*

11. *the bread's basket*

12. *two hours' sleep*

13. *socialism's future*

14. *the car's make*

15. *out of harm's way*

16. *these questions' kinds*

Task 7. Classify the following nouns as central or peripheral. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

energy, desk, living, person, rubbish, cake, friend, cow, Jane, honesty, jogging.

Task 8. 1) Underline each verb phrase in the sentences below. 2) What kind of verbs is it composed of?

– Determine whether each verb is finite or non-finite.

– Identify the type of the predicate.

– Is the main verb transitive, intransitive, or copular (linking)?

– Which verbal categories are formally marked in each verb?

1. *They had a nice chat.*

2. *Did you have to do it or were you given a choice?*

3. *I needn't have watered the plants. It rained soon after I did.*

4. *He turned on the light.*

5. *You look lovely.*

6. *People thought he might have been joking.*

7. *She started working for the company a year ago.*

8. *His knuckles go pale as he grips the door frame.*

9. *The moon rose red.*
10. *We shall be meeting with all parties in the near future.*

Task 9. Identify and characterize different kinds of verbs. Which categories do they realize?

1. *Varieties of crops should be cultivated which do not readily shatter.*
2. *She insisted that she pay her way.*
3. *I'd certainly tell you if I knew anything, but I don't.*
4. *I am not attempting to be evasive.*

Task 10. Classify the following –ed forms as part of a Passive Voice verb form or a predicative adjective. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. *We are delighted with the result.*
2. *I ought to be excited.*
3. *The silence was broken by the village crier.*
4. *The wire is always broken.*
5. *The problem was dealt with my developing a reference test.*
6. *He is well educated.*
7. *Those people got left behind in Vietnam.*
8. *She got terribly frightened.*
9. *Doherty was arrested in New York in June.*
10. *In two minutes, he was surrounded by a ring of men.*

Task 11. Classify the following adjectives as central or peripheral. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

Narrow, wrong, the rich, good, aware, residential, Scottish, alive, elect, charming, external, ethnic, the (very) young, insensitive, lone, awful, long, afraid, blue, unique, square, glass, impossible, big, mere, the unforgivable.

Task 12. The words below are syncretic elements. Which of their characteristics are adjectival, which are verbal and which are nominal ones?

The Japanese, the wounded, the beautiful, running (kids), selected (stories)

Task 13. Identify the semantic category of each of the adverbs in these sentences.

1. *Don't worry, he can't have gone far.*
2. *I almost believed it.*
3. *We should be extremely cautious.*
4. *He is dead serious all the time.*
5. *It's quite interesting.*
6. *She always eats the onion.*
7. *Automatically she backed away.*
8. *...her tears dropping hotly among the quietly flowing dead leaves.*

Task 14. Classify the underlined words as Adverbs, Prepositions or Conjunctions. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. *He walked past.*
2. *He walked past the house.*
3. *He took the dog in.*
4. *He took the dog in the house.*
5. *They've lived happily (ever) since.*
6. *They've lived happily since that day.*
7. *They've lived happily since they got married.*

Task 15. Identify the class of each pronoun below.

1. *What did he say?*
2. *Somebody tricked me.*
3. *I won't tell you how it ended.*
4. *Is this yours, or mine?*
5. *His house got broken into.*
6. *I taught myself.*
7. *I like those.*
8. *That's all I know.*
9. *He's the guy who told me about this.*
10. *They know each other pretty well.*

Task 16. Classify the underlined words as Numerals (Cardinal or Ordinal) or Nouns with numerical meaning. Briefly state what evidence you used to do so.

1. *I was doing my third week as a reporter.*
2. *I've read two thirds of the article.*
3. *Five is more than three.*
4. *They bought their little son a three-wheeler.*
5. *Damage is estimated at hundreds of millions of pounds.*
6. *Over two hundred people have been arrested.*
7. *Henry the 8th is said to have killed all his wives, isn't he?*
8. *You want bus 44.*

Task 17. Identify the lexical word class (part of speech) of the underlined words below. Briefly state what evidence you used to determine the word class.

- 1a. *I was flat on my back.*
- 1b. *I already told him to back off.*
- 2a. *It's pretty hard to do that.*
- 2b. *I felt like I was pretty.*
- 3a. *Actually, it's fun to horse around with danger.*
- 3b. *He is quite handy on a horse.*
- 4a. *The price was coming down all the time.*
- 4b. *The coming weekend is relatively quiet.*

Task 18. Each of the orthographic words below can belong to at least three different word classes. Use each word below in a sentence of your own to illustrate how it is used in different word classes, and indicate the class.

before early inside this like

REPORTS

1. Distributional model and Distributional analysis of the sentence structure.
2. Immediate Constituents analysis.
3. Transformational model (and analysis).
4. The morphemic analysis of the word. Types of morph (free, bound).
5. The morpheme. The structure of the word.
6. Types of affixes.
7. Ways of inflection in English (synthetic and analytical).
8. Charles Fries's classes of words.
9. Khlebnikova's distributional analysis.
10. Fries's distributional model of the sentence.
11. Noam Chomsky's transformational model.
12. The main problems of Syntax. Sentence models.
13. Sentence as the main communicative unit (different approaches).
14. Specific features of the English sentence (approaches to the analysis of the sentence structure).

CONTROL MODULE TEST 1.

1. Grammar as a linguistic discipline.
2. Theoretical and practical purposes of grammar.
3. The three constituent parts of language.
4. Hierarchy of levels within the system of language.
5. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations in the system of language.
6. The general categorial meaning of the verb.
7. The category of tense.
8. The problem of the Future and Future-in-the-Past
9. The category of voice.
10. Types of passive constructions.
11. Reasons for the frequent occurrence of the Passive in English.
12. The question of the number of voices.
13. Mood.
14. Aspect.
15. The general characteristics of non-finite forms.
16. The Infinitive.
17. The Gerund.
18. The Present Participle.
19. The Past Participle
20. Types of form-building means.

CONTROL MODULE TEST 2.

1. The absolute singular.
2. The absolute plural.
3. The theory of positional cases.
4. The theory of prepositional cases.
5. The limited case theory.
6. The theory of the possessive postposition
7. The definite article
8. The indefinite article
9. The absence of the article
10. The Adjective as a part of speech.
11. The functions of the adjective in the sentence.
12. Relative adjectives.
13. Qualitative adjectives.
14. Degrees of comparison.
15. Communicative types of sentences.
16. Complex Sentences: the principles of subordination, subject, predicative, object clauses.
17. Complex Sentences: “descriptive” attributive and “restrictive” attributive clauses, four groups of adverbial clauses.
18. The characteristics of compound sentences.
19. “Leading” and “Sequential” clauses of compound sentences.
20. Sentence as the main object of syntax. Some grammatical properties of the sentence.

SAMPLE PARSE PROPOSALS

I have already told you of the sickness and confusion that comes with time travelling.

1. This is a complex declarative sentence which consists of the main clause and the subordinate clause connected with the subordinating conjunction “that”.

2. The main clause is: “I have already told you of the sickness and confusion”;

3. “I” is the subject expressed by personal pronoun in the singular form, the first person, Nominative case;

“have told” is a simple predicate expressed by the analytical form of the verb. It consists of the auxiliary “have” and the Participle 2 of the main verb derived from the verb “to tell”. The whole analytical form shows the Present Perfect Tense, Active Voice, Indicative Mood;

“you” is indirect object expressed by personal pronoun in the plural form, the 2nd person, objective case;

“sickness and confusion” is prepositional indirect object expressed by two nouns connected with coordinative conjunction “and”. The nouns are in the singular form, Common case.

15. The subordinate attributive clause is: “that comes with time traveling”;

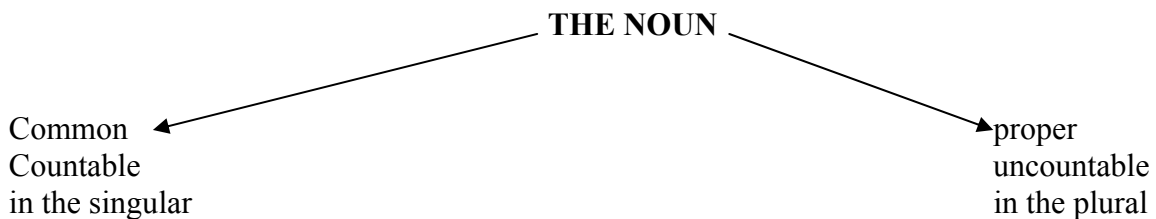
“that” is a subordinate conjunction;

“comes” is a simple predicate expressed by the notional verb “to come”. It is in the 3rd person singular form, the Present Simple Tense, Active Voice, Indicative Mood;

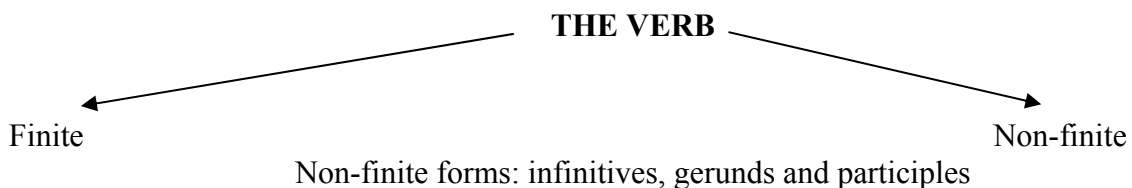
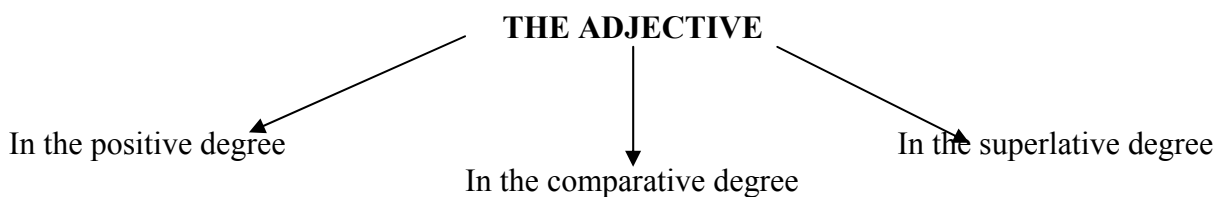
“with travelling” is indirect prepositional object expressed by a noun in the Common case, singular form;

“time” is an attribute expressed by an adjective.

SENTENCE ANALYSIS



Ex. *Boy's* - it is a common countable noun in the singular modified by the possessive



Finite forms differentiate:

- 1) the category of tense (past, present, future, future-in- the Past)
- 2) the category of aspect (continuous, non-continuous)
- 3) the category of voice (active, passive)

- 4) the category of perfect, non-perfect)
- 5) the category of mood.

The Infinitive have 6 forms. Gerund and participles — 4 forms.

THE PRONOUN

1. **Personal**
 - in the nominative case
(I, you, he, she, it, we, they)
 - in the objective case
(me, you, him, her, it, us, them)
2. **Possessive**
 - In the conjoint form (согласованная форма)
(my, her, his, our, their, your)
 - In the absolute form (mine, yours, hers, his, ours)

3. **Demonstrative** - *this, that, these, those*

4. **Indefinite – personal** - *somebody, some..., any, every..., either, each, all*

5. **Negative** – *no, no..., neither*

6. **Interrogative** - *who, whom, what, who*

7. **Relative** – *who, whom, whose, which*

8. **Reciprocal** — *each other, one another*

9. **Reflexive** – *myself, herself*

THE NUMERAL

Cardinal (one, two) ←

Ordinal (first, second) →

THE CONJUNCTION
THE PARTICLE
THE PREPOSITION
THE ARTICLE
THE INTERJECTION

Методические рекомендации к выполнению самостоятельной работы

Предлагаемые материалы призваны помочь в организации самостоятельной работы студентов по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика английского языка» направления подготовки 6.020303 «Филология. Английский язык и литература»

При выполнении СРС решаются следующие задачи:

- 1) систематизация знаний теоретического курса;
- 2) ознакомление с нерешенными проблемами по теории языка;
- 3) формирование углубленного представления о современных тенденциях развития теоретической грамматики.

Требования к профессиональной подготовке выпускников филологических факультетов подтверждают актуальность и значимость СРС:

- знать порядок использования реферативных, периодических и справочно-информационных изданий по теме;
- уметь кратко, логически и аргументированно излагать материал;
- иметь опыт составления рефератов;
- уметь систематизировать и обобщать информацию по вопросам профессиональной деятельности,
- реферировать, рецензировать тексты.

Выполнение СРС осуществляется в форме внеаудиторной работы студента без участия преподавателя, то есть без непосредственной обратной связи. Корректирующие, контролирующие и оценивающие действия преподавателя предполагаются во время специально отведенных и особым образом организованных аудиторных часов, позволяющих контролировать самостоятельную работу.

Указанные темы для самостоятельной работы охватывают значительный круг проблем, связанных с углубленным усвоением программного материала. Задачи учитывают возможное использование материалов лекционного курса, практических занятий по дисциплине.

Методические рекомендации к выполнению самостоятельной работы студентов:

Для того, чтобы правильно выполнить задание I, необходимо усвоить следующие темы:

1. Grammar in the systemic conception of language.
2. Hierarchy of levels within the system of language.
3. Types of form-building means.
4. Verb.
5. The Infinitive.

Задание I. Read the statements and mark them as right or wrong.

Statements

Yes

No

- 1.. Language incorporates two constituent parts.
2. The aim of theoretical grammar is to give a theoretical description of the grammatical system of a given language.
3. Syntagmatic relations are intrasystemic relations which find their expression in the fact that each linguistic unit is included in a set of similar units with common formal and functional properties.
4. The scheme of the hierarchy of levels is as follows:
Supraphrasal unit – text – proposemic level – phrasemic level – lexemic level – morphemic level –phonemic level .

5. There are two types of the synthetic form-building means:
 - affixation
 - sound interchange (morphological alteration).
6. The number of grammatical suffixes is 8 .
7. In suppletive forms there is a complete change of the phonetic shape of the root.
8. The root of a notional word is included in the discontinuous morpheme (HAVE + -en ; BE + -ing).
9. The general categorial meaning of the verb is process presented dynamically, developing in time.
10. In the sentence the finite verb invariably performs the function of the predicative
11. All the lexical expressions of time are divided into present-oriented (absolutive) and non-present-oriented (non-absolutive) expressions of time.
12. The non-absolutive time denotation does not characterize an event in terms of orientation towards the present. This kind of denotation may be either relative or factual.
13. If the subject of a sentence is the agent of the action, or, the action comes from it, we speak of the Passive Voice. If the subject of a sentence is the recipient of the action, or, the action is directed upon it, we speak of the Active Voice.
14. According to the number of elements in a passive construction, the latter can be divided into:
 1. a two-member passive construction
 2. a three-member passive construction
15. The infinitive is used in three fundamentally different types of functions: as a notional, self-positional syntactic part of the sentence, as the notional constituent of a complex verbal predicate built up around a predicator verb, as the notional constituent of a finite conjugation of the verb.

Прежде, чем выполнять задание II, повторите образование времен групп Perfect, Continuous та Perfect–Continuous.

Задание II. Verbal phrase. Convert each of the following into a sentence by transforming the abstract representation of its verb phrase into an actual verb phrase.

Ex. No one + present + HAVE + {-en} + telephone = No one has telephoned

1. The doctor + past + HAVE + {-en} + BE + {-ing} + wait + in his office.
2. Mrs. Carson + present + must + HAVE + {-en} + leave + this message.
3. The plane + present + will + BE + {-ing} + land + soon after midnight .
4. George + past + BE + {-ing} + prune + the roses in my backyard.
5. Carol + past + can + BE + {-ing} + speak.
6. Carol + present + must + HAVE + {-en} + BE + {-ing} + speak.
7. The things + past + have + {-en} + BE + {-ing} + go from bad to worse.
8. John + present + must + HAVE + {-en} + BE + {-ing} + wait for two hours.

РЕКОМЕНДОВАНА ЛИТЕРАТУРА

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THEORETICAL GRAMMAR EXAM

QUESTIONS:

1. Language and its grammar.
2. Morphemic structure of the word.
3. Grammatical categories.
4. Parts of speech.
5. Noun, grammatically relevant groups of the noun, categories
6. of gender and number.
7. Categories of case and article determination of the noun.
8. Verb, grammatically relevant groups of the verb, non-finite forms of the verb.
9. Verbal categories of person and number, tense and aspect.
10. Verbal categories of voice and mood.
11. Adjective and adverb.
12. Syntax of the phrase.
13. Syntax of the sentence. Nominative division of the sentence.
14. Actual division of the sentence. Communicative types of sentences.
15. Composite sentence.
16. Semi-composite sentence.

ASSIGNMENTS

1. Comment on the means of semantico-syntactic cohesion in the following supra-sentential construction...
2. Transform the following base sentence according to the predicative categories, comment on the transformations...
3. Comment on the communicative type of the following sentences...
4. Characterize the following word-combinations...
5. State what grammatically relevant groups the following adjectives belong to, both semantically and functionally...
6. Describe the realization of the following categories...
7. Give your own examples of transposition and neutralization of paradigmatic oppositions (both morphological and syntactical).
8. Identify the meaning of the genitive in the following word-combinations...
9. Comment on the non-finite forms of the verbs...
10. Make a sentence with the verb "... " and use it in all the possible Subjunctive Moods. Comment on the functional meaning and the form of the verb in all the examples.
11. State, what grammatically relevant groups the following verbs belong to...
12. State, what grammatically relevant groups the following nouns belong to...
13. Comment on the grammatical forms of the words...
14. Comment on the following grammatical categories...
15. Comment on the morphemic structure of the words, using the IC-analysis...

THEORETICAL GRAMMAR TESTS

ТЕМА № 1: ЯЗЫК И ГРАММАТИКА. СИСТЕМНЫЙ ПОДХОД	TOPIC № 1: LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR. SYSTEMIC APPROACH
<p>1. Основоположителем системного подхода в лингвистике считается: А. Фердинанд де Соссюр В. Н. Хомский С. Л. Ельмслев</p> <p>2. Язык в узком понимании термина означает: А. «деятельностную» сторону языка, непосредственно связанную с процессом производства, передачи и получения речи В. стоящую за этим процессом языковую систему; систему специальных языковых единиц</p>	<p>1. The founder of the systemic approach in linguistics is: A. Ferdinand de Saussure B. N. Chomsky C. L. Hjelmslev</p> <p>2. Language in the narrow sense of the term ('langue') is: A. an 'executive' side of the language, concerned with the production, transmission, and reception of speech; the use of lingual units B. an underlying language system; the system of special lingual units</p>
<p>3. Распределите перечисленные языковые явления по двум спискам – А. сегментные языковые единицы; В. сверхсегментные языковые единицы: <i>морфема, порядок слов, фонема, интонационный рисунок, словарное ударение, предложение</i> А. _____ В. _____</p>	<p>3. Arrange the following lingual phenomena in two lists – A. segmental lingual units; B. supra-segmental lingual units: Morpheme, word-order, phoneme, intonation pattern, word stress, sentence А. _____ В. _____</p>
<p>4. Какие два из перечисленных сегментных уровней языковой системы являются основными, определяющими? А. уровень фонем В. уровень морфем С. уровень слов D. уровень словосочетаний E. уровень предложений F. уровень текста (объединений самостоятельных предложений)</p> <p>5. Какой из перечисленных уровней языковой системы является факультативным? А. уровень фонем В. уровень морфем С. уровень слов D. уровень словосочетаний</p>	<p>4. What two lingual levels are the most important ones? А. the level of phonemes В. the level of morphemes С. the level of words D. the level of word-combinations E. the levels of sentences F. the level of text (supra-sentential constructions)</p> <p>5. Which of the segmental levels of the system of language is optional? А. the level of phonemes В. the level of morphemes С. the level of words D. the level of word-combinations E. the levels of sentences F. the level of text (supra-sentential constructions)</p>

<p>Е. уровень предложений F. уровень текста (объединений самостоятельных предложений)</p>	
<p>6. Какой из перечисленных типов отношений между языковыми единицами Ф. де Соссюр называл «ассоциативными»? А. синтагматические В. парадигматические</p> <p>7. Какой из перечисленных типов отношений между языковыми единицами называется в латинской терминологии отношений “in praesentia”? А. синтагматические В. парадигматические</p>	<p>6. Which type of relations between lingual units did Ferdinand de Saussure call “associative relations”? А. syntagmatic relations В. paradigmatic relations</p> <p>7. Which type of relations between lingual units is defined in Latin as relations “in praesentia”? А. syntagmatic relations В. paradigmatic relations</p>
<p>8. Когда две или более единиц плана выражений соотносятся с одной единицей плана содержания, подобные отношения называются: А. омонимия В. синонимия</p> <p>9. Грамматический суффикс <i>-(e)s</i> передает следующие значения: 3-е лицо ед. число глагола, родительный падеж существительного, множественное число существительного, ср.: <i>breaks, bird’s, birds</i>. Это отношения: А. грамматической омонимии В. грамматической синонимии</p>	<p>8. When two or more units of the plane of expression correspond to one unit of the plane of content, it’s a case of: А. homonymy В. synonymy</p> <p>9. The grammatical suffix <i>-(e)s</i> in different contexts renders the meaning of 3d person singular form of the verb, possessive case of the noun, plural of the noun: <i>breaks, bird’s, birds</i>. It’s a case of: А. grammatical homonymy В. grammatical synonymy</p>
<p>ТЕМА № 2: МОРФЕМНАЯ СТРУКТУРА СЛОВА</p>	<p>TOPIC №2: MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE WORD</p>
<p>1. Значение морфемы можно определить как: А. номинативное В. сигнификативное, отвлеченное</p>	<p>1. The meaning of the morpheme is: А. nominative В. significative, vague</p>
<p>2. Какой из перечисленных типов аффиксов в английском языке выполняет только лексическую, деривационную функцию (функцию словообразования)? А. префикс</p>	<p>2. Affixes of which type can function only as lexical (derivative, or word-building) affixes? А. prefix</p>

<p>В. суффикс С. инфикс</p>	<p>B. suffix C. infix</p>
<p>3. Суффикс <i>-ed</i> в глаголе <i>'decided'</i> (например, <i>'he decided to stay'</i>) является: А. лексическим В. грамматическим</p> <p>4. Суффикс <i>-ed</i> в прилагательном <i>'relaxed'</i> (например, <i>'relaxed atmosphere'</i>) является: А. лексическим В. грамматическим</p>	<p>3. Suffix <i>-ed</i> in the verb <i>'decided'</i> (as in <i>'he decided to stay'</i>) is: A. lexical B. grammatical</p> <p>4. Suffix <i>-ed</i> in the adjective <i>'relaxed'</i> (as in <i>'relaxed atmosphere'</i>) is: A. lexical B. grammatical</p>
<p>5. Алломорфы (варианты) одной морфемы выявляются в: А. контрастной дистрибуции В. неконтрастной дистрибуции С. дополнительной дистрибуции</p> <p>6. В каком из перечисленных ниже слов <i>-s</i> не является алломорфом одной и той же морфемы? <i>speaks, dreams, phonetics, washes</i></p>	<p>5. Allo-morphs (variants) of the same morpheme are distinguished in: A. contrastive distribution B. non-contrastive distribution C. complementary distribution</p> <p>6. In which of the following words <i>-s</i> is not the allo-morph of the same morpheme? <i>speaks, dreams, phonetics, washes</i></p>
<p>7. Лексическая морфема <i>-ment</i> является: А. свободной В. связанной</p> <p>8. Нулевая морфема также называется: А. открытой В. скрытой</p> <p>9. В слове <i>'worked'</i> используется: А. аддитивная аффиксация В. субституционная аффиксация</p>	<p>7. The lexical morpheme <i>-ment</i> is: A. free B. bound</p> <p>8. 'Zero' morpheme is: A. overt B. covert</p> <p>9. In the word <i>'worked'</i> affixation is: A. additive B. replacive</p>

ТЕМА № 3: ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЕ КАТЕГОРИИ	TOPIC № 3: GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES
<p>1. Преобладающим типом грамматических оппозиций в английском языке являются</p> <p>A. эквиполентные оппозиции B. градуальные оппозиции C. привативные оппозиции</p> <p>2. Член оппозиции, формально маркированный наличием некоторого дифференциального признака, называется:</p> <p>A. сильным (положительным) членом оппозиции B. слабым (отрицательным) членом оппозиции</p> <p>3. В оппозиции по категории падежа (<i>girl – girl’s</i>) форма родительного падежа является</p> <p>A. сильным (положительным) членом оппозиции B. слабым (отрицательным) членом оппозиции</p>	<p>1. The prevalent type of opposition in English grammar is:</p> <p>A. equipotent B. gradual C. privative</p> <p>2. The member of the opposition, which is formally marked by the presence of a certain differential feature is defined as:</p> <p>A. a strong (positive) member of the opposition B. a weak (negative) member of the opposition</p> <p>3. In the category of case opposition (<i>girl – girl’s</i>) the form of the genitive is:</p> <p>A. the strong (positive) member of the opposition B. the weak (negative) member of the opposition</p>
<p>4. Объедините следующие языковые единицы в три группы: A. синтетические грамматические формы; B. аналитические грамматические формы; C. свободные словосочетания:</p> <p><i>stays, is ill, will grow, have arranged, geese, has nothing, was arrested</i></p> <p>A. _____ B. _____ C. _____</p>	<p>4. Arrange the following lingual units into three sets: A. synthetical grammatical forms; B. analytical grammatical forms; C. free word-combinations:</p> <p><i>stays, is ill, will grow, have arranged, geese, has nothing, was arrested</i></p> <p>A. _____ B. _____ C. _____</p>
<p>5. С точки зрения семантики слабый член оппозиции:</p> <p>A. является более общим и абстрактным и используется в более широком диапазоне контекстов; B. является более конкретным, используется в более узком диапазоне контекстов</p>	<p>5. Semantically the weak member of the opposition is:</p> <p>A. more general and more abstract, used in a wider range of contexts B. more particular and concrete, used in a narrower range of contexts</p>
<p>6. Случаи, когда один член оппозиции заменяет в определенных контекстных условиях другой и использование грамматической формы</p>	<p>6. Cases when one member of the opposition substitutes another and the use of the grammatical form is stylistically marked, when it preserves to a certain extent</p>

<p>стилистически маркировано, когда она до определенной степени сохраняет свое исходное грамматическое значение и одновременно приобретает значение противочлена, называются:</p> <p>A. нейтрализацией B. транспозицией</p> <p>7. Определите тип контекстной редукации оппозиции в следующем предложении: <i>The dog was tamed by man a long time ago.</i> A. нейтрализация B. транспозиция</p> <p>8. Определите тип контекстной редукации оппозиции в следующем словосочетании: <i>the blue skies of Italy.</i> A. нейтрализация B. транспозиция</p>	<p>its original functional meaning alongside the meaning of its counter-part, is defined as:</p> <p>A. neutralization B. transposition</p> <p>7. Define the type of contextual oppositional reduction in the sentence: <i>The dog was tamed by man a long time ago.</i> C. neutralization D. transposition</p> <p>8. Define the type of contextual oppositional reduction in the word-combination: <i>the blue skies of Italy.</i> E. neutralization F. transposition</p>
<p>9. Дайте характеристику грамматической категории числа существительных в английском языке:</p> <p>a) A. собственная, имманентная; B. отраженная, рефлексивная; b) A. замкнутая; B. переходящая, трансгрессивная; c) A. категория постоянного признака; B. категория переменного признака</p>	<p>9. Characterize the category of number of English nouns:</p> <p>c) A. immanent; B. reflective; d) A. closed; B. transgressive; e) A. constant feature category; B. variable feature category</p>
<p>ТЕМА № 4: ЧАСТИ РЕЧИ, ИЛИ ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЕ КЛАССЫ СЛОВ</p>	<p>TOPIC № 4: PARTS OF SPEECH, OR GRAMMATICAL CLASSES OF WORDS</p>
<p>1. Перечислите три типа грамматически существенных свойств слов, которые являются критериями классификации слов по частям речи:</p> <p>a) b) c)</p>	<p>1. Name the three types of grammatically relevant properties of the words that help differentiate classes of words called "parts of speech":</p> <p>a) b) c)</p>
<p>2. Традиционная классификация частей речи является:</p> <p>A. гомогенной (монодифференциальной, основанной на одном критерии) B. гетерогенной (полидифференциальной, основанной на сочетании нескольких критериев)</p>	<p>2. Traditional parts of speech classification is:</p> <p>A. homogeneous (monodifferential, based on one criterion) heterogeneous (polydifferential, based on a combination of criteria)</p>
<p>3. Местоимения и числительные в традиционной классификации частей речи относятся к:</p>	<p>3. Pronouns and numerals in the traditional parts of speech classification belong to:</p>

<p>A. знаменательным частям речи B. служебным частям речи</p>	<p>A. notional parts of speech B. functional parts of speech</p>
<p>4. В основу классификации частей речи Ч. Фриза положен: A. семантический критерий B. критерий морфологической изменяемости/неизменяемости слов C. синтактико-дистрибутивный критерий</p>	<p>4. The parts of speech classification by Ch. Fries is based on: A. semantic criterion B. changeability/unchangeability of words C. syntactico-distributional criterion</p>
<p>5. Знаменательные части речи являются: A. открытыми классами слов B. закрытыми классами слов</p> <p>6. К какому из сверх-классов, согласно классификации проф. М.Я. Блоха, относятся местоимения и числительные: A. знаменательные части речи B. служебные части речи C. заместительные части речи</p>	<p>5. Notional parts of speech are: A. open classes of words B. closed classes of words</p> <p>6. Which supra-class do pronouns and numerals belong to, according to Prof. Blokh's classification: A. notional parts of speech B. functional parts of speech C. substitutional parts of speech</p>
<p>7. Согласно полевой теории частей речи Г.С. Щура и В.Г. Адмони неличные формы глагола относятся к: A. ядру класса глаголов B. периферии класса глаголов</p>	<p>7. In the "field theory of parts of speech" the non-finite forms of the verb belong to: A. the core of the class of the verb B. the periphery of the class of the verb</p>
<p>СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНОЕ</p>	<p>NOUN</p>
<p>1. Существительное обладает наибольшей «...» среди всех частей речи. 2. Существительное является единственной частью речи, способной сочетаться с: A. наречиями B. предлогами C. постпозитивными частицами 3. Какие из перечисленных синтаксических функций не может выполнять существительное в английском языке? A. подлежащее C. определение B. сказуемое D. дополнение 4. Охарактеризуйте существительное <i>cat</i> в соответствии со следующими грамматически релевантными разбиениями: A. а) собственное; б) нарицательное B. а) одушевленное; б)неодушевленное</p>	<p>1. Noun has the strongest "...” among the parts of speech. 2. Noun is the only notional part of speech which can be combined with: A. adverbs B. prepositions C. postpositional particles 3. Which of the syntactic functions is not fulfilled by the noun in English? A. subject B. predicate C. attribute D. object 4. Describe the noun <i>cat</i> according to the following characteristics: A. а) proper; б) common B. а) animate; б) inanimate C. а) human; б) non-human</p>

<p>C. а) личностное; б) неличностное D. а) исчисляемое; б) неисчисляемое</p>	<p>D. а) countable; б) uncountable</p>
<p>5. Категория рода в английском языке является: A. формальной В. значимой</p> <p>6. Для большинства существительных в английском языке категория рода является категорией: A. постоянного признака В. переменного признака</p> <p>7. Распределите следующие существительные по родам - <i>teacher, smoke, landlord, hostess</i>. A. существительное женского рода - ... B. существительное среднего рода - ... C. существительное общего рода - ... D. существительное мужского рода - ...</p> <p>8. Транспозиция по категории рода, т.е. использование существительных среднего рода с местоимениями женского или мужского рода (<i>vessel – she</i>), известна как стилистический прием «...».</p> <p>9. Личные местоимения в английском языке выступают как ... существительных.</p>	<p>5. The category of gender in English is: A. formal B. meaningful</p> <p>6. For the bulk of English nouns the category of gender is: A. a constant feature category B. a variable feature category</p> <p>7. Define the gender characteristics of the following nouns - <i>teacher, smoke, landlord, hostess</i>. A. feminine - B. neuter gender - C. common gender - D. masculine -</p> <p>8. Transpositional reduction of the category of gender, i.e. the use of the neuter gender nouns with feminine or masculine pronouns (<i>vessel – she</i>), is known as a special stylistic device of “...”.</p> <p>9. Personal pronouns in English function as of the nouns.</p>
<p>10. Для большинства существительных в английском языке категория числа является: A. категорией постоянного признака B. категорией переменного признака</p> <p>11. Распределите следующие существительные по группам: <i>news, car, shorts, salt, man, cattle</i>. A. существительные группы Singularia Tantum: _____ B. существительные группы Pluralia Tantum: _____ C. исчисляемые существительные: _____</p>	<p>10. For the bulk of English nouns the category of number is: A. a constant feature category B. a variable feature category</p> <p>11. Define the number category characteristics of the following nouns - <i>news, car, shorts, salt, man, cattle</i>. A. Singularia Tantum nouns - B. Pluralia Tantum nouns - C. regular countable nouns -</p>
<p>12. Наиболее принятой теорией падежа в английском языке является: A. «теория позиционных падежей» B. « теория препозиционных падежей» C. «теория притяжательного постпозитива» D. «теория ограниченного падежа»</p> <p>13. Трансформируйте те словосочетания, которые возможно, в словосочетания с генетивом (e.g.: <i>operation of my friend → my friend’s operation</i>):</p>	<p>12. The most widely accepted theory of the category of case in English is: A. “the theory of positional cases” B. “the theory of prepositional cases” C. “ the theory of possessive postpositive” D. “ the theory of limited case”</p> <p>13. Transform the following word combinations, if possible, into word combinations with the genitive: (e.g.: <i>operation of my friend → my friend’s operation</i>):</p>

<p><i>the problem of unemployment, the article written by Tom, coats for men, a distance of one mile, the leg of a table</i></p> <p>14. Распределите следующие словосочетания в соответствии со значением родительного падежа существительного: <i>three hours' walk, my father's coat, a new women's shop, Ms. Flom's contribution.</i></p> <p>A. со значением принадлежности - _____</p> <p>B. со значением качества - _____</p>	<p><i>the problem of unemployment, the article written by Tom, coats for men, a distance of one mile, the leg of a table</i></p> <p>14. Define the semantic types of the genitive in the following word-combinations: <i>three hours' walk, my father's coat, a new women's shop, Ms. Flom's contribution.</i></p> <p>A. denoting possession -</p> <p>B. denoting qualification -</p>
<p>15. Артикли, вместе с другими (лексическими) детерминативами, участвуют в выражении семантической категории «.../.../...».</p> <p>16. Сочетание «артикли+существительное» представляет собой:</p> <p>A. словосочетание</p> <p>B. аналитическую форму существительного</p> <p>C. сочетание особого, промежуточного статуса между морфологической формой существительного и словосочетанием</p> <p>17. Какое из следующих высказываний верно?</p> <p>A. ситуативные правила использования артиклей в английском языке соответствуют их обобщенной семантике</p> <p>B. ситуативные правила использования артиклей в английском языке не соответствуют их обобщенной семантике</p> <p>C. часть ситуативных правил использования артиклей в английском языке не соответствуют их обобщенной семантике</p>	<p>15. Articles and other (lexical) determiners express the category of “.../.../...”.</p> <p>16. The combination of an article with a noun is:</p> <p>A. a word-combination</p> <p>B. an analytical form of the noun</p> <p>C. a combination of a specific intermediary status between the morphological form of the noun and the word-combination</p> <p>17. Which of the following statements is true?</p> <p>A. the situational rules of the articles use comply with their generalized semantics</p> <p>B. the situational rules of the articles use do not comply with their generalized semantics</p> <p>C. some situational rules of the articles use do not comply with their generalized semantics</p>
<p>ГЛАГОЛ</p>	<p>VERB</p>
<p>1. Глагол <i>to have</i> в английском языке не может функционировать как:</p> <p>A. полнозначный глагол</p> <p>B. служебный вспомогательный глагол</p> <p>C. полу-служебный связочный глагол</p> <p>D. полу-служебный модальный глагол</p> <p>2. Распределите нижеприведенные глаголы по их обобщенной семантике (отношения между субъектом и процессом): <i>arrive, worry, smell, make, neglect, listen, walk, taste, be, support, hear</i></p> <p>A. акциональные глаголы - _____</p> <p>B. статальные глаголы - _____</p> <p>C. глаголы процессуальной семантики - _____</p> <p>D. глаголы двойной (акциональной и неакциональной) семантики - _____</p> <p>3. Распределите следующие глаголы по аспектному значению:</p>	<p>1. The verb <i>to have</i> in English cannot function as:</p> <p>A. a notional verb</p> <p>B. a semi-functional link verb</p> <p>C. a semi-functional modal verb</p> <p>2. Define the general relational semantics type (according to the relations between the subject and the process) of the following verbs: <i>arrive, worry, smell, make, neglect, listen, walk, taste, be, support, hear</i></p> <p>A. actional verbs - _____</p> <p>B. statal verbs - _____</p> <p>C. the verbs of double (actional and statal) relational semantics - _____</p> <p>3. Define the aspective semantics type of the following verbs: <i>to sleep, to leave, to work, to build, to feel, to sell</i></p> <p>A. limitive verbs - _____</p> <p>B. unlimitive verbs - _____</p>

<p><i>to sleep, to leave, to work, to build, to feel, to sell</i></p> <p>A. предельные глаголы - _____</p> <p>B. непредельные глаголы - _____</p> <p>C. глаголы с двойным (предельным и непредельным) аспектным значением - _____</p> <p>4. Глаголы типа <i>to look at (to talk about, to laugh at, to frown at, to take care of, etc.)</i> относятся к группе:</p> <p>A. переходных глаголов</p> <p>B. непереходных глаголов</p> <p>C. псевдо-переходных глаголов</p>	<p>C. verbs with double (limitive and unlimitive) aspective meaning - _____</p> <p>4. The verbs типа <i>to look at (to talk about, to laugh at, to frown at, to take care of, etc.)</i> are:</p> <p>A. transitive</p> <p>B. intransitive</p> <p>C. pseudo-transitive</p>
<p>5. Неличные формы глагола не могут выполнять синтаксические функции:</p> <p>A. обстоятельства</p> <p>B. сказуемого</p> <p>C. дополнения</p> <p>D. подлежащего</p> <p>E. определения</p> <p>F. вводного члена предложения</p> <p>6. Распределите следующие глагольные признаки по их наличию/отсутствию у неличных форм глагола в английском языке:</p> <p>a) процессуальная семантика, b) категория лица и числа, c) категория времени, d) категория вида, e) категория залога, f) категория наклонения, g) способность управлять прямым дополнением</p> <p>A. отсутствуют у неличных форм глагола: _____</p> <p>B. наличествуют у неличных форм глагола: _____</p> <p>7. Глагольные свойства со свойствами прилагательных и наречий объединяются в следующих неличных формах глагола:</p> <p>A. инфинитив</p> <p>B. герундий</p> <p>C. причастие I и II</p> <p>8. По количеству субстантивных признаков ближе к существительному:</p> <p>A. герундий B. инфинитив</p> <p>9. В каком из приведенных ниже предложений «-ing» форма глагола является:</p> <p>A. герундием - _____</p> <p>B. причастием I - _____</p> <p>C. отглагольным существительным - _____</p> <p>a) <i>That would mean telling him everything. b) She turned around, smiling. c) When</i></p>	<p>5. The verbids cannot function as:</p> <p>A. an adverbial modifier</p> <p>B. a predicate</p> <p>C. an object</p> <p>D. a subject</p> <p>E. a parenthesis</p> <p>6. State which verbal features the verbids possess/ lack:</p> <p>a) processual semantics, b) category of person and number, c) category of tense, d) category of aspect, e) category of voice, f) category of mood, g) combinability with a direct object</p> <p>A. the verbids lack: _____</p> <p>B. the verbids have: _____</p> <p>7. Verbal features are combined with the features of the adjectives and the adverbs in:</p> <p>A. the infinitive</p> <p>B. the gerund</p> <p>C. participles I and II</p> <p>8. Closer to the noun in the amount of substantive properties is:</p> <p>A. the Gerund B. the Infinitive</p> <p>9. In which sentences below is the ‘-ing’ form:</p> <p>A. the Gerund - _____</p> <p>B. Participle I - _____</p> <p>C. the verbal noun - _____</p> <p>a) <i>That would mean telling him everything. b) She turned around, smiling. c) When speaking to me, she fumbled with the keys. d) Her fumbling with the keys irritated me. e) The happy ending was unexpected.</i></p>

<p><i>speaking to me, she fumbled with the keys. d) Her fumbling with the keys irritated me. e) The happy ending was unexpected.</i></p>	
<p>10. Категория числа и лица является единственной категорией «... (...)» в современном английском языке.</p>	<p>10. The category of person and number is the only category of “... (...)” in modern English.</p>
<p>11. Исторически позже других в английском языке развились глагольные формы: A. прошедшего времени B. настоящего времени C. будущего времени 12. Временные формы глаголов в английском языке передают: A. только значения абсолютного времени B. только значения относительного времени C. значения абсолютного и относительного времени 13. Формы historic present (e.g.: <i>Suddenly John comes in and says...</i>) представляют собой: A. нейтрализацию оппозиции по категории времени I B. транспозицию оппозиции по категории времени I 14. Модальный оттенок значения присущ глагольным формам: A. прошедшего времени B. настоящего времени C. будущего времени</p>	<p>11. The following tense forms appeared later than others in the course of historical development: A. the present tense forms B. the past tense forms C. the future tense forms 12. Tense forms in English render: A. only the absolute time semantics B. only the relative time semantics C. both the absolute time and the relative time semantics 13. The “historic present” (e.g.: <i>Suddenly John comes in and says...</i>) is: A. the neutralization of Time I opposition B. the transposition of Time I opposition 14. Modal shade of meaning is inherent for the verbal forms of: A. the past tense B. the present tense C. the future tense</p>
<p>15. Аспектные значения глаголов передаются в английском языке: A. только грамматически B. лексическими и грамматическими средствами C. только лексически 16. В каком из нижеприведенных предложений имеет место транспозиция глагольных форм по категории вида? A. <i>I can't call him, I forgot his telephone number.</i> B. <i>You're always quarreling with each other!</i> 17. А.И. Смирницкий выделял глагольную категорию временной отнесенности для форм, традиционно определяемых как: A. простые (индефинитные) B. продолженные (континуальные) C. перфектные</p>	<p>15. Verbal aspective semantics in English is rendered: A. only grammatically B. lexically and grammatically C. only lexically 16. In which of the following sentences does aspective category transposition take place? A. <i>I can't call him, I forgot his telephone number.</i> B. <i>You're always quarreling with each other!</i> 17. A.I. Smirnitsky distinguished “the category of time correlation” for the verbal forms traditionally treated as: A. Indefinite B. Continuous C. Perfect</p>

<p>предшествование (+ значение несостоявшегося действия): <i>It's high time she finished her work.</i></p> <p>26. Согласно трактовке проф. М.Я. Блоха повелительное наклонение глагола является подтипом наклонения:</p> <p>A. Subjunctive I B. Subjunctive II C. Subjunctive III D. Subjunctive IV</p>	<p>26. In Prof. Blokh's classification the imperative mood forms make the subtype of:</p> <p>A. Subjunctive I B. Subjunctive II C. Subjunctive III D. Subjunctive IV</p>
<p>ПРИЛАГАТЕЛЬНОЕ И НАРЕЧИЕ</p>	<p>ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB</p>
<p>1. Основной семантической функцией прилагательных является:</p> <p>A. качественные прилагательные а) функция уточнения, спецификации B. относительные прилагательные б) оценочная функция</p> <p>2. К какой подгруппе относится прилагательное <i>golden</i> в следующем предложении: <i>He is the golden boy of the show-biz?</i></p> <p>A. а) качественное; б) относительное B. а) оценочное; б) спецификативное (уточняющее)</p> <p>3. В каком из следующих предложений превосходная степень прилагательного является элятивной?</p> <p>A. <i>It was the most promising of his declarations.</i> B. <i>It was a most promising declaration.</i></p> <p>4. Степени сравнения могут образовывать прилагательные и наречия, используемые:</p> <p>A. в оценочной семантической функции B. в уточнительной (конкретизирующей) семантической функции</p>	<p>1. The basic semantic function of the adjectives is:</p> <p>A. for qualitative adjectives а) specificative function B. for relative adjectives б) evaluative function</p> <p>2. To what groups does the adjective <i>golden</i> belong in the following context: <i>He is the golden boy of the show-biz?</i></p> <p>A. а) qualitative; б) relative B. а) evaluative; б) specificative</p> <p>3. In which of the following sentences is the superlative degree used in the relative sense?</p> <p>A. <i>It was the most promising of his declarations.</i> B. <i>It was a most promising declaration.</i></p> <p>4. The adjectives and the adverbs can form the degrees of comparison when they are used in:</p> <p>A. the evaluative semantic function B. the specificative semantic function</p>
<p>5. Слова, обозначающие группы референтов, объединенных общим признаком, типа <i>the newly-wed</i>, и абстрактные понятия типа <i>the bitter</i>, представляют собой:</p> <p>A. подкласс существительных B. подкласс прилагательных</p>	<p>5. The words which denote groups of referents united by a common property, like <i>the newly-wed</i>, or abstract notions, like <i>the bitter</i>, make:</p> <p>A. a subclass of the nouns B. a subclass of the adjectives</p>
<p>6. «Слова категории состояния» (<i>afraid, sorry, etc.</i>) в английском языке представляют собой:</p> <p>A. отдельную часть речи</p>	<p>6. "The category of state words" in English (<i>afraid, sorry, etc.</i>) make:</p> <p>A. a separate part of speech B. a subclass of the adjectives</p>

В. подкласс класса прилагательных С. подкласс класса наречий	C. a subclass of the adverbs
7. Категориальным значением наречия является	7. The categorial meaning of the adverb is
8. Распределите следующие наречия по группам: <i>quickly, often, clockwise, once, there</i> А. качественные наречия - _____ В. количественные наречия - _____ С. обстоятельственные наречия - _____ 9. Наречия <i>now, then</i> являются: А. а) полнозначными; б) служебными; в) полу-служебными В. а) качественными; б) количественными; в) обстоятельными	8. Define what grammatically relevant groups the following adverbs belong to: <i>quickly, often, clockwise, once, there</i> А. qualitative adverbs - _____ В. quantitative adverbs - _____ С. circumstantial adverbs - _____ 9. The adverbs <i>now, then</i> are: А. а) notional; б) functional; в) semi-functional В. а) qualitative; б) quantitative; в) circumstantial
10. Формы степеней сравнения могут образовывать наречия: А. качественные В. количественные С. обстоятельственные	10. The adverbs that belong to the following group can form the degrees of comparison: А. qualitative В. quantitative С. circumstantial
СИНТАКСИС СЛОВСОЧЕТАНИЯ. СИНТАКСИС ПРОСТОГО ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ. НОМИНАТИВНОЕ ЧЛЕНЕНИЕ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ	SYNTAX OF THE PHRASE. SYNTAX OF THE SENTENCE. NOMINATIVE DIVISION OF THE SENTENCE
1. Основной единицей синтаксиса является: А. словосочетание В. предложение С. сверхфразовое единство 2. Подчинение, или открытое выражение зависимости одного синтаксического компонента от другого, иначе называется: А. паратаксис В. гипотаксис 3. основные типы связи между словами в составе словосочетаний: «сочинение», «подчинение» и «...». 4. «Узкое» определение словосочетания, согласно которому словосочетаниями считаются только объединения полнозначных слов, одно из которых подчинено	1. The major lingual unit of syntax is: А. the phrase В. the sentence С. the supra-sentential construction 2. Domination, or explicit subordination of one syntactic component by another, is otherwise known as: А. parataxis В. hypotaxis 3. The main types of connections between the words inside the phrases are: “coordination”, “subordination”, and “...”. 4. The narrow definition of the phrase, that includes only the combinations of notional words one of which dominates another, belongs to:

<p>другому, принадлежит: A. В.В. Виноградову B. Л. Блумфилду C. В.В. Бурлаковой 5. Словосочетание <i>spent the weekend</i> является: A. прогрессивным B. регрессивным 6. Каков способ осуществления подчинительной связи в следующих словосочетаниях? A. <i>came late</i> a) согласование D. <i>answered me</i> b) управление C. <i>these books</i> c) примыкание D. <i>has already answered</i> d) замыкание 7. Дайте характеристику следующих словосочетаний: A. <i>Blacks or Afro-Americans</i> a) эквипотентное/ сочинительное B. <i>slow, though not always</i> b) доминационное /подчинительное C. <i>a stupid thing</i> c) кумулятивное/ присоединительное D. <i>them playing</i> d) взаимодоминанционное/ предикативное</p>	<p>A. V.V. Vinogradov B. L. Bloomfield C. V.V. Burlakova 5. The phrase <i>spent the weekend</i> is: A. progressive B. regressive 6. Define the mode of realization of connections between the words in the following phrases: A. <i>came late</i> a) agreement D. <i>answered me</i> b) government C. <i>these books</i> c) adjoining D. <i>has already answered</i> d) enclosure 7. Characterize the following phrases: A. <i>Blacks or Afro-Americans</i> a) equipotent/ coordinative B. <i>slow, though not always</i> b) dominational/ subordinative C. <i>a stupid thing</i> c) cumulative D. <i>them playing</i> d) bilateral dominational/ interdependent</p>
<p>8. Назовите три самых важных отличительных признака предложения как языковой единицы: предложение является единственной языковой единицей, которая обладает «...», «...» и «...». 9. Предложение является: A. номинативной языковой единицей B. предикативной языковой единицей C. номинативно-предикативной языковой единицей 10. Трансформация предложения в номинативное словосочетание называется «...». 11. Предложение в широком понимании, как синтаксическая единица, является: A. единицей речи B. единицей языка (системы) C. одновременно единицей языка и речи 12. Связь между называемой ситуацией и реальной действительностью, передаваемая предложением, называется «...». 13. Центром предикации в предложении, вокруг которого организуется вся структура предложения, является</p>	<p>8. Name the three basic differential features of the sentence as a lingual unit: the sentence is the only lingual unit characterized by "...", "...", and "...". 9. The sentence is: A. a nominative lingual unit B. a predicative lingual unit C. a nominative-predicative lingual unit 10. Transformation of the sentence into a nominative phrase is called "...". 11. The sentence as a lingual unit in the broad sense is: A. a unit of speech B. a unit of language (as a system) C. a unit of language and speech at the same time 12. "... is the type of syntactic modality which shows the relations between the situation named and the actual reality rendered by the sentence. 13. The center of predication around which the structure of the sentence is built is "...".</p>

<p>14. Охарактеризуйте следующее предложение по представленности членов предложения: <i>I am a teacher.</i> A. распространенное B. нераспространенное</p> <p>15. Функции каких членов предложения выполняют существительные в следующем предложении? <i>My sister</i> (a), <i>Mary</i> (b), <i>was once a cheer</i> (c) <i>leader</i> (d) <i>at school</i> (e).</p> <p>16. Какого типа синтаксические конструкции можно считать «псевдо-предложениями» («квази-предложениями»)? A. вокативные предложения типа: <i>John!</i> B. номинативные предложения, типа: <i>Marvelous!</i> C. мета-коммуникативные предложения, типа: <i>Hello!</i> D. инфинитивные предложения, типа: <i>To say a thing like this!</i> E. междометные предложения, типа: <i>Goodness gracious!</i> F. экспрессивные предложения, типа: <i>What a day!</i></p> <p>17. Традиционная классификация членов предложения отражает то, что в терминах трансформационной грамматики Н. Хомского называется: A. глубинной (концептуальной) структурой предложения B. поверхностной структурой предложения</p> <p>18. Какую семантическую роль выполняет подлежащее в следующих предложениях? A. <i>Jenny wrote that letter.</i> a) Локатив B. <i>That letter was written by Jenny.</i> b) Агентив C. <i>The pen tore the paper.</i> c) Пациенс D. <i>Moscow hosted the summit.</i> d) Инструмент(алис)</p> <p>19. Охарактеризуйте следующее предложение по степени полноты: <i>How nice!</i> A. полное (двусоставное) B. неполное (односоставное); свободный эллипсис C. неполное (односоставное); фиксированный эллипсис</p> <p>20. В терминологии Л. Теньера элементы предложения, обозначающие участников ситуации, называются: A. актанты B. сирконстанты</p> <p>21. Теория семантических падежей (семантических ролей) была первоначально разработана: A. Ч. Филлмором B. Н Хомским C. членами Пражского лингвистического кружка</p> <p>22. Охарактеризуйте следующие предложения по главным членам</p>	<p>14. Define the type of the sentence on the base of positional parts presentation: <i>I am a teacher.</i> A. expanded B. unexpanded</p> <p>15. What syntactic functions do the nouns fulfill in the following sentence? <i>My sister</i> (a), <i>Mary</i> (b), <i>was once a cheer</i> (c) <i>leader</i> (d) <i>at school</i> (e).</p> <p>16. What types of syntactic constructions can be characterized as “pseudo-sentences” (“quasi-sentences”)? A. vocative sentences: <i>John!</i> B. nominative sentences: <i>Marvelous!</i> C. meta-communicative sentences: <i>Hello!</i> D. infinitive sentences: <i>To say a thing like this!</i> E. emphatic sentences: <i>What a day!</i></p> <p>17. The traditional classification of the notional parts of the sentence correlates with what in N. Chomsky’s transformational grammar theory is called: A. the deep (conceptual) structure of the sentence B. the surface structure of the sentence</p> <p>18. Define the semantic role of the subject in the following sentences: A. <i>Jenny wrote that letter.</i> a) Locative B. <i>That letter was written by Jenny.</i> b) Agent C. <i>The pen tore the paper.</i> c) Patient D. <i>Moscow hosted the summit.</i> d) Instrument</p> <p>19. Define the degree of completeness in the following sentence: <i>How nice!</i> A. complete (two-axes) sentence B. incomplete (one-axis) sentence with free ellipsis C. incomplete (one-axis) sentence with fixed ellipsis</p> <p>20 L. Teniere suggested the following terms to denote the participants of the situation: A. actants B. circonstants</p> <p>21. The theory of semantic cases (semantic roles) was first developed by: A. Ch. Fillmore B. N. Chomsky C. linguists of the Prague linguistic school</p> <p>22. Define the type of the following sentences on the base of their principal</p>
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<p>предложения: 1) <i>She looks sad.</i> 2) <i>It is windy today.</i> A. а) акциональное; б) стательное B. а) фактуальное; б) перцептивное C. а) с простым сказуемым; б) с составным глагольным сказуемым; с) с составным именным сказуемым 23. Какой тип эллипсиса Л.С. Бархударов называл «парадигматически восполняемым»? A. фиксированный эллипсис B. свободный (контекстный) эллипсис 24. Какие из членов перечисленных предложения являются обособленными? <i>подлежащее, сказуемое, вводный член предложения, определение, обращение, дополнение, приложение, обстоятельство</i></p>	<p>parts types: 1) <i>She looks sad.</i> 2) <i>It is windy today.</i> A. а) actional; б) statal B. а) factual; б) perceptual C. а) with simple predicate; б) with compound verbal predicate; с) with compound nominal predicate 23. What kind of ellipsis did L. Barkhudarov define as “paradigmatically restored”? A. fixed ellipsis B. free (contextual) ellipsis 24. What notional parts of the sentence are regularly detached? <i>subject, predicate, parenthesis, attribute, address, object, apposition, adverbial modifier</i></p>
ПРЕДИКАТИВНАЯ СЕМАНТИКА ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ	PREDICATIVE SEMANTICS OF THE SENTENCE
<p>1. Часть актуального членения предложения, известная как «переход», иначе еще называется «вторичная ...». 2. Охарактеризуйте тип ремы в следующих типах предложений: A. рема обще-вопросительных предложений а) открыто-альтернативная B. рема в специальных вопросах б) скрыто-альтернативная C. рема в альтернативных вопросах с) открытая, «нулевая» (информационное зияние, пустота) D. рема в разделительных вопросах 3. Основными и обязательными языковыми средствами актуального членения предложения являются: A. грамматические средства B. фонетические средства C. контекстные средства D. графические средства 4 В. Матезиус использовал термин «основа» для обозначения: A. темы предложения B. ремы предложения C. перехода 5. Охарактеризуйте порядок слов и порядок актуального членения в следующем предложении: <i>On the top of the shelf sat a big vase.</i> A. порядок слов: а) прямой; б) обратный (инвертированный) B. порядок актуального членения: а) прямой; б) обратный (инвертированный) 6. Информационный пик предложения (наиболее значимая часть информации) называется: A. тема B. рема C. переход</p>	<p>1. The informative part of the sentence known as “the transition” is otherwise called “secondary ...”. 2. Characterize the rheme in the following types of the sentence: A. the rheme in general questions а) explicitly alternative B. the rheme in special questions б) implicitly alternative C. the rheme in alternative questions с) “open” (“zero”) rheme D. the rheme in disjunctive questions 3. The primary and obligatory lingual means of actual division are: A. the grammatical means B. the phonetical means C. the contextual means D. the graphic means 4. V. Mathesius used the term “the basis” to denote: A. the theme of the sentence B. the rheme C. the transition 5. Define the type of the word order and the actual division of the following sentence: <i>On the top of the shelf sat a big vase.</i> A. the word order is: а) direct; б) reverse (inverted) B. the actual division is: а) direct; б) reverse (inverted) 6. The informative peak of the sentence (the basic informative part of the sentence) is called: A. the theme of the sentence B. the rheme C. the transition 7. The theory of communicative syntax (actual division of the sentence) was first</p>

<p>7. Теория коммуникативного синтаксиса (актуального членения предложения) была первоначально разработана:</p> <p>A. Ч. Филлмором В. Н Хомским С. членами Пражского лингвистического кружка D. Дж. Остином и Дж. Серлем</p> <p>8. При свободном (контекстном) эллипсисе (например, <i>Who is absent? – John.</i>) остающаяся в эксплицитной речи часть является:</p> <p>A. темой В. ремой</p>	<p>developed by:</p> <p>A. Ch. Fillmore B. N. Chomsky C. the linguists of the Prague linguistic school D. J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle</p> <p>8. In cases of free ellipsis (contextual ellipsis, e.g.: <i>Who is absent? – John.</i>) the remaining part of information is:</p> <p>A. the theme B. the rheme</p>
<p>9. Охарактеризуйте коммуникативный тип следующего предложения: <i>Could you show me your book?</i></p> <p>A. по форме: a) вопросительное; b) побудительное; c) повествовательное предложение</p> <p>В. по значению: a) вопросительное; b) побудительное; c) повествовательное предложение</p> <p>С. а) чисто вопросительное предложение; b) риторический вопрос; c) вежливая просьба</p> <p>10. Какой из типов предложения не входит в перечень коммуникативных типов?</p> <p>A. повествовательные предложения С. вопросительные предложения В. восклицательные предложения D. побудительные предложения</p> <p>11. Теория речевых актов (прагматических типов высказываний) была разработана:</p> <p>A. Ч. Филлмором В. Н Хомским С. членами Пражского лингвистического кружка D. Дж. Остином и Дж. Серлем</p> <p>12. К какому типу речевых актов относятся высказывания типа: <i>I surrender; I name this ship Queen Elizabeth; I pronounce you husband and wife; etc.?</i></p> <p>A. констативы D. промиссивы В. директивы Е. экспрессивы С. перформативы F. др.</p>	<p>9. Define the communicative type of the following sentence: <i>Could you show me your book?</i></p> <p>A. formally: a) interrogative; b) imperative; c) declarative</p> <p>B. semantically: a) interrogative; b) imperative; c) declarative</p> <p>C. a) a purely interrogative sentence; b) a rhetorical question; c) a polite request</p> <p>10. What type of the sentence is not included into the list of communicative types?</p> <p>A. declarative sentences C. interrogative sentences B. exclamatory sentences D. Imperative sentences</p> <p>11. The theory of speech acts (pragmatic utterance types) was developed by:</p> <p>A. Ch. Fillmore B. N. Chomsky C. the linguists of the Prague linguistic school D. J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle</p> <p>12. What type of speech acts do the following utterances belong to: <i>I surrender; I name this ship Queen Elizabeth; I pronounce you husband and wife; etc.?</i></p> <p>A. the constatives (representatives) D. the promissives B. the directives E. the expressives C. the performatives F. others</p>
<p>13. Теория трансформационного синтаксиса (генеративной лингвистики) была разработана:</p> <p>A. Ч. Филлмором</p>	<p>13. The theory of transformational syntax (the generative grammar) was developed by:</p> <p>A. Ch. Fillmore B. N. Chomsky</p>

<p>В. Н Хомским С. членами Пражского лингвистического кружка Д. Дж. Остином и Дж. Серлем 14. Трансформация ядерного предложения называется «синтаксической ...». 15. По каким синтаксическим категориям маркировано следующее предложение: <i>Why on earth didn't he ask me about it?</i> А. категория коммуникативной направленности В. категория бытийного качества С. категория реализации Д. категория модальной оценки тождества Е. категория фазиса Ф. категория субъектно-объектных отношений Г. категория эмоциональной интенсивности Н. др.</p>	<p>С. the linguists of the Prague linguistic school Д. J.L. Austin and J.R. Searle 14. The transformation of the kernel sentence is called "syntactic ...". 15. The sentence <i>Why on earth didn't he ask me about it?</i> Is the marked member of the following syntactic categories: А. the category of communicative purpose В. the category of existence quality (affirmation/ negation) С. the theory of realization Д. the category of modal identity Е. the category of phase Д. the category of subject-object relations Г. the category of emotiveness Н. others</p>
<p>СИНТАКСИС СЛОЖНОГО ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ И ТЕКСТА</p>	<p>SYNTAX OF COMPOSITE SYNTACTIC CONSTRUCTIONS AND THE TEXT</p>
<p>1. Охарактеризуйте следующие предложения: А. <i>He loves his job and works a lot.</i> В. <i>He works a lot, because he loves his job.</i> С. <i>Loving his job, he works a lot.</i> Д. <i>He loves his job, so he works a lot.</i> а) сложноподчиненное предложение б) сложносочиненное предложение в) осложненное предложение д) простое (опрошенное) предложение 2. Определите тип связующего компонента в следующем сложноподчиненном предложении: <i>They wondered what I was going to do next.</i> 3. Распределите сочинительные связки по типам выражаемых ими отношений между частями сложносочиненного предложения: <i>and, nevertheless, or, so, neither... nor, but, therefore</i> А. соединительные отношения (немаркированное сочинение) - _____ В. противительные отношения - _____ С. разделительные отношения - _____ Д. причинно-следственные отношения - _____ 4. Какое из нижеприведенных сложноподчиненных предложений не является монолитным (одночленным)? А) <i>I remember when it all started.</i> В) <i>He decided to quit, because the job was ruining his family.</i> С) <i>What I knew was nobody's business.</i> Д) <i>Hardly had I started the conversation when she interrupted me.</i></p>	<p>1. Define the type of the following sentences: А. <i>He loves his job and works a lot.</i> В. <i>He works a lot, because he loves his job.</i> С. <i>Loving his job, he works a lot.</i> Д. <i>He loves his job, so he works a lot.</i> а) a complex sentence б) a compound sentence в) a semi-composite sentence д) a simple sentence 2. Define the type of the connector in the following complex sentence: <i>They wondered what I was going to do next.</i> 3. Group the following coordinative connectors on the base of the relations between the clauses that they denote: <i>and, nevertheless, or, so, neither... nor, but, therefore</i> А. copulative relations (unmarked coordination) _____ В. adversative relations _____ С. disjunctive relations _____ Д. causal-consequential relations _____ 4. Which of the following sentences is not monolithic? А) <i>I remember when it all started.</i> В) <i>He decided to quit, because the job was ruining his family.</i> С) <i>What I knew was nobody's business.</i> Д) <i>Hardly had I started the conversation when she interrupted me.</i></p>

5. Охарактеризуйте нижеприведенные осложненные предложения:
 A) *I found him an interesting person.* B) *I remember them quarrelling with each other.* C) *Their eyes glaring, they started quarrelling.* D) *They quarreled all the time, not their wives.* E) *The husbands, locked in the argument, didn't seem to notice anyone around them.* F) *They were never seen arguing with each other.* G) *They started arguing, but soon stopped.* H) *Playing poker, they argued all the time.*

a) осложнено-подчиненное предложение с двойным сказуемым
 b) осложнено-подчиненное с абсолютным обстоятельственным осложнением
 c) осложнено-подчиненное со сложным подлежащим
 d) осложнено-сочиненное с однородными сказуемыми
 e) осложнено-подчиненное с атрибутивным осложнением
 f) осложнено-сочиненное с однородными подлежащими
 g) осложнено-подчиненное со сложным дополнением
 h) осложнено-подчиненное с обстоятельственным осложнением присоединенного типа

6. Определите характер присоединительных связей между предложениями в следующих текстовых объединениях:
 A. *I 'd like to mention one thing. No matter what, I'll be on your side.* B. *He wanted to stay. But that was absolutely impossible.*

a) проспективное (катафорическое) присоединение
 b) ретроспективное (анафорическое) присоединение

7. Какая из перечисленных категорий не является категорией текста:
 A. семантическая цельность
 B. семантико-синтаксическая связность
 C. предикативность

8. Семантическая (смысловая) целостность текста достигается единством

9. Наиболее распространенный тип тема-рематических связей в тексте, при котором рема предыдущего предложения становится темой последующего предложения, называется:
 A. цепочечные связи (объективные, прогрессивные связи)
 B. параллельные связи
 C. линейные связи

10. Парцелированные конструкции (e.g. *No one is perfect. But him.*) представляют собой:
 A. сложное предложение особого типа
 B. сверх-фразовое (текстовое) единство особого типа
 C. единицу промежуточного статуса между предложением и текстовым

5. Characterize the following semi-composite sentences:
 A) *I found him an interesting person.* B) *I remember them quarrelling with each other.* C) *Their eyes glaring, they started quarrelling.* D) *They quarreled all the time, not their wives.* E) *The husbands, locked in the argument, didn't seem to notice anyone around them.* F) *They were never seen arguing with each other.* G) *They started arguing, but soon stopped.* H) *Playing poker, they argued all the time.*

a) semi-complex sentence with double predicate
 b) semi-complex sentence with absolute adverbial complication
 c) semi-complex sentence with Complex Subject
 d) semi-compound sentence of poly-predicate type
 e) semi-complex sentence with attributive complication
 f) semi-compound sentence of poly-subject type
 g) semi-complex sentence with Complex Object
 h) semi-complex sentence with conjoint adverbial complication

6. Define the type of cumulative connections between the sentences in the following supra-sentential constructions:
 A. *I 'd like to mention one thing. No matter what, I'll be on your side.* B. *He wanted to stay. But that was absolutely impossible.*

a) prospective (cataphoric) cumulation
 b) retrospective (anaphoric) cumulation

7. Which of the following categories is not the feature of text?
 A. semantic unity
 B. semantico-syntactic cohesion
 C. predication

8. Semantic unity of the text is achieved by the unity of its ...

9. The most widely used type of theme-rheme connections in the text, when the rheme of the previous sentence becomes the theme of the following sentence, is called:
 A. chain connections (objective, progressive) connections
 B. parallel connections
 C. linear connections

10. Syntactic constructions with parcellation (e.g. *No one is perfect. But him.*) are:
 A. a type of a composite sentence

ЕДИНСТВОМ

B. a type of supra-sentential (textual) constructions

C. a unit of intermediary status between the sentence and the textual unity

GLOSSARY

PARTS OF SPEECH (ЧАСТИ РЕЧИ)	
Noun	Существительное
common	нарицательное
proper	собственное
abstract	абстрактное
collective	собирательное
of material	вещественное
Adjective	Прилагательное
qualitative	качественное
relative	относительное
Pronoun	Местоимение
demonstrative	указательное
personal	личное
possessive	притяжательное
reflexive	возвратное
indefinite	неопределенное
reciprocal	взаимное
interrogative	вопросительное
conjunctive	союзное
relative	относительное
Verb	Глагол
auxiliary	вспомогательный
modal	модальный
regular	правильный
irregular	неправильный
notional	смысловой
Adverb	Наречие
Numeral	Числительное
cardinal	количественное
ordinal	порядковое
Modal words	Модальные слова
preposition	предлог
postposition	послелог
Conjunction	Союз
coordinative	сочинительный
subordinative	подчинительный
copulative	соединительный
disjunctive	противительный
adversative	причинный
causative	Междометие
Interjection	Частица
Particle	Артикль
Article	определенный
Definite	неопределенный

PART OF THE SENTENCE (ЧЛЕНЫ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ)	
Subject	Подлежащее
personal	личное
impersonal	безличное
indefinite-personal	неопределенно-личное
Predicate	Сказуемое
simple	простое
compound	составное
verbal	глагольное
nominal	именное
link-verb	глагол-связка
predicative	предикативный член (именная часть)
Object	Дополнение
direct	прямое
indirect	косвенное
prepositional	предложное
Attribute	Определение
Antecedent	Определяемое
Apposition	Приложение
Adverbial modifier	Обстоятельство
of manner	образа действия
of comparison	сравнения
of time	времени
of place	места
of measure	меры
of degree	степени
of result	результата
of attendant circumstances	сопутствующий
of purpose	цели
of condition	условия
of concession	уступки
Subject	Подлежащее
Parenthesis	Вводный
Address	Обращение
Homogeneous parts	Однородные члены
TYPES OF SENTENCES AND CLASSES (ТИПЫ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯ)	
Simple Sentence	Простое
one-member	односоставное
two-member	двусоставное
extended	распространенное
unextended	нераспространенное
affirmative	утвердительное
negative	отрицательное
declarative	повествовательное
interrogative	вопросительное
imperative	повелительное

exclamatory	восклицательное
Compound Sentence	Сложносочиненное
Complex	Сложноподчиненное
Mixed	Сложномешанное
Clause	Простое предложение в составе сложного
coordinate	сочиненное
subordinate	придаточное
main, principal	главное
Subject Clause	Придаточное предложение (подлежащее)
Predicative Clause	Придаточное сказуемое
Object Clause	Придаточное дополнительное
Attributive Clause	Придаточное определительное
relative	относительное
restrictive	ограничительное
descriptive	описательное
appositive	аппозитивное
Adverbial Clause	Придаточное обстоятельственное
of manner	образа действия
of comparison	сравнения
of result	результата
of time	времени
of place	места
of cause	причины
of purpose	цели
of condition	условия
of concession	уступки
GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES (ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЕ КАТЕГОРИИ)	
Case	Падеж
nominative	именительный
genitive	родительный
possessive	притяжательный
common	общий
Gender	Род
masculine	мужской
feminine	женский
neuter	средний
Number	Число
singular	единственное
plural	множественное
Person	Лицо
Tense	Время
Present	настоящее
Past	прошедшее
Future	будущее
Future-in-the-past	Будущее в прошедшем
perfect	перфект
Aspect	Вид

common	общий
continuous	длительный
perfective	совершенный
imperfective	несовершенный
Voice	Залог
active	действительный
passive	страдательный
Mood	Наклонение
indicative	изъявительное
imperative	повелительное
subjunctive	сослагательное
Degree of comparison	Степень сравнения
positive	положительная
comparative	сравнительная
superlative	превосходная

Glossary of English Grammatical Terms

Action Verb

Action verbs specify the action performed by the subject.

Examples:

"John *ran* to the store."
"Mary *swims* very well."

Adjective

Adjectives modify nouns and have three forms or degrees:

- **Positive** - *new*
- **Comparative** - *newer*
- **Superlative** - *newest*

Adverbial Particle

Adverbial particles are prepositions that are considered part of the verb because they change the meaning of the verb. Some verbs allow one or more words between the verb and the particle.

Example: "Turn *off* the lights.", "Turn the lights *off*."

Adverb

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Example: "Mary walks *gracefully*". "She is *very* pretty".

Article

English has three articles:

- **the** - The "definite" article refers to specific objects.
- **a, an** - The "indefinite" articles refer to unspecified members of a class. The article "a" is used before a word starting with a *consonant* sound and "an" is used before a word starting with a *vowel* sound.

Examples: "*the mouse*", "*a mouse*", "*an orange mouse*", "*an honor*" (H is silent), "*a horse*" (H is aspirated).

Auxiliary Verb

Auxiliary verbs are used with other verbs to express moods or tense. Common auxiliary verbs are:

will, would, may, might, shall, should, can, could, must

Examples: "*Mary will sing.*", "*Mary can sing.*"

Compound Sentence

Compound sentences consist of two or more simple sentences separated by conjunctions.

<Compound Sentence> = <Simple Sentence> <conjunction> <Simple Sentence> |
"Either" <Declarative Sentence> "or" <Declarative Sentence> |
"Either" <Imperative Sentence> "or" <Imperative Sentence>

Example: *"John is already here and Mary is coming soon."*

Conditional Sentence

Conditional sentences are used to describe the consequences of a specific action, or the dependency between events or conditions. Conditional sentences consist of an independent clause and a dependent clause.

<Dependent Clause> = ("if" | "when") <Declarative Sentence>
<Independent Clause> = <Declarative Sentence> | <Interrogative Sentence>
<Conditional Sentence> =
<Dependent Clause> ", " <Independent Clause> |
<Independent Clause> <Dependent Clause>

Example: *"You will be sorry if you don't come soon."*

Conjugation

The presentation of the complete set of inflected forms of a verb.

Conjunction

Conjunctions are used to connect sentences or part of sentences. Common conjunctions:

and, or, but

Paired conjunctions:

Either ... or,

Neither ... nor

Subordinate conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses.

where, when, while, because, if, unless

Consonants and Vowels

English uses 26 letters: ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

AEIOU are vowels.

BCDFGHJKLMNPQRSTUVWXYZ are consonants.

Declarative Sentence

Declarative Sentences are used to form statements. Declarative sentences consist of a subject and a predicate. The subject may be a simple subject or a compound subject.

<Declarative Sentence> = <subject> <predicate>

Example: *"This is a declarative sentence."*

Gender

Gender is the classification of nouns and pronouns according to distinctions in sex. There are four genders: Masculine, Feminine, Common, and Neuter. Masculine gender denotes the male sex. Feminine gender denotes the female sex. Common gender denotes either sex. Neuter

gender denotes the absence of sex.

Examples:

Masculine: *he, father, king*

Feminine: *she, sister, princess*

Common: *child, cousin, neighbour*

Neuter: *it, table, dress*

Imperative Sentence

Imperative sentences are used in commands. Imperative sentences consist only of predicates with verbs in infinitive form. The implied subject is "You". Frequently, imperative sentences are terminated with an exclamation point.

Examples:

Come here!

Don't drive outside your lane.

Interjections

Interjections express strong feeling or emotion and have no grammatical relation to any other word in a sentence. Some common interjections are: Oh, Alas, Aha, Bah, Whew.

Examples: "*Aha!* I found it!"

Interrogative Sentence

Interrogative sentences are used to form questions. Interrogative sentences frequently start with auxiliary verbs, or pronouns and adverbs such as "Who", "What", "Where", "When", and "Why". Interrogative sentences are terminated by a question mark.

Examples:

Where are you?

Will John come for dinner?

Irregular Noun

The plural form of a noun is generally formed by adding an "s" or "es" ending to the singular form. *Irregular nouns* do not follow this rule.

Examples:

maximum, maxima

child, children

Irregular verb

Irregular verbs do not have a predictable pattern of conjugation.

Linking Verb

Linking verbs associate attributes (adverbs or adjectives) with a subject. Common linking verbs are:

be, look, become

Examples:

"John *is* smart."

"Mary *became* angry."

"The patient *looked* pale."

Noun

A noun usually denotes a thing, place, person, quality, or action. *Common nouns* refer to ordinary things (mouse, tree, computer), whereas *proper nouns* refer to persons, specific things or specific places (John, the Brooklyn Bridge, Texas). Proper nouns are generally capitalized. Nouns have two common forms: singular and plural. **Singular** nouns refer to one object (book), **plural** nouns refer to two or more objects (books). Each noun form has a corresponding **possessive form** that is used to refer to the properties of the object ("the book's pages" means *the pages of the book*; "the books' pages" means *the pages of the books*). Nouns also have "gender" which is a classification according to distinctions in sex.

Personal Pronoun

Personal pronouns stand in the place of a person's name. In the sentence "John went home.", the word "John" may be replaced with the personal pronoun "he". Personal pronouns have four cases: **nominative** (subjective), **objective**, **possessive adjectives** (genitive), and **possessive**. Pronouns have also "person" (1st, 2nd, or 3rd), "number" (singular or plural), and "gender" (masculine, feminine, or neuter) attributes.

Personal Pronouns - Nominative (Subjective)

The nominative pronouns are used in the subject of a sentence.

Example: *You* have a book.

	<i>Person,n umber</i>	<i>Nomi native</i>
ar	1st,singul	I
ular	2nd,sing	you
lar	3rd,singu	he, she, it
	1st,plural	we
l	2nd,plura	you
l	3rd,plura	they

Personal Pronouns - Objective

Objective pronouns are used in the object of a sentence.

Example: Give *me* the book.

	<i>Person,n umber</i>	<i>Obj ective</i>
ar	1st,singul	me
	2nd,sing	you

ular	3rd,singu	him
lar	, her	
	1st,plural	us
	2nd,plura	you
l	3rd,plura	the
l	m	

Personal Pronouns - Possessive adjectives (Genitive)

Possessive adjectives are sometimes called attributive possessive pronouns. They generally modify noun phrases.

Example: This is *my* book.

	<i>Person,n umber</i>	<i>Possessive adjectives</i>
ar	1st,singul	my
ular	2nd,sing	your
lar	3rd,singu	his, her
	1st,plural	our
	2nd,plura	your
l	3rd,plura	their
l		

Personal Pronouns - Possessive

Possessive pronouns are nominal in nature and they occur in the object of a sentence.

Example: This book is *mine*.

	<i>Person,n umber</i>	<i>Possessive pronouns</i>
ar	1st,singul	mine
ular	2nd,sing	yours
lar	3rd,singu	his, hers
	1st,plural	ours
	2nd,plura	yours
l	3rd,plura	theirs
l		

Predicate

The predicate is the part of the sentence that contains a verb or verb phrase and its complements. The predicate of the sentence "John cried" is "cried". The predicate of the sentence "Mary will give me a letter." is "will give me a letter".

<predicate> = (<verb> | <verb phrase>) <complement>

Preposition

Prepositions indicate relationships between different parts of the sentence. Common prepositions are:

from, toward, in, about, over, above, under, at, below

Examples:

Clouds are *over* the earth and *below* the moon.

John went *toward* the mountain *at* 3:00 O'clock.

Pronoun

Pronouns are words used instead of a noun. **Demonstrative pronouns** are *this*, *that*, and *such*.

Example:

That is pretty.

Pronouns like *who* and *which* are **interrogative pronouns** when they introduce questions.

Example:

Which is pretty?

Pronouns like *who* and *which* are called **relative pronouns** when they introduce clauses.

Example:

The flower, *which* is on the table, is pretty.

Indefinite pronouns are *each*, *either*, *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, and *all*.

Example:

Some are pretty.

Personal pronouns are used to refer to persons.

Subject

The subject is the part of the sentence which performs an action or which is associated with the action. The subject of the sentence "John cried" is the proper noun "John". The subject of the sentence "Lions and tigers growled." is the compound subject "lions and tigers".

<subject> = <simple subject> | <compound subject>

<simple subject> = <noun phrase> | <nominative personal pronoun>

Verb

Action verbs constitute the majority of English verbs. They include "sing", "write", "swim", etc. The typical regular verb conjugation is similar to:

Infinitive (Vinf):	start
Present Participle	startin
(Ving):	g
Past participle	starte
(Vpastp):	d

	<i>Person, Number</i>		<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
		<i>Person</i>	<i>(Vpast)</i>	
ar	1st,singul	I	(V1s) start	started
lar	2nd,singu	yo	(V2s) start	started
ar	3rd,singul	he/ she/it	(V3s) starts	started
	1st,plural	we	(V1p) start	started
l	2nd,plura	yo	(V2p) start	started
	3rd,plural	the	(V3p) start	started

Verb Phrase

Verb Phrases are sequences of auxiliary and action verbs that may show tense, mood, aspect, and voice. The future tense, for example, is constructed by placing "will" before an infinitive form of a verb as in "She *will study* tomorrow". Aspect refers to the manner in which the verb action is experienced. An example of present perfect aspect is "John *has lived* in Paris".

ТРЕБОВАНИЯ К ЗНАНИЯМ, НАВЫКАМ И УМЕНИЯМ СТУДЕНТОВ, ИЗУЧИВШИМ КУРС ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКОЙ ГРАММАТИКИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Студенты, изучившие курс теоретической грамматики английского языка, должны обладать знаниями, умениями и навыками в объеме, предусмотренном программой по теоретической грамматике английского языка, включая:

- представление о грамматике как подсистеме языка, ее компонентах, структуре и месте в общей системе языка;
- знание основных теоретических положений и проблем теоретической грамматики английского языка, умение их формулировать, анализировать, сопоставлять;
- умение в результате сопоставления выявлять точки зрения разных специалистов в области теоретической грамматики по разным проблемам, выбирать и обосновывать собственную точку зрения;
- умение логично и последовательно излагать знания по отдельным проблемам теоретической грамматики английского языка;
- знание основной общелингвистической терминологии и терминологии по теоретической грамматике, умение использовать ее при анализе и обсуждении проблем теоретической грамматики английского языка;
- умение самостоятельно работать с монографиями и научными публикациями по теоретической грамматике;
- умение самостоятельно подбирать и анализировать практический материал для иллюстрации основных положений теоретической грамматики;
- навыки сопоставления и анализа информации, полученной в рамках курсов теоретической и практической грамматики, а также в рамках других теоретических и практических филологических курсов

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