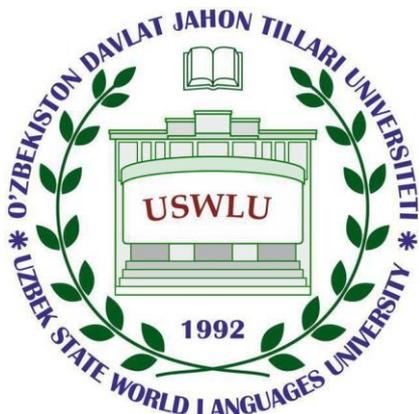


ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС
ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ
ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ 3-ФАКУЛЬТЕТИ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ НАЗАРИЙ АСПЕКТЛАРИ №3 КАФЕДРАСИ



НАЗАРИЙ ГРАММАТИКА

фанидан

ўқув-услубий мажмуа

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Шу жумладан :	
Маъруза	- 26 соат (5 семестр)
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I. Lesson materials

Маърузалар мазмуни

Lecture 1.

THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN MORPHOLOGICAL AND GENETIC TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES

Plan of the lecture:

1. *Definitions to the term "grammar". Two types of grammar.*
2. *Language families and groups*
3. *Germanic group of languages*
4. *The typology of non-related languages*

Key words: Germanic, Indo-European, typology, related, non-related.

In linguistics, **grammar** (from Greek: γραμματική) is the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes phonology, morphology, and syntax, often complemented by phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

Speakers of a language have a set of internalized rules^[1] for using that language and these rules constitute that language's grammar. The vast majority of the information in the grammar is – at least in the case of one's native language – acquired not by conscious study or instruction, but by observing other speakers. Much of this work is done during early childhood; learning a language later in life usually involves a greater degree of explicit instruction.^[2] Thus, grammar is the cognitive information underlying language use.

The term "grammar" can also be used to describe the rules that govern the linguistic behaviour of a group of speakers. The term "English grammar", therefore, may have several meanings. It may refer to the whole of English grammar, that is, to the grammars of all the speakers of the language, in which case, the term encompasses a great deal of variation.^[3] Alternatively, it may refer only to what is common to the grammars of all, or of the vast majority of English speakers (such as subject–verb–object word order in simple declarative sentences). Or it may refer to the rules of a particular, relatively well-defined variety of English (such as standard English for a particular region).

A specific description, study or analysis of such rules may also be referred to as a grammar. A reference book describing the grammar of a language is called a "reference grammar" or simply "a grammar" (see History of English grammars). A fully explicit grammar that exhaustively describes the grammatical constructions of a language is called a descriptive

grammar. This kind of linguistic description contrasts with linguistic prescription, an attempt to discourage or suppress some grammatical constructions, while promoting others. For example, preposition stranding occurs widely in Germanic languages and has a long history in English. John Dryden, however, objected to it (without explanation),^[4] leading other English speakers to avoid the construction and discourage its use.^[5]

Outside linguistics, the term *grammar* is often used in a rather different sense. In some respects, it may be used more broadly, including rules of spelling and punctuation, which linguists would not typically consider to form part of grammar, but rather as a part of orthography, the set of conventions used for writing a language. In other respects, it may be used more narrowly, to refer to prescriptive grammar only and excluding those aspects of a language's grammar that are not subject to variation or debate. Jeremy Butterfield claimed that, for non-linguists, "Grammar is often a generic way of referring to any aspect of English that people object to."

Morphological typology is a way of classifying the languages of the world (see linguistic typology) that groups languages according to their common morphological structures. The field organizes languages on the basis of how those languages form words by combining morphemes. Analytic languages contain very little inflection, instead relying on features like word order and auxiliary words to convey meaning. Synthetic languages, ones that are not analytic, are divided into two categories: agglutinative and fusional languages. Agglutinative languages rely primarily on discrete particles (prefixes, suffixes, and infixes) for inflection, while fusional languages "fuse" inflectional categories together, often allowing one word ending to contain several categories, such that the original root can be difficult to extract. A further subcategory of agglutinative languages are polysynthetic languages, which take agglutination to a higher level by constructing entire sentences, including nouns, as one word.

Analytic, fusional, and agglutinative languages can all be found in many regions of the world. However, each category is dominant in some families and regions and essentially nonexistent in others. Analytic languages encompass the Sino-Tibetan family, including Chinese, many languages in Southeast Asia, the Pacific, and West Africa, and a few of the Germanic languages. Fusional languages

encompass most of the Indo-European family—for example, French, Russian, and Hindi—as well as the Semitic family and a few members of the Uralic family. Most of the world's languages, however, are agglutinative, including the Turkic, Japonic, and Bantu languages and most families in the Americas, Australia, the Caucasus, and non-Slavic Russia. Constructed languages take a variety of morphological alignments.

The concept of discrete morphological categories has not been without criticism. Some linguists argue that most, if not all, languages are in a permanent state of transition, normally from fusional to analytic to agglutinative to fusional again. Others take issue with the definitions of the categories, arguing that they conflate several distinct, if related, variables.

Analytic languages

"I speak Vietnamese" in Vietnamese. Note the tonal, single-syllable nature of the words; this is frequent in analytic languages, i.e. ones in which there is little to no inflection and words stand on their own.

Analytic languages show a low ratio of morphemes to words; in fact, the correspondence is nearly one-to-one. Sentences in analytic languages are composed of independent root morphemes. Grammatical relations between words are expressed by separate words where they might otherwise be expressed by affixes, which are present to a minimal degree in such languages. There is little to no morphological change in words: they tend to be uninflected. Grammatical categories are indicated by word order (for example, inversion of verb and subject for interrogative sentences) or by bringing in additional words (for example, a word for "some" or "many" instead of a plural inflection like English *-s*).

Individual words carry a general meaning (root concept); nuances are expressed by other words. Finally, in analytic languages context and syntax are more important than morphology.

Analytic languages include some of the major East Asian languages, such as Chinese, and Vietnamese. Note that the ideographic writing systems of these

languages play a strong role in regimenting linguistic continuity according to an analytic, or isolating, morphology (cf. orthography).

Additionally, English is moderately analytic, and it and Afrikaans can be considered as some of the most analytic of all Indo-European languages. However, they are traditionally analyzed as fusional languages.

A related concept is the isolating language, one in which there is only one, or on average close to one, morpheme per word. Not all analytic languages are isolating; for example, Chinese and English possess many compound words, but contain few inflections for them.

Synthetic languages

Synthetic languages form words by affixing a given number of dependent morphemes to a root morpheme. The morphemes may be distinguishable from the root, or they may not. They may be fused with it or among themselves (in that multiple pieces of grammatical information may potentially be packed into one morpheme). Word order is less important for these languages than it is for analytic languages, since individual words express the grammatical relations that would otherwise be indicated by syntax. In addition, there tends to be a high degree of concordance (agreement, or cross-reference between different parts of the sentence). Therefore, morphology in synthetic languages is more important than syntax. Most Indo-European languages are moderately synthetic.

There are two subtypes of synthesis, according to whether morphemes are clearly differentiable or not. These subtypes are *agglutinative* and *fusional* (or *inflectional* or *flectional* in older terminology).

Fusional languages

In Polish, noun declension collapses several factors into one ending: number (only plural is shown), gender, animacy, and case.

Morphemes in fusional languages are not readily distinguishable from the root or among themselves. Several grammatical bits of meaning may be fused into one affix. Morphemes may also be expressed by internal phonological changes in the root (i.e. morphophonology), such as consonant gradation and vowel gradation, or

by suprasegmental features such as stress or tone, which are of course inseparable from the root.

The Indo-European and Semitic languages are the most typically cited examples of fusional languages.^[1] However, others have been described. For example, Navajo is sometimes categorized as a fusional language because its complex system of verbal affixes has become condensed and irregular enough that discerning individual morphemes is rarely possible.^{[2][3]} Some Uralic languages are described as fusional, particularly the Sami languages and Estonian. On the other hand, not all Indo-European languages are fusional; for example, Armenian and Persian are agglutinative, while English and Afrikaans lean more analytic.

Agglutinative languages

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

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

Most of the world's languages belong to language families. A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called the proto-language of that family. The major of that is Indo-European family. It is divided into several groups, which are also united genetically. One of them is Germanic group. English belongs to Germanic branch of Indo-European family. Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types –synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of "internal" grammar of the word. Here most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of "external" grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*).

The basic concepts in the morphological classification of languages are the morpheme and the word. The basic criteria for classification are the nature of the morphemes (lexical and grammatical) combined in a word; the method of

their combination, such as pre- or post positioning of grammatical morphemes (which has a direct relation to syntax) and agglutination, or fusion (related to the field of morphophonemics); and the syntactically related connection between the morpheme and the word (such as isolation, when morpheme = word, or the analytic or synthetic character of word formation and inflection).

Morphological classification seeks to describe not specific languages (in which several morphological types are always present), but basic structural phenomena and trends in languages.

Morphological structure of languages is just one way of grouping languages.

Isolating languages

The words in an isolating language are invariable. To put it another way, it is composed of free morphemes and so there are no morphemes to indicate information like grammatical number (eg plural) or tense (past, present, future). Mandarin Chinese is often quoted as an example of such a language (although some claim Vietnamese to be a better example). The transliterated sentence:

gou bú ài chī qīngcài

may be literally translated as:

dog not like eat vegetable

Depending on the context, it can mean any of the four following sentences:

the dog did not like to eat vegetables

the dogs do not like to eat vegetables

the dogs did not like to eat vegetables

dogs do not like to eat vegetables

Agglutinative languages

My dictionary gives the definition of agglutinate as "unite as with glue; (of language) combine simple words without change of form to express compound ideas". Textbook examples are usually based on Turkish or Swahili, of which we'll use the Turkish (Uzbek). In our example we'll use the following morphemes:

- lar = plural
- ning = possessive (eg his, her, its)
- dan = ablative (eg a grammatical "case" ending showing a source, eg from a house).

To complete our example, we need a Turkish noun, in this case ev which means "house". From this noun we can make the following words:

- ev: house
- evler: houses
- evi: his/her house

- evleri: his/her houses, their houses
- evden: from the house
- evlerden: from the houses
- evinden: from his/her house
- evlerinden: from his/her houses, from their houses

(Notice that the possessive morpheme *i* is regularly followed by *n* before *den*.)

The important thing about this example is to notice how the morphemes all represent a "unit of meaning" and how they remain absolutely identifiable within the structure of the words. This is in contrast to what happens in the last class: the inflecting languages.

Inflecting languages

The words in inflecting languages do show different forms and it is possible to break the words into smaller units and label them, in the same way that the Turkish example was presented above. However, the result is a very muddled and contradictory account. Usual examples are based on Latin and rely on a knowledge of the Latin grammatical case example, which most English undergraduates don't have. As a simple example, the Latin for "I love" is *amo*. This means that the ending *o* is used to express the meanings, first person ("I" or "we"), singular, present tense, and also other meanings.

Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types - synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word - most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of 'external' grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic - the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing.

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Lecture 2. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH LEVELS

Plan of the lecture:

1. *Language and speech levels*
2. *Primary and secondary levels*
3. *Units of levels*
4. *The difference between language and speech*

Key words: Level, basic, non-basic, unit, phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, minor, major, emic, ethic.

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone
2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex

4. Syntax - minor: sentence

5. Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;
- 2) Language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
- 3) Language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;
- 4) Language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound "l" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms:

morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: "lexeme" for language and "lex" for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between "phoneme" and "phone" and "morpheme" and "morph". "Lexeme" is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on. There may be "allolexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexemes" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morphemes are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "Sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern

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

- 1) Language is abstract and speech is concrete
- 2) Language is common, general for bearers while speech is individual
- 3) Language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes
- 4) Language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tends to be openness and endless. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess.

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

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

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day - He would practice English every day.*

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist

between the members of a paradigm: *man - men; play - played - will play - is playing*.

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group A PINT OF MILK the word PINT contrasts SR with A, OF, MILK; within the word

PINT - P, I, N and T are in **syntagmatic** relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate** and **predicative**.

a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you and me; They were tired but happy*.

b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach* κ *er* – morphological level; *a smart student* - word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses - sentence level.

c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

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

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

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types - synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word - most of grammatical meanings and grammatical

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

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

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

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Lecture 3.

THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Problems to be discussed

1. grammatical signals
2. grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction
3. The grammatical structure of a language

Key words: grammatical signals, grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction, grammatical structure of a language

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that “several actors acted upon some objects”. This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance". The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

The man landed the jet plane safely

N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes. The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

3. Function words -are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The Slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine...) are of this type. The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Languages may be synthetic and analytical to their grammatical structure. In synthetic languages, such as German, Greek, Polish, Russian, Italian, Spanish, Finnish, Turkish, Japanese, etc, the grammatical relations between words are expressed by means of inflections.

In analytical language (or isolating), such as English, the grammatical relations between words are expressed by means of form words and word order.

Analytical forms are mostly proper to verbs. An analytical verb-form consists of one or more form words, which have no lexical meaning and only express one or more of the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood and one notional word, generally infinitive or a participle: e.g. He has come, I am reading.

However, the structure of a language is never purely synthetic or purely analytical. Accordingly in the English language there are:

1. Endings:

-s in the third form singular in the Present Simple He speakS

-s in the plural of nouns GirlS

-s in the genitive case my brother'S book

-ed in the Past Simple worked

2. Inner flexion – man – men, speak – spoke

3. The synthetic forms of the Subjunctive Mood – were, be, have, etc.

One of the first lessons learned by the student of language or linguistics is that there is more to language than a simple vocabulary list. To learn a language, we must also learn its principles of **sentence structure**, and a linguist who is studying a language will generally be more interested in the structural principles than in the vocabulary per se."

"**Sentence structure** may ultimately be composed of many parts, but remember that the foundation of each sentence is the subject and the predicate. The subject is a word or a group of words that functions as a noun; the predicate is at least a verb and possibly includes objects and modifiers of the verb."

Meaning and Sentence Structure

"People are probably not as aware of **sentence structure** as they are of sounds and words, because sentence structure is abstract in a way that sounds and words are not. . . . At the same time, sentence structure is a central aspect of every sentence. . . .

"We can appreciate the importance of sentence structure by looking at examples within a single language. For instance, in English, the same set of words can convey different meanings if they are arranged in different ways. Consider the following:(5) The senators objected to the plans proposed by the generals.(6) The senators proposed the plans objected to by the generals. The

meaning of the sentence in (5) is quite different from that of (6), even though the only difference is the position of the words *objected to* and *proposed*. Although both sentences contain exactly the same words, the words are structurally related to each other differently; it is those differences in structure that account for the difference in meaning."

(Eva M. Fernández and Helen Smith Cairns, *Fundamentals of Psycholinguistics*. Wiley-Blackwell, 2011)

Information Structure: The Given-Before-New Principle

"It has been known since the Prague School of Linguistics that sentences can be divided into a part that anchors them in the preceding discourse ('old information') and a part that conveys new information to the listener. This communicative principle may be put to good use in the analysis of **sentence structure** by taking the boundary between old and new information as a clue to identifying a syntactic boundary. In fact, a typical SVO sentence such as *Sue has a boyfriend* can be broken down into the subject, which codes the given information, and the remainder of the sentence, which provides the new information. The old-new distinction thus serves to identify the VP [verb phrase] constituent in SVO sentences."

Producing and Interpreting Sentence Structures in Speech

"The **grammatical structure of a sentence** is a route followed with a purpose, a phonetic goal for a speaker, and a semantic goal for a hearer. Humans have a unique capacity to go very rapidly through the complex hierarchically organized processes involved in speech production and perception. When syntacticians draw structure on sentences they are adopting a convenient and appropriate shorthand for these processes. A linguist's account of the structure of a sentence is an abstract summary of a series of overlapping snapshots of what is common to the processes of producing and interpreting the sentence."

(James R. Hurford, *The Origins of Grammar: Language in the Light of Evolution II*. Oxford University Press, 2011)

The Most Important Thing to Know About Sentence Structure

"Linguists investigate **sentence structure** by inventing sentences, making small changes to them, and watching what happens. This means that the study of language belongs to the scientific tradition of using experiments to understand some part of our world. For example, if we make up a sentence (1) and then make a small change to it to get (2), we find that the second sentence is ungrammatical, as indicated by the asterisk. (1) I saw the white house. (2) *I saw the house white. "Why? One possibility is that it relates to the words themselves; perhaps the word *white* and the word *house* must always come in this order. But if we were to explain in this way we would need separate explanations for a very large number of words, including the

words in the sentences (3)-(6), which show the same pattern.(3) He read the new book. (4) *He read the book new. (5) We fed some hungry dogs.(6) *We fed some dogs hungry. "These sentences show us that whatever principle gives us the order of words, it must be based on the class of word, not on a specific word. The words *white*, *new*, and *hungry* are all a class of word called an adjective; the words *house*, *book*, and *dogs* are all a class of word called a noun. We could formulate a generalization, which holds true for the sentences in (1)-(6):(7) An adjective cannot immediately follow a noun. "A generalization . . . like (7) is an attempt to explain the principles by which a sentence is put together. One of the useful consequences of a generalization is to make a prediction which can then be tested, and if this prediction turns out to be wrong, then the generalization can be improved. . . . The generalization in (7) makes a prediction which turns out to be wrong, when we look at sentence (8).(8) I painted the house white. "Why is (8) grammatical while (2) is not, given that both end on the same sequence of *house white*? The answer is the most important thing to know about sentence structure . . . :*The grammaticality of a sentence depends not on the sequence of words but how the words are combined into phrases.*"

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Lecture 4.

THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Problems to be discussed

1. What operation is called "Morphemic analysis"?
2. Morpheme-morph-allomorph

3. Types of morphemes from the point of view of their:

a) function

b) number correlation between form and meaning

Key words: Morphemic analysis , morpheme-morph-allomorph, criteria to classify morphemes

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris "The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of "the same" element".

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they: have the same meaning; never occur in identical environments and have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics
Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett :

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:

they have the same meaning;

they are in non-contrastive distribution;

the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities, choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

tactical simplicity

morphophonemic simplicity

conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme.

There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion.

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

functional

number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are associated with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical - free and lexical - bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used

in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and so on. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical - grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical - bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical - free morphemes. The lexical - bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, - (e)s, -(e)d and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical - free and grammatical - bound. The grammatical - free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical - bound ones are usually attached to some lexical - free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl's bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask – asks

high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: "asks" is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection "s". In its counterpart there's no marker like "s" but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb "ask" is not in the third person, singular number. Such morphemes are called "zero". In the second example the adjective "higher" is in

the comparative degree, because of the "- er" while its counterpart "high" is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it's a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there's a marker which has not a concrete meaning, i.e. there's neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state - s - man. The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But "s" has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

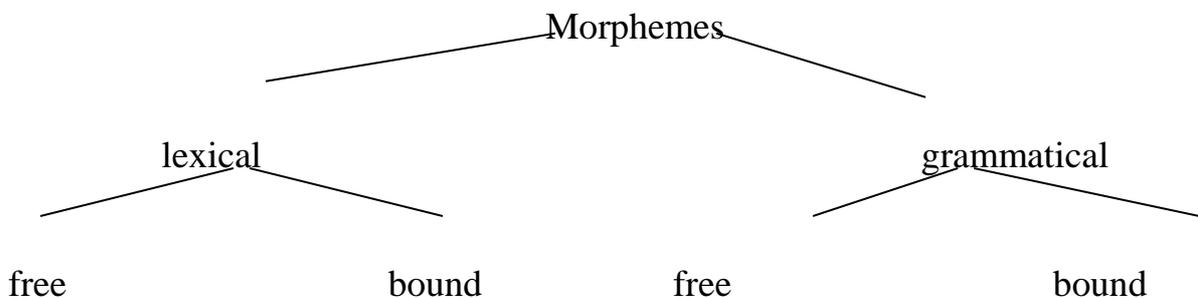
In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence "is" and "- ing" express one meaning: a continuous action. Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and content.

The first one can be shown in the following scheme:



The second one can also be shown in the same way:

Morphemes

	overt	Zero	empty	discontinuous
Form	+	-	+	+-
meaning	+	+	-	+

Who can tell me the difference between language and speech? *Language* is a

collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. Speech is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess.

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

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Lecture 5. THE PROBLEM OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Problems to be discussed

1. *grammatical category*
2. *types of grammatical categories.*

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

There are 3 fundamental notions: grammatical form, grammatical meaning, and grammatical category. Notional words possess some morphemic features expressing grammatical meanings. They determine the grammatical form of the word.

Grammatical form is not confined to an individual meaning of the word because grammatical meaning is very abstract & general ex: oats-wheat: The grammatical form of oats is clearly plural and grammatical form of wheat is singular, but we can't say that oats are more than one & wheat is one. So here we say that oats is grammatical. Plural & wheat is grammatical singular. There is no clear one-to-one correspondence between grammatical category of singular & plural and counting them in reality in terms of "one" and "more than one".

A very vivid example confirming the rightness of this statement is connected with the category of gender with biological sex ex: bull-cow, so the grammatical form presents a division of a word of the principle of expressing a certain grammatical meaning.

Grammatical meaning is very abstractive generalized meaning, which is linguistically expressed. ex: Peter's head -the grammatical meaning of the category of case showing the relations between part and a whole.

Grammatical meaning is always expressed either explicitly or implicitly. For instance: The book reads well here the grammatical meaning of passivity is expressed implicitly.

Grammatical meaning is a system of expressing the grammatical meaning through the paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms-expressed by grammatical opposition, which can be of different types:

Private

Gradual-large-larger-largest

Equipollent-am is are

Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number – singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** – book::books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural. Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

The word as a grammatical unit has its form (grammatical form) and meaning (lexical and grammatical). Grammatical forms of words (word forms) are typically constructed by morphemes added synthetically, or structurals added analytically:

Number: *book – books, family – families, leaf – leaves.*

Case: *my sister's children, the title of the book, the students' papers.*

Aspect: *was drawing – drew, repaired – have repaired – have been repairing.*

Degrees of comparison: *cold – colder – the coldest, difficult – more difficult – the most difficult, less interesting – the least interesting.*

By grammatical forms we understand variants of a word having the same lexical meaning but differing grammatically. In other words, the grammatical form (grameme) is the total of formal means to render a particular grammatical meaning.

There are the following ways of changing grammatical forms of words:

- The use of affixes as word changing morphemic elements added to the root of the word: e(s) (the plural of nouns, the possessive of nouns, the 3rd person singular of Present Simple); ing(Present Participle, Gerund); er/est (Comparative and Superlative Degrees); ed(the Past Simple of the Indicative Mood, the Subjunctive Mood, Past Participle).

- Sound interchange as the use of different root sounds in grammatical forms of a word, which may be either consonants or vowels (e.g. *speak – spoke, crisis – crises, write – wrote, wife – wives, analysis – analyses*).
- Suppletivity as creating grammatical forms of a word coming from different roots (e.g. *far – further, he – him, bad – worst, was – been*).
- Analytical forms being made up of two components: a notional word used as an unchanged element carrying a lexical meaning and a structural changed grammatically but expressing no lexical meaning (e.g. *will be reading, can sing, will be able to translate, would bring, less expensive, the most beautiful*).

Grammatical forms being on the plane of expression (form) and possessing morphemic features, expressed either syntactically or analytically, convey certain grammatical meanings being on the plane of content (meaning) shaped in morphology as meanings of number, case, degree, voice, tense, etc. The system of grammatical forms of a word is called a paradigm with paradigmatic lines, the elements of which build up typically the so called privative morphological opposition based on a morphological differential feature (synthetical or analytical) present in its strong (marked) member and absent in its weak (unmarked) member. Compare: zero::Ved; zero::shall/willV; zero::Ving. Of minor types is an equipollent opposition (person forms of the verb ‘be’: am – is – are) and a gradual opposition (zero::adjer::adjest). Thus a grammatical paradigm is represented by the opposition of marked and non-marked members specifically connected with paradigmatic relations in order to express number, tense, mood, case, etc. The general grammatical meaning of two or more grammatical forms in a paradigm opposed to each other generates a grammatical category. The evidence is seen in the following examples:

the word forms ‘*student, book*’ denote singularity, while ‘*books, students*’ denote plurality; as opposed to each other in the paradigmatic series, they have one grammatical meaning, that of number; thus the opposition of grammatical forms makes up the category of number;

the word forms ‘*swims, is working*’ indicate reference to present including the moment of speaking, whereas ‘*swam, was working*’ indicate reference to past excluding the moment of speaking; and the opposition of grammatical forms in the paradigmatic series having the grammatical meaning of reference to the moment of speaking makes up the category of tense.

Taking into account the given assumptions, the grammatical category is defined as a system, expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms, analytical or synthetical, which makes the specific peculiarity of the language.

Key words:

levels of grammatical description уровни грамматического описания

constituent part конституирующая часть

grammatical system грамматическая система

prescriptive предписывающая без объяснения

explanatory объяснительная

kernel ядерная

thema тема (известная информация)

rheme рема (новая информация)

informative value информативная значимость

speech act речевой акт

coherent целостный

cohesive связный

grammatical formation of utterance грамматическая организация высказывания

grammatical structure of language грамматическая структура языка

coherent system целостная система

morpheme морфема

word слово

phrase фраза

sentence предложение

grammatical unit грамматическая единица

word form словоформа
morphological морфологический
categorical features категориальные признаки
parts of speech части речи
communicative unit коммуникативная единица
structural unit структурная единица
nominative unit номинативная единица
segmental сегментный
Morphology Морфология
Syntax Синтаксис
subject matter предмет изучения
paradigm парадигма
grammatical structure of language грамматическая структура языка
synthetical синтетический
analytical аналитический
grameme грамма (словоформа с грамматическим значением)
inflection инфлексия
affixation аффиксация
suppletivity суплетивизм
grammatical form грамматическая форма
grammatical meaning грамматическое значение
grammatical category грамматическая категория
functional words функциональные слова
auxiliary вспомогательный глагол
article артикль
preposition предлог
fixed word order фиксированный порядок слов
grammatical relations грамматические отношения
Number Число
Case Падеж

Aspect Вид
 Degrees of comparison Степени сравнения
 root of the word корень слова
 plural множественное число
 possessive притяжательный падеж
 3rd person singular 3 лицо ед. число
 sound change чередование
 analytical form аналитическая форма
 notional word знаменательное слово
 paradigmatic line парадигматический ряд
 privative morphological opposition привативная морфологическая оппозиция
 strong (marked) member сильный\маркированный компонент
 weak(unmarked)member слабый\немаркированный компонент
 equipollent opposition эквиполентная оппозиция
 gradual opposition последовательная оппозиция
 paradigmatic relations парадигматические отношения
 tense грамматическое время
 mood наклонение
 case падеж
 singularity единичность
 plurality множественность
 reference соотнесенность

Some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d ...

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements.

Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like *-s*, *-ed*, *-d* are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g. He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall*, *will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite - invited - shall invite* we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes *-s*, *-ed*.

1. The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings - lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun '*table*' has the grammatical meaning of a subclass - countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of verbiality - the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives - qualitiveness - the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality - the ability to denote quality of qualities.

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

Literature

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Lecture 6:

PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR TYPES. CRITERIA TO IDENTIFY THE PARTS OF SPEECH. EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN APPROACHES.

Problems to be discussed

1. *contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech*
2. *structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)*
3. *notional and functional parts of speech*

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre - structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, O. Curme, B. Ilyish and other grammarians).

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution (Ch. Fries, W. Francis, A. Hill and others).

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25)

Literature

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Lecture 7.

NOUNS AS A PARTS OF SPEECH. THEIR GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES.

Problems to be discussed

4. *nouns as a part of speech*
5. *the grammatical categories of nouns*
 - number*
 - case*
6. *the meaning of gender in Modern English*
7. *gender and sex*

Key words: *nouns as a part of speech, the grammatical categories of nouns, number, case, gender and sex*

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The nouns are classified into a separate word - group because:

1. they all have the same lexical - grammatical meaning :
substance / thing
2. according to their form - they've two grammatical categories:
number and case
3. they all have typical stem-building elements:
- er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...
4. typical combinability with other words:
most often left-hand combinability
5. function - the most characteristic feature of nouns is - they can be observed in all syntactic functions but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

Literature

1. *Iriskulov M., Kuldashev A. A course in theoretical English Grammar. T., 2008*
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Lecture 8:

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY OF DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Problems to be discussed

1. *the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech*
2. *the types of adjectives*
3. *the grammatical category of degrees of comparison*
4. *the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives*
5. *substantivization of adjectives*
6. *the characteristic features of the adverbs as a part of speech*

Key words: *adjectives, the grammatical category of degrees of comparison, substantivization of adjectives, adverbs, types of adverbs, circumstantial, qualitative, quantitative.*

The Adjectives

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech
- the types of adjectives
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives
- substantivization of adjective
- general characteristics of adverbs

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

1. their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;
2. from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;
3. from the point of view of their combinability they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word "one":

a white horse. The horse is white.
The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red.

Literature

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Lecture 9:

PRONOUNS AND THEIR CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES

Problems to be discussed

- 1) pronouns,
- 2) types of pronouns
- 3) characteristic features of pronouns

Pronouns are grouped into one part of speech because of their meaning which is extremely general.

Pronouns are serving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances and so on not by naming or describing them, but by indicating them.

We can't apply the five grouping-requirements for classifying the pronouns as a separate part of speech.

Despite of the meaning of pronouns we can't of the unity of all the words as belonging to and the same part of speech.

From the morphological view-point we can say that they have the case category, but even in this respect we'll have to divide all the pronouns into three groups:

pronouns which have nominative and objective case system, pronouns that have common and genitive case system and pronouns that have no case system at all.

Therefore Khaimovich and Rogovskaya do not treat pronouns as a separate part of speech. They treat them as a collection of words correlated with different parts of speech, which accounts for their not being as a separate part of speech. Now we'll get down to some peculiar features of pronouns.

Literature

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Lecture 10. VERB AS A PART OF SPEECH IN MODERN ENGLISH

Problems to be discussed

1. *the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech*
2. *verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech*
3. *the types of verbs*
4. *the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.*

Key words: *Regular verbs. Notional verbs. Function verbs. Link verbs. Modal verbs. Auxiliaries.*

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like *to read, to live, to go, to jump* are called verbs because of their following features.

1. they express the meanings of action and state;
2. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;
3. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function – predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate; they may be part of the predicate;
4. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical function of verbs in speech;
5. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:
postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify...)
-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize...)
-ate (activate, captivate...)
prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant...)
mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate...)
un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown...)
de- (depose, depress, derange...) and so on.

Literature

1. *Iriskulov M., Kuldashev A. A course in theoretical English Grammar. T., 2008*
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Lecture 11.

TYPES OF LINGUISTIC RELATIONS BETWEEN WORDS. PARADIGMATIC AND SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONS AND THEIR TYPES.

Problems to be discussed

1. Types of linguistic relations between words
2. Paradigmatic relations and their types.
3. Syntagmatic relations and their types.

Key words: *linguistic relations between words, paradigmatic relations, syntagmatic relations, semantic, formal, functional relations, coordinate, subordinate and predicative relations.*

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

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day - He would practice English every day.*

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist

between the members of a paradigm: *man - men; play - played - will play - is playing*.

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

Literature

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Lecture 12: SYNTAX. IT'S SUBJECT-MATTER. SYNTAX - MINOR AND SYNTAX - MAJOR.

Problems to be discussed

1. *subject - matter of syntax*
2. *syntax-minor and syntax-major*
3. *the types of syntactical relations: a) coordination, b) subordination, c) predication: primary and secondary predication*
4. *the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents:*
 - a) *agreement,*
 - b) *government*
 - c) *collocation*
5. *word-combinations and their types*

Key words: *syntax, paradigmatic, syntagmatic, subordination, coordination, predication, sentence*

The Subject – Matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two parts: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure. These units, sentence and text, have a communicative function. The subject-matter of syntax are these communicative units: sentence and text.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common *-ing* ending);

b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem “ask” is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:

- 1) A tall boy came in.
- 2) A boy came in.
- 3) Tall came in.

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

- 4) Pens and pencils were purchased.
- 5) Pens were purchased.
- 6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

- 7) He came ...
- 8) *He ...
- 9) * ... came or
- 10) I knew he had come
- 11) * I knew he
- 12) * I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

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Lecture 13:

SENTENCES AND THEIR TYPES. THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES FROM THE STRUCTURAL POINT OF VIEW. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Problems to be discussed

1. *definition of sentence*
 6. *the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements*
 7. *the problem of one-member sentences*
 8. *the problem of elliptical sentences*

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

«Предложение – минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему» (14)

“The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose”

The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: “The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition” (15)

“A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

“В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг друга к выполнению действия.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Literature

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АМАЛИЙ МАШҒУЛОТЛАРНИНГ (СЕМИНАР) МАТЕРИАЛЛАРИ MATERIALS FOR PRACTICAL (SEMINAR) CLASSES

5.1. СЕМИНАР МАШҒУЛОТЛАРИ РЕЖАСИ

PLAN FOR SEMINAR CLASSES

№	Seminar topics	No of hours	Month
1.	The place of the English language in genetic and morphological typology of languages	2	September
2.	Language and Speech Levels	2	September
3.	The problem of grammatical categories	2	September

4.	The problem of parts of speech	2	September
5.	Verb as a part of speech in modern English	2	October
6.	Adverbs. Statives. Pronouns	2	October
7	Modern English syntax and sentence	2	October
8.	General principles of grammatical analysis	2	October
9.	Cognitive aspect of modern English grammar	2	November
10.	The place of the English language in genetic and morphological typology of languages	2	November
MID-TERM TEST			November
11.	Types of linguistic relations between words. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations and their types.	2	November
12.	Syntax. It's subject - matter. Syntax - minor and syntax - major.	2	November
13.	Sentences and their types. The classification of sentences from the structural point of view. Simple sentences.	2	December
14.	Composite sentences and their classification		December
	Simple sentences.		
15	Composite sentences and their classification		December
	Simple sentences.		
FINAL TEST			February

5.2. Семинар машғулотлари мазмуни ва Seminar contents and practical exercises

Seminar 1. THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN MORPHOLOGICAL AND GENETIC TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES

Topics for discussion:

1. *Definitions to the term "grammar". Two types of grammar.*
2. *Language families and groups*

3. Germanic group of languages

4. The typology of non-related languages

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

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

Most of the world's languages belong to language families. A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called the proto-language of that family. The major of that is Indo-European family. It is divided into several groups, which are also united genetically. One of them is Germanic group. English belongs to Germanic branch of Indo-European family. Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types –synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of "internal" grammar of the word. Here most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of "external" grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*).

The basic concepts in the morphological classification of languages are the morpheme and the word. The basic criteria for classification are the nature of the morphemes (lexical and grammatical) combined in a word; the method of their combination, such as pre- or post positioning of grammatical morphemes (which has a direct relation to syntax) and agglutination, or fusion (related to the field of morphophonemics); and the syntactically related connection between the morpheme and the word (such as isolation, when morpheme = word, or the analytic or synthetic character of word formation and inflection).

Morphological classification seeks to describe not specific languages (in which several morphological types are always present), but basic structural phenomena and trends in languages.

Morphological structure of languages is just one way of grouping languages.

Isolating languages

The words in an isolating language are invariable. To put it another way, it is composed of free morphemes and so there are no morphemes to indicate

information like grammatical number (eg plural) or tense (past, present, future). Mandarin Chinese is often quoted as an example of such a language (although some claim Vietnamese to be a better example). The transliterated sentence:

gou bú ài chi qingcài

may be literally translated as:

dog not like eat vegetable

Depending on the context, it can mean any of the four following sentences:

the dog did not like to eat vegetables

the dogs do not like to eat vegetables

the dogs did not like to eat vegetables

dogs do not like to eat vegetables

Agglutinative languages

My dictionary gives the definition of agglutinate as "unite as with glue; (of language) combine simple words without change of form to express compound ideas". Textbook examples are usually based on Turkish or Swahili, of which we'll use the Turkish (Uzbek). In our example we'll use the following morphemes:

- lar = plural
- ning = possessive (eg his, her, its)
- dan = ablative (eg a grammatical "case" ending showing a source, eg from a house).

To complete our example, we need a Turkish noun, in this case ev which means "house". From this noun we can make the following words:

- ev: house
- evler: houses
- evi: his/her house
- evleri: his/her houses, their houses
- evden: from the house
- evlerden: from the houses
- evinden: from his/her house
- evlerinden: from his/her houses, from their houses

(Notice that the possessive morpheme i is regularly followed by n before den.)

The important thing about this example is to notice how the morphemes all represent a "unit of meaning" and how they remain absolutely identifiable within the structure of the words. This is in contrast to what happens in the last class: the inflecting languages.

Inflecting languages

The words in inflecting languages do show different forms and it is possible to break the words into smaller units and label them, in the same way that the Turkish example was presented above. However, the result is a very muddled and contradictory account. Usual examples are based on Latin and rely on a knowledge of the Latin grammatical case example, which most English undergraduates don't have. As a simple example, the Latin for "I love" is *amo*. This means that the ending *o* is used to express the meanings, first person ("I" or "we"), singular, present tense, and also other meanings.

Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types - synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word - most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of 'external' grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic - the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing.

Seminar 2. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH LEVELS

Topics for discussion:

- 1. Language and speech levels*
- 2. Primary and secondary levels*
- 3. Units of levels*
- 4. The difference between language and speech*

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence),

others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word - combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone
2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex
4. Syntax - minor: sentence
5. Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".(12)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".(12)

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;
- 2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
- 3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;
- 4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that

precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound "l" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: "lexeme" for language and "lex" for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between "phoneme" and "phone" and "morpheme" and "morph". "Lexeme" is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on.

There may be "allolexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allolexes are lexes that have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexemes" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morphemes are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

The abstract notion "sentence" of language can have concrete its representation in speech which is also called "Sentence" due to the absence of the special term. Example: "An idea of writing a letter" on the abstract language level can have its concrete representation in speech: John writes a letter. A letter is written by John.

Since one and the same idea is expressed in two different forms they are called "allo - sentences". Some authors call them grammatical synonyms. Thus, sentence is language and speech units on the syntax - minor level, which has a communicative function.

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for

morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

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

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete
- 2) language is common, general for bearers while speech is individual
- 3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes
- 4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tends to be openness and endless. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and a *set of rules* how to play chess.

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

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into paradigmatic relations with all the units that can also occur in the same

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

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day - He would practice English every day.*

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man - men; play - played - will play - is playing.*

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* contrasts SR with *A, OF, MILK*; within the word

PINT - *P, I, N* and *T* are in **syntagmatic** relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate, subordinate and predicative**.

a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you and me; They were tired but happy.*

b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach* κ *er* – morphological level; *a smart student* - word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses - sentence level.

c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

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

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

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

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

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First of all, it is the main expressive unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of

the sphere of 'language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides - the content and expression sides: concept and sound form.

Seminar 3. THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Topics for discussion:

4. grammatical signals
5. grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction
6. The grammatical structure of a language

Key words: grammatical signals, grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction, grammatical structure of a language

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that "several actors acted upon some objects". This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance".

The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

The man landed the jet plane safely

N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

So we come to a conclusion that the basic means of the grammatical structure of language are: a) sentence structure; b) grammatical word classes.

In connection with this grammar is divided into two parts: grammar which deals with sentence structure and grammar which deals with grammatical word - classes.

The first is syntax and the second - morphology.

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are

rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine...) are of this type. The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Seminar 4. THE MORPHEMIC STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Topics for discussion

1. What operation is called "Morphemic analysis"?
2. Morpheme-morph-allomorph
3. Types of morphemes from the point of view of their:
 - a) function
 - b) number correlation between form and meaning

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris "The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of "the same" element".

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with

constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they:

have the same meaning;

never occur in identical environments and

have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics

Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett :

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:

they have the same meaning;

they are in non-contrastive distribution;

the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities, choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

tactical simplicity

morphophonemic simplicity

conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion.

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

functional

number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are associated with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical - free and lexical - bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like-friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and so on. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical - grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical - bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their dependence on lexical - free morphemes. The lexical - bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, - (e)s, -(e)d and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical - free and grammatical - bound. The grammatical - free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical - bound

ones are usually attached to some lexical - free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl's bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask – asks

high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: "asks" is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection "s". In its counterpart there's no marker like "s" but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb "ask" is not in the third person, singular number. Such morphemes are called "zero". In the second example the adjective "higher" is in the comparative degree, because of the "- er" while its counterpart "high" is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it's a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there's a marker which has not a concrete meaning, i.e. there's neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state - s - man. The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But "s" has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

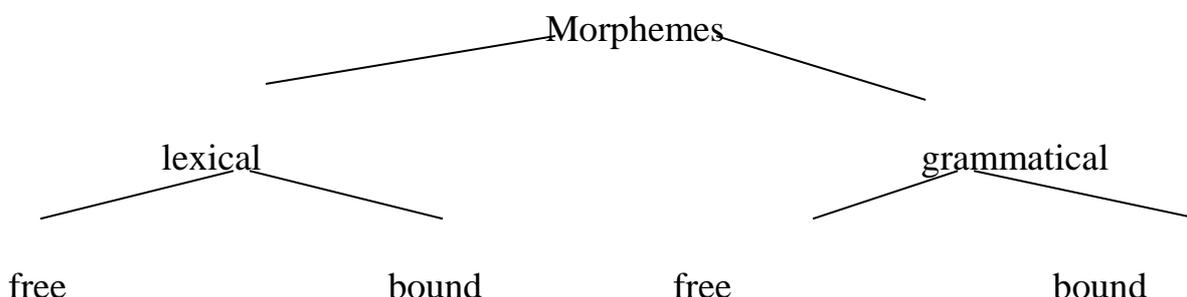
In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence "is" and "- ing" express one meaning: a continuous action. Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and content.

The first one can be shown in the following scheme:



The second one can also be shown in the same way:

Morphemes

	overt	Zero	empty	discontinuous
form	+	-	+	+-
meaning	+	+	-	+

Who can tell me the difference between language and speech? *Language* is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. Speech is closely connected with language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and a *set of rules* how to play chess.

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

Seminar 5. THE PROBLEM OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Topics for discussion:

1. *grammatical category*

2. *types of grammatical categories.*

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

Some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d ...

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements.

Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical.

The elements like -s, -ed, -d are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g. He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall*, *will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite - invited - shall invite* we can see that the function of shall is similar to that of grammatical morphemes -s, -ed.

1. The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings - lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun '*table*' has the grammatical meaning of a subclass - countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of verbiality - the ability

to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives - qualitiveness - the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality - the ability to denote quality of qualities.

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

Seminar 6: PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR TYPES. CRITERIA TO IDENTIFY THE PARTS OF SPEECH. EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN APPROACHES.

Topics for discussion:

- 1. contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech*
- 2. structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)*
- 3. notional and functional parts of speech*

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre - structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, O. Curme, B. Ilyish and other grammarians).

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution (Ch. Fries, W. Francis, A. Hill and others).

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25)

Seminar 7. NOUNS AS A PARTS OF SPEECH. THEIR GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES.

Topics for discussion:

- 1. nouns as a part of speech*
- 2. the grammatical categories of nouns*
number
case
- 3. the meaning of gender in Modern English*
- 4. gender and sex*

Key words: *nouns as a part of speech, the grammatical categories of nouns, number, case, gender and sex*

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The nouns are classified into a separate word - group because:

6. they all have the same lexical - grammatical meaning :
substance / thing
7. according to their form - they've two grammatical categories:

number and case

8. they all have typical stem-building elements:

- er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...

9. typical combinability with other words:

most often left-hand combinability

10. function - the most characteristic feature of nouns is - they can be observed in all syntactic functions but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

Seminar 8: ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS. THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY OF DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Topics for discussion

7. the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech

8. the types of adjectives

9. the grammatical category of degrees of comparison

10. the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives

11. substantivization of adjectives

12. the characteristic features of the adverbs as a part of speech

The Adjectives

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech
- the types of adjectives
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives
- substantivization of adjective
- general characteristics of adverbs

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

1. their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;
2. from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;
3. from the point of view of their combinability they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word “one”:

a white horse. The horse is white.

The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red.

Seminar 9: PRONOUNS AND THEIR CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES

Topics for discussion

- 1) pronouns,
- 2) types of pronouns
- 3) characteristic features of pronouns

Pronouns are grouped into one part of speech because of their meaning which is extremely general.

Pronouns are serving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances and so on not by naming or describing them, but by indicating them.

We can't apply the five grouping-requirements for classifying the pronouns as a separate part of speech.

Despite of the meaning of pronouns we can't of the unity of all the words as belonging to and the same part of speech.

From the morphological view-point we can say that they have the case category, but even in this respect we'll have to divide all the pronouns into three groups: pronouns which have nominative and objective case system, pronouns that have common and genitive case system and pronouns that have no case system at all.

Therefore Khaimovich and Rogovskaya do not treat pronouns as a separate part of speech. They treat them as a collection of words correlated with different parts of speech, which accounts for their not being as a separate part of speech. Now we'll get down to some peculiar features of pronouns.

Seminar 10 . VERB AS A PART OF SPEECH IN MODERN ENGLISH

Topics for discussion

5. *the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech*
6. *verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech*
7. *the types of verbs*
8. *the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.*

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like *to read, to live, to go, to jump* are called verbs because of their following features.

6. they express the meanings of action and state;
7. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;
8. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function – predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate; they may be part of the predicate;

9. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical function of verbs in speech;

10. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:

postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify...)

-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize...)

-ate (activate, captivate...)

prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant...)

mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate...)

un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown...)

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

Seminar 11. TYPES OF LINGUISTIC RELATIONS BETWEEN WORDS. PARADIGMATIC AND SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONS AND THEIR TYPES.

Topics for discussion;

1. Types of linguistic relations between words
2. Paradigmatic relations and their types.
3. Syntagmatic relations and their types.

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into paradigmatic relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words

bottle, cup, etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the, this, one, same*, etc. According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic, formal and functional**.

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading. He used to practice English every day - He would practice English every day.*

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man - men; play - played - will play - is playing.*

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

Seminar 12: SYNTAX. IT'S SUBJECT-MATTER. SYNTAX - MINOR AND SYNTAX - MAJOR.

Topics for discussion;

1. *subject - matter of syntax*
2. *syntax-minor and syntax-major*
3. *the types of syntactical relations: a) coordination, b) subordination, c) predication: primary and secondary predication*
4. *the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents:*
 - a) *agreement,*
 - b) *government*
 - c) *collocation*
5. *word-combinations and their types*

The Subject – Matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two parts: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure. These units, sentence and text, have a communicative function. The subject-matter of syntax are these communicative units: sentence and text.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common *-ing* ending);

b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem “ask” is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:

1) A tall boy came in.

2) A boy came in.

3) Tall came in.

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

4) Pens and pencils were purchased.

5) Pens were purchased.

6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

7) He came ...

8) *He ...

9) * ... came or

10) I knew he had come

11) * I knew he

12) * I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens: and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

Seminar 13: SENTENCES AND THEIR TYPES. THE CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES FROM THE STRUCTURAL POINT OF VIEW. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

Topics for discussion:

- 1. definition of sentence*
- 2. the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements*
- 3. the problem of one-member sentences*
- 4 the problem of elliptical sentences*

There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

«Предложение – минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему» (14)

“The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose”

The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: “The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition” (15)

“A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

“В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг другу к выполнению действия.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Seminar 14: Composite sentences and their classification

Topics for discussion;

1. *subject - matter of syntax*
2. *syntax-minor and syntax-major*
3. *the types of syntactical relations: a) coordination, b) subordination, c) predication: primary and secondary predication*

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

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- 4) Pens and pencils were purchased.
- 5) Pens were purchased.
- 6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

- 7) He came ...
- 8) *He ...
- 9) * ... came or
- 10) I knew he had come
- 11) * I knew he
- 12) * I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens; and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

SEMINAR 15: Simple sentences

Topics for discussion:

1. *definition of sentence*
2. *the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements*

According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity.

Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it. Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them.

My mother kept a little day-school for the girls.

Nobody wants a baby to cry.

A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it's a room filled with love.

Thus, by sentence we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation pattern.

The Types of Sentences

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of them. B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles: 1) types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative. 2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences: simple and composite.

Ch. Fries (31), (32) gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.

The Communicative utterances are in their turn divided into 3 groups:

I. Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only:

A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.

II. Utterances regularly eliciting "action" responses, sometimes accompanied by one of a limited list of oral responses: requests or commands.

III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.

L. Barkhudarov (3) compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural viewpoint. His classification will represent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence and marked one is the transformed sentence.

The most important oppositions within the limits of simple sentences are the following two:

1. Imperative (request) and non-imperative sentences.

2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Summarizing the issue about the classification of sentences in the English language, we can say that this can be done from different points of view. But the most important criteria so are as follows:

1. the criterion of the structure of sentences

2. the criterion of the aim of the speaker

3. the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

From the point of view of the first criterion sentences fall under two subtypes: simple and composite.

The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.

According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall under declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

Below we shall consider these types of sentence.

Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker

The declarative sentences: This type of sentence may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences).

- they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.
- they usually have the falling an intonation
- usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative Sentences

There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English - general questions (yes- or no- questions) and special (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversions:

Are we staying here?

Where are we staying?

Besides, the first one has a special (rising) intonation pattern. The second one (wh-question) has interrogative words. But the intonation pattern of wh-questions is identical with that of the affirmative sentences.

And it is important to point out that the interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).

Exclamatory Sentences

The peculiar features of these sentences are:

1. exclamatory sentences usually express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it;
2. in their structure they have such introductory words as *what* and *how*:
Ex. What a lovely night! How beautiful it is here!
3. they are always in the declarative form;
4. there's usually no inversion;
5. they are pronounced with a falling intonation;

Imperative Sentences

The imperative sentences are opposed to non-imperative ones because.

1. In imperative sentences the predicate is used in only one form-in the imperative one, while in non-imperative sentences predicate may be used in any form except the imperative.

2. In imperative sentences no modal verb is used.

3. The imperative sentences are most often directed to the second person.

4. The subject of the imperative sentences are almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, that is, elliptically.

5. The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.

The above said is quite sufficient to characterize the structure of imperative sentences to be specific and distinct from that of the structure of non-imperative sentences.

Elliptical Sentences

The problem of elliptical sentences has been and still is one of the most important and at the same time difficult problems of syntax.

The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to H. Kruisinga's (36) concept "Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word.

Some words regularly form a sentence, such as "yes" or "no"; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only..."

As we stated above elliptical sentences are also the result of transformation of kernel sentences. Since transforms are derived from kernel sentences they must be considered in connection with the latter.

L. Barkhudarov (3) looks upon the sentences like «Вечер», «Утро» and so on as two-member sentences. Really, if we isolate such utterances from the language system it will not be divisible. If an investigator wants to be objective he cannot neglect the language system. Any unit of any language is in interdependence of the other units of the language. Since the overwhelming majority of sentences are two-member ones as e.g. «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the above-mentioned utterances are also two-member ones. In sentences «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the predicates are expressed explicitly, while in «Вечер», «Утро» the predicates are expressed by zero alternants of the verb «БЫТЬ». M. Blokh is conception is very close to this (5), (6).

The classification of elliptical sentences may be based on the way of their explication. By explication we understand the replacement of the zero alternant of this or that word by the explicit one. There are two kinds of explication:

1. Syntagmatically restored elliptical sentences - when the explicit alternant of the elliptical sentence is found in the same context where the elliptical sentence is:

One was from Maine; the other from California.

If you have no idea where Clive might be, I certainly haven't. (Nancy Buckingham).

2. Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentence - when the explicit alternant of the zero form is not found in the context where the ellipsis is used but when it is found in similar language constructions, e.g.

Stop and speak to me. (Galsworthy)

You listen to me, Horace. (Steinback)

The Problem of One -Member Sentences

"A sentence is the expression of a self-contained and complete thought". Quite often the terms are applied to linguistic forms lack completeness in one or more respects. It will of course be readily agreed that sentences like "All that glitters is not gold" and "Two multiplied by two are four", are formally and notionally complete and self-contained.

But in everyday intercourse utterances of this type are infrequent in comparison with the enormous number which rely upon the situation or upon the linguistic context - to make their intention clear.

In the extract Strove asked him if he had seen Strickland. "He is ill", he said. "Didn't you know?" – "Seriously?" – "Very, I understand", to Fries "Seriously" is a sentence - equivalent. They all seem to be a complete communication. But it can not be denied that each of them, either through pronouns (he, him) or through omissions, depend heavily on what has been said immediately before it is spoken; in fact the last three would be unthinkable outside a linguistic context. Properly speaking, therefore, omissions must be said to effect connection between sentences (31), (32).

Sentences with syntactic items left out are natural, for omissions are inherent in the very use of language. "In all speech activities there are three things to be distinguished: expression, suppression, and impression.

Expression is what the speaker gives, suppression is what the speaker does not give, though he might have given it, and impression is what the hearer receives". (35)

Grammarians have often touched upon omissions of parts of sentences. But it is difficult to find an opinion which is shared by the majority of linguists.

When considering the types of sentences some grammarians recognize the existence of two-member, one-member and elliptical sentences. The two-member sentences are sentences which have the subject and the predicate. However, language is a phenomenon where one cannot foresee the structure of it without detailed analysis. There are sentences which cannot be described in terms of two-member sentences. We come across to sentences which do not contain both the subject and the predicate. "There's usually one primary part and the other could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change of the structure of the sentence", (Ilyish) Fire! Night. Come on!

As Ilyish (15) puts it, it is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not be termed subject in some case (as in Fire! Night...) or predicate in some other (Come on!; Why not stay here?) There are grammarians who keep to such a conception. Russian Academician V.V. Vinogradov (10) considers that grammatical subject and predicate are correlative notions and that the terms lose their meaning outside their relation to each other. He suggests the term "main part".

Thus, one member sentence is a sentence which has no separate subject and predicate but one main only instead. B. Ilyish (15) considers some types of such sentences:

- 1) with main part of noun (in stage directions);
Night. A lady's bed-chamber
- 2) Imperative sentences with no subject of the action mentioned:
Come down, please.

Infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. In these sentences the main part is expressed by an infinitive. Such sentences are usually emotional:

Oh, to be in a forest in May!

Why not go there immediately?

B.A. Ilyish (15) states that these sentences should not be considered as elliptical ones, since sentences like:

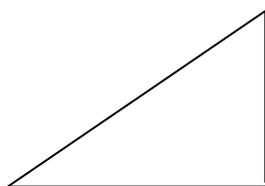
Why should not we go there immediately? - is stylistically different from the original one.

By elliptical sentence he means sentence with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context.

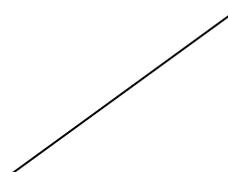
It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects - logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician G.Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative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

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

conceptual reality



proposition



objective reality lingual representation objective situation predicative unit

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

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

Different approaches to the study of the sentence.

a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.

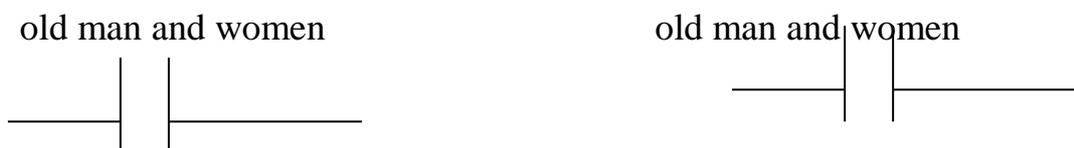
b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis.

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

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

The old man saw a black dog there.

It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much information. Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certain constructions. A classic example is the phrase *old men and women* which can be interpreted in two different ways. Ambiguity of this kind is referred to as syntactic ambiguity. By providing IC analysis we can make the two meanings clear:



c) Oppositional analysis.

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

E.g. two member sentence :: one member sentence (John worked:: John! Work! Or: I speak English :: I don't speak English.

d) Constructional analysis.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: Bill closed the door; She behaved well.

The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valent properties of the verbs (their obligatory valency) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g. NI V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*, NI V N2: *I see a house*.

The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences Syntactic processes may be internal and external. Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of

the sentence (subject, etc.). External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence.

The internal syntactic processes are:

Expansion

*The phone was ringing **and ringing***

Complication

(a synt. unit becomes complicated)

*I have seen it - I **could** have seen it*

Compression

*They were laughing **and singing***

Contamination

(two parts of the sentence are joined together - e.g. double predicate)

*The moon **rose red***

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

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

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

The external syntactic processes are:

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

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

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

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be the **theme** and the **rheme**. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) - actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but actually they mean "utterance"). In English, there is a "standard" word order of Subject κ Verb κ Object: *The cat ate the rat* - here we have a standard structure (N I κ V κ N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

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

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

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

marking devices are:

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate the rat*.

2. Intonation.

3. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): *A gentleman is waiting for you*.

4. The use of 'there is', 'there are'. *There is a cat in the room*.

5. The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: *As for him, I don't know*.

6. Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun*.

7. The use of emphatic constructions: *It was the cat that ate the rat*.

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

5. Functional typology of utterances.

Actional utterance: N κ Vact. κ Complement - actional predicate

Performative utterance: I κ Vperf.Nsay - performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N κ Vbe κ NQ - characterizing predicate

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

II. Self Studies

self study 1.

Will you title the following abstract

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of practical grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of theoretical grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

2.

Whose point of view is the next?

According to the author the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should be kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)
2. Adjectives
In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns".
3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)
4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")
5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

3.

Most of the world's languages belong to language families. A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called the proto-language of that family. The major of that is Indo-European family. It is divided into several groups, which are also united genetically. One of them is Germanic group. English belongs to Germanic branch of Indo-European family. **What is this about?**

4.

What do you think-is that view right or wrong?

The author identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. The author's word-groups are:

Notional words

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Numerals
4. Pronouns
5. Adverbs
6. Verbs

Function words

- link - verbs
- prepositions
- conjunctions
- modifying function words
- (article, particle)
- only, even, not

5.

Some linguists are sure that there are five criteria for grouping words to parts of speech. Do you agree or disagree. If not give reasons to reject this idea.

Five criteria for grouping words to parts of speech

1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words
2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)
3. Grammatical categories of words.
4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)
5. Their function in a sentence.

Classification

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Adlinks (the cat. of state) Ex. asleep, alive
8. Modal words

9. Prepositions
10. Conjunctions
11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)
12. Interjections
13. Articles
14. Response words (yes, no)

6.

Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types –synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of “internal” grammar of the word. Here most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of “external” grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytical –the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing.

It is about.....

7.

Is this idea accepted or not in linguistics?

Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

1. Nouns
2. Articles
3. Pronouns
4. Adjectives
5. Adverbs
6. Numerals

7. Verbs
8. Prepositions
9. Conjunctions
10. Particles
11. Modal words
12. Interjections

8.

What words do they mean by underlined ones?

According to their function these words are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;
2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

9.

Whose classification of parts of speech is given below?

Classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English the author divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

10.

The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone

2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex
4. Syntax - minor: sentence
5. Syntax - major: text

Can you title the abstract?

11.

Who is well known by the following view?

The author's classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for the author to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1st class), verb (2nd class), adjective and adverbs, though the author warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words - we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. So the author comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern.¹ All words that can occupy the same

¹ «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of frames they stand in: *I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert*”

"set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

The authors' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

The team went there

The author started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert was good

food

coffee

taste.....

The words of this list he called class I words.

The word "was" and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words.

In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

Class	A	Words
the		concert was good

the a/an every
no my our
one all both
that some John's

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

Group B - modal verbs	Group I - interrogative pr-ns and adverbs
Group C - n.p.not	Group J - subordinating conj-s
Group D - adverbs of degree	Group K- interjections
Group E - coordinating conj-s.	Group L- the words yes and no
Group F - prepositions	Group M - attention giving signals look, say, listen
Group G - the aux-v. do	Group N - the word please
Group H - introductory there	Group O - let us, let in request sentences.

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.
2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.
3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money.

The boys have given the money.

What do they speak about?

- The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: Woggles ugged diggles.
- According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that “several actors acted upon some objects”. This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

13.

What is your opinion about the following?

B. A. Ilyish distinguishes three criteria:

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:
 - a) the method of combining the word with other ones
 - b) the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

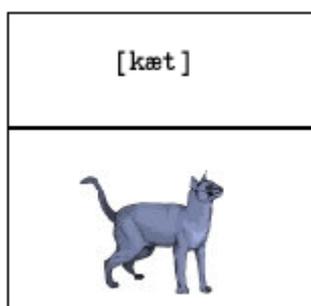
- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Nouns | 7. Adverbs |
| 2. Adjective | 8. Prepositions |
| 3. Pronoun | 9. Conjunctions |
| 4. Numerals | 10. Particles |
| 5. Statives (asleep, afraid) | 11. Modal words |
| 6. Verbs | 12. Interjections |

14.

What pragmatic components has the following sentence?

It's hot

15.



What function of language illustrate it?

III. GLOSSARY OF BASIC NOTIONS AND TERMS

English	Uzbek	Russian
Ablative	Аблатив келишик	Аблативный падеж
Absolute	Абсолют, мустақил, мутлак	Абсолютный
Abstract	Мавхум	Отвлечённый, абстрактный
Accent	Урғу, акцент	Ударение, акцент
Accidence	Америка ва Британия тилшунослиги бу атама орқали грамматиканинг морфология қисми тушунишади.	Словоизменение, морфология
Accommodation	Мослашув	Аккомодация
Accusative	Аккузатив келишик	Винительный падеж
Active	Фаол, аниқ	Действительный
Active voice	Аниқ даража	Действительный залог

Adjective	Сифат	Прилагательное
Adjunct	карам сўз	Ведомое (подчинённое) слово
Adverb	Равиш	Наречие
Adverbial	Равиш орқали ифодаланган	Наречный
Adversative	Зид	Противительный
Affix	Аффикс, кўшимча	Аффикс
Agent	Иш бажарувчи	Деятель
Agglomerating (languages)	Мужассамлаштирувчи тиллар	Инкорпорирующие языки
Agglutination	Агглютинация	Агглютинация
Agglunative languages	Агглюнатив тиллар (туркий ва фин-угор тиллари)	Агглютинативные языки
Agreement	Мослашув	Согласование
Allomorph	Алломорф, морфеманинг бир кўриниши	Алломорф
Alphabet	Алфавит, алифбо	Алфавит
Alternative	Танлов, альтернатив	Альтернативный
Analysis	Таҳлил	Анализ
Analytic (languages)	Аналитик (тиллар)	Аналитические языки
Anaphora	Анафора	Анафора
Anaphoric	Анафорик, кўрсатиш	Анафорический, указательный
Animate	Жонли	Одушевлённый
Animate nouns	Жонли отлар	Одушевлённое имя существительное
Antithesis	Антитеза	Антитеза
Antonym	Антоним, зид	Антоним
Apostrophe	Апостроф	Апостроф
Applied	Амалий	Прикладной
Applied linguistics	Амалий тилшунослик	Прикладное языкознание
Apposition	Изоҳловчи	Приложение
Archaic	Архаик, қадимий	Архаический
Archaism	Архаизм	Архаизм
Area	Худуд	Ареал
Areal linguistics	Ареал (худуд) тилшунослик	Ареальная лингвистика
Article	Артикл	Артикль
Artificial (language)	Суъний (тиллар)	Искусственные (языки)
Aspect	Аспект	Вид

Assimilation	Ассимиляция	Ассимиляция
Assumptive	Тахминий	Предположительный
Attribute	Аниқловчи	Определение
Auxiliary	Ёрдамчи	Вспомогательный
Auxiliary verb	Ёрдамчи феъл	Вспомогательный глагол
Baby-word	Болалар тили	Детский язык
Base	Асос	База
Basic	Асосий	Основной
Basis	Асос	База
Bilingualism	Икки тиллик	Двуязычие
Bilateral	Икки томонлама	Двусторонний
Binary	Бинар, икки томонлама	Бинарный
Borrowed word	Ўзлаштирма сўз	Заимствованное
Borrowing	Ўзлаштириш	Заимствование
Calque	Калька	Калька
Cardinal number	Санок сон	Количественное числительное
Case-ending	Келишик кўшимчаси	Падежное окончание
Causal clause	Сабаб эргаш гап	Предложение причины
Causative	Каузатив	Каузатив
Circumstantial	Хол, холга оид	Обстоятельственный
Classical	Классик, мумтоз	Классический
Clause	Гап	Предложение
Cognate	қариндош	Родственный
Cognate object	Ўхшаш тылдиоровчи	Винительный внутреннего объекта
Colloquial	Оғзаки	Устный
Combination	Бирикма	Комбинация
Common	Умумий	Общий
Common noun	Турдош от	Нарицательное имя
Comparative philology	Қиёсий филология	Сравнительно-сопоставительная филология
Comparison	Қиёслаш	Сравнение
Complement	Тўлдирувчи	Дополнение
Compound sentences	Боғланган қўшма гап	Сложно - сочинённое предложение
Concord	Мослашув	Согласование
Concordance	Келишув	Соответствие
Concrete	Аниқ	Конкретный
Conditional	Шартли	Условный
Conditional clause	Шарт эргаш гап	Придаточное предложение

Conjugation	Тусланиш	Спряжение
Conjunction	Боғловчи	Союз
Conjunctive	Боғловчили	Соединительный
Connecting vowel	Боғловчи унли	Соединительный гласный
Connecting word	Боғловчи сўз	Соединяющее слово
Connection	Боғланиш	Соединение
Contents	Мундарижа	Содержание
Continuous	Давомий	Длительный
Contracted	Қискартирилган	Стяженный
Contrasting stress	Контраст урғу	Контрастное ударение
Coordinate	Боғланган	Сочинительный
Coordination	Боғланиш	Соединение
Coordinating conjunction	Тенг Боғловчи	Сочинительный союз
Correlative	Ўзаро боғланган, корреляция	Соотносительный
Correspondence	Уйғун, мос	Соответствие
Creolized languages	Креол тиллар	Креольские языки
Dative	Датив келишик	Дательный падеж
Dead language	Ўлик тил	Мёртвый язык
Declension	Турланиш	Склонение
Definite	Аниқ	Определённый
Definite article	Аниқ артикл	Определённый артикль
Degree of comparison	Сифат даражали	Степень сравнения
Deictic	Дейктик, кўрсатиш	Дейктический
Deictic function	Кўрсатиш функцияси	Дейктическая функция
Demonstrative pronoun	Кўрсатиш олмошлари	Указательное местоимение
Dependent	Тобе	Зависимый
Derivation	Сўз ясаш	Деривация
Determinative	Аниқловчи	Определительный
Determining	Аниқловчи	Определяющий
Diachrony	Диахрония, тарихий	Диахрония
Dialect	Диалект, шева	Диалект
Differentiation	Фарқлаш	Расподобление
Direct	Воситали	Прямой
Direct object	Воситали тылдирувчи	Прямое дополнение
Discourse	Нутқ	Речь
Disjunctive	Ажратувчи	Разделительный
Distributive	Дистрибутив	Дистрибутивный
Double	Жуфт	Двойной
Dual number	Иккилик сони	Двойственное число
Duration	Давомийлик	Длительность
Durative	Давомий	Длительный

Dynamic	Динамик	Динамический
Element	Элемент, бирлик	Элемент
Emphasis	Ажратиб кўрсатиш	Выделение
Emphatic	Эмфатик	Эмфатический
Empty word	Маъносиз сўз	Пустое слово
Ending	Кўшимча	Конец слова, окончание
Ergative	Эргатив	Эргатив
Etymological	Этимологик	Этимологический
Etymology	Этимология	Этимология
Euphemism	Эвфемизм	Эвфемизм
Evolution	Эволюция	Развитие, эволюция
Excessive	Олий даража	Чрезмерная степень
Exclamation	Ундов	Восклицание
Exclusive	Истисно	Эксклюзивный
Expression	Ибора, ифода	Выражение
Expressive	Ифодали	Экспрессивный
Falling	Пасаювчи	Нисходящий
Falling tone	Пасаювчи интонация	Нисходящий тон
Family of languages	Тиллар оиласи	Семья языков
Feminine	Аёлларга хос	Женский
Finite verb	Феълнинг Аниқ формаси	Финитные формы глагола
Folk etymology	Халқ этимологияси	Народная этимология
Form	Шакл	Форма
Function	Функция, вазифа	Функция
Functional	Вазифали	Функциональный
Fundamental meaning	Асосий маъно	Основное значение
Fusion	Фузия	Фузия
Future	Келаси	Будущее время
Gender	Жинс (грамматика)	Род
Genderless	Жинси йўқ	Неродовой
General linguistics	Умумий тилшунослик	Общее языковедение
Genitive	қаратқич келишиги	Родительный падеж
Gerund	Герундий	Герундий
Glossematics	Глоссематика	Глоссематика
Glosseme	Глоссема	Глоссема
Govern	Бошқармоқ	Управлять
Governing	Бошқарувчи	Управление
Government	Бошқарув	Управление
Grammar	Грамматика	Грамматика
Grammatical	Грамматика оид	Грамматический
Grammatical analysis	Грамматик таҳлил	Грамматический анализ
Grammatical categories	Грамматик категориялар	Грамматические категории

Grammatical gender	Грамматик жинс	Грамматический род
Grammaticalisation	Грамматикалаштириш	Грамматикализация
haplology	Гаплогология	Гаплогология
Harmony	Гармония, мос келиш	Гармония
Heterogeneous	Турдош бўлмаган	Разнородовое
Heterosyllabic	Турли бўгин турлари	Гетеросиллабический
Historic (al)	Тарихий	Исторический
Historical grammar	Тарихий грамматика	Историческая грамматика
Homonym	Омоним	Омоним
Homophone	Омофон	Омофон
Hyperbole	Гипербола	Гипербола
Hypotaxis	Гипотаксис, эргаш кўшма гап	Гипотаксис
Hypothetical	Гипотетик, тахминий	Гипотетический
Ideogram	Идеограмма	Идеограмма
Idiom	Идиома	Идиома
Immediate	Бевосита	Непосредственный
Imperative	Буйрук	Повелительный
Imperative mood	Буйрук майли	Повелительное наклонение
Impersonal	Шахси ифодаланмаган	Неличный
Implication	Импликация, шаъма килиш	Импликация
Inanimate	Жонсиз	Неодушевлённый
Inanimate noun	Жонсиз от	Неодушевлённое имя существительное
Inclusion	Ўз ичига олиш	Включение
Indeclinable	Тусланмайдиган	Несклоняемый
Indefinite	Ноаниқ	Неопределённый
Indefinite article	Ноаниқ артикл	Неопределённый артикль
Independent	Мустақил	Независимый
Indicative mood	Аниқлик майли	Изъявительное наклонение
Indirect	Воситасиз	Косвенный
Indirect speech	Ўзлаштира гап	Косвенная речь
Indo-European languages	Хинд – Европа тиллари	Индоевропейские языки
Infinitive	Инфинитив, харакат номи	Инфинитив
Infix	Ички кўшимча	Инфикс
Inflexion	кўшимча	Окончание
Inner form	Ички шакл	Внутренняя форма
Instrumental case	Инструментал келишик	Творительный падеж

Intensity	Интенсивлик тезлик	Интенсивность
Interjection	Ундов сўзлар	Междометие
Interrogative	Сўроқ	Вопросительный
Intonation	Оҳанг, интонация	Интонация
Intransitive	Ўтимсиз	Непереходный
Invariable	Ўзгармас, тусланмас	Неизменяемый
Inversion	Ўринни алмаштириш	Инверсия
Irregular	Нотўғри	Неправильный
Irrelevant	Ахамиятсиз	Нерелевантный
Isolating languages	Ажратувчи тиллар	Изолирующие языки
Jargon	Жаргон	Жаргон
Juxtaposed	Ёнма-ён қўйилган	Соположенное слово
Language	Тил	Язык
Lateral	Ён	Боковой
Length	Узунлик	Длительность
Lengthened forms	Узайтирилган шакл	Протяжённые формы
Lexical	Лексик, сўзга оид	Лексический
Lexicography	Лексикография	Лексикография
Lexicology	Лексикология	Лексикология
Lineal	Бир чизигда кетма-кет ёзилган	Линейный
Lingual	Тилга оид	Свойственный языку
Linguistic comparison	Тилга оид қиёслаш	Лингвистическое сравнение
Linguistic family	Тиллар оиласи	Семья языков
Linguistic geography	Лингвистик география	Лингвистическая география
Living language	Тирик (жонли) тиллар	Живой язык
Loan-word	Ўзлаштирма-сўз	Заимствование
Local languages	Махаллий тиллар	Местные языки
Locative Case	Ўрин-пайт келишиги	Местный падеж
Logical	Мантиқий	Логический
Main	Асосий	Главный
Main clause	Бош гап	Главное предложение
Main stress	Асосий урғу	Главное ударение
Mark	Белги	Признак
Masculine	Эркак жинс	Мужской род
Meaning	Маъно	Значение
Measure	Ўлчов	Размер
Media	Восита	Средство
Melody	Оҳанг	Мелодика
Metaphor	Метафора	Метафора
Metathesis	Метатеза	Метатеза
Metonymy	Метонимия	Метонимия

Mixed language	Аралаш тил	Смешанный язык
Modal	Модал	Модальный
Mode	Майл	Наклонение
Monosyllable	Бир бўғинли	Односложный
Mood	Майл	Наклонение
Morpheme	Морфема	Морфема
Morphology	Морфология	Морфология
Mother-tongue	Она тил	Родной язык
Name study	Ономастика	Ономастика
Negation	Инкор	Отрицание
Neogrammarians	Младограмматиклар	Младограмматики
Neologism	Неологизм, янги пайдо бўлган сўзлар	Неологизм
Neuter	Нейтрал	Средний, нейтральный
Neutral	Нейтрал	Средний, нейтрал
Neutralization	Нейтрализация, нейтраллаштириш	Нейтрализация
Neutralized	Нейтраллашган	Нейтрализованный
Nomenclature	Атамалар	Терминология, номенклатура
Nominal	Отга мансуб	Именной
Nominative case	Бош келишик	Именительный падеж
Notional	Мустақил	Знаменательный
Noun	От	Имя
Number	Сон, миқдор	Число, количество
Numeral	Сон	Числительное
Object	Тўлдирувчи	Дополнение
Objective case	Объект келишиги	Объектный падеж
Onomasiology	Онамасиология	Онамасиология
Onomastic	Ономастика	Ономастика
Open	Очиқ	Открытый
Open syllable	Очиқ бўғин	Открытый слог
Opposition	Оппозиция	Противопоставление
Oral	Оғзаки	Разговорный
Ordinal number	Тартиб сон	Порядковое числительное
Orthography	Орфография	Орфография
Outer form	Ташқи шакл	Внешняя форма
Paradigm	Парадигма	Парадигма
Parataxis	Паратаксис, Боғланган кўшма гап	Паратаксис
Parent language	Бобо тил	Праязык
Parts of speech	Сўз туркумлари	Части речи
Passive voice	Мажхул даража	Страдательный залог

Past tense	Ўтган замон	Прошедшее время
Pause	Пауза, тўхташ	Пауза
Perfect	Тугалланганлик маъноси	Совершенный
Perfective aspect	Тугалланганлик аспекти	Совершенный вид
Period	Нуқта	Период
Periphrasis	Перефраз, қайта тузиш	Перифраза
Permutation	Ўрин алмаштириш	Перемещение
Person	Шахс	Лицо
Personal	Шахсий, кишилик	Личный
Personal ending	Шахс кўшимчаси	Личное окончание
Philology	Филология	Филология
Phone	Фон	Фон, звук речи
Phoneme	Фонема	Фонема, звук языка
Phonemics	Фонология	Фонология
Phonetic change	Фонетик ўзгариш	Звуковое измерение
Phonetic harmony	Фонетик гармония (мос келиш)	Фонетическая гармония
Phonetic law	Фонетик қонун	Фонетический закон
Phonetic transcription	Фонетик транскрипция	Фонетическая транскрипция
Phonetics	Фонетика	Фонетика
Phonology	Фонология	Фонология
Phrase	Фраза, бирикма	Фраза, словосочетание
Pleonastically	Плеонастик, икки марта	Плеонастический
Plural	Кўплик	Множественное число
Polysemy	Полисемия, кўп маънолик	Полисимия
Polysyllable	Кўп бўғинли	Многосложный
Polysynthetic (languages)	Мужассамлаштирувчи тиллар	Полисинтетические языки
Position	Ўрин	Положение
Positive	Ижобий	Положительный
Possessive	қаратқич, эғалик	Притяжательный
Postposition	Сўздан кейин турувчи	Постпозиция
Potential	Потенциал	Потенциальный
Pre	Олд	Пре
Predicate	Кесим	Сказуемое
Predicative	Кўшма от кесимнинг от қисми	Именная часть именного составного сказуемого
Prefix	Сўз олдида турувчи кўшимча	Префикс
Preposition	Предлог	Предлог

Present tense	Ҳозирги замон	Настоящее время
Preterit	Ўтган	Претерит
Primary	Асосий, биринчи	Первичный, основной
Primary stress	Асосий урғу	Главное ударение
Primary tenses	Асосий замонлар	Главное время
Primary word	Асосий сўз	Корневое слово
Principal	Бош, асосий	Главный
Process	Жараён	Процесс
Proclitic elements	Проклитик элементлар	Проклитические элементы
Progressive	Давом этувчи харакат	Прогрессив
Pronoun	Олмош	Местоимение
Proper name	Атоқли от	Собственное имя
Prosody	Просодия	Просодия
Qualitative stress	Сифат урғуси	Качественное ударение
Quality	Сифат	Качество
Quantitative stress	Микдор урғуси	Количественное ударение
Quantity	Микдор	Количество
Reciprocal	Биргалик	Взаимный
Reduced form	қисқартирилган шакл	Редуцированная форма
Reduction	Редукция	Редукция
Redundance	Ошиқ, кўп	Избыточное
Redundant	Керадиган кўп	Избыточно-возвратный
Reduplication	Такрор	Повтор
Reflexive	ўзлик	Возвратный
Regression	Пасайиш	Регрессия
Regressive	Регрессив	Регрессивный
Regular	Одатий, тўғри	Правильный
Relation	Муносабат	Отношение
Relationship	Муносабат	Отношение
Relationship of languages	Тилларнинг қардошлиги	Родство языков
Relative	Нисбий	Относительный
Relevant	Ахамиятли	Релевантный
Reported speech	Ўзлаштирма гап	Косвенная речь
Rising	Кўтарилувчи	Восходящий
Rising tone	Кўтарилувчи ошанг	Восходящий тон
Root	Ўзак	Корень
Rule	Қоида	Правило
Script	Ёзув	Письменность
Secondary stress	Иккинчи даражали урғу	Второстепенное ударение
Secondary tenses	Иккинчи даражали замонлар	Вторичные времена

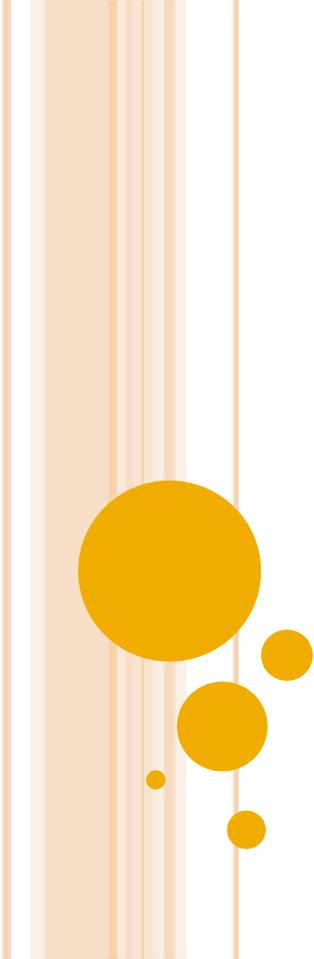
Semanteme	Семантема, маъно бирлиги	Семантема
Semantic change	Маънонинг ызгариши	Изменение значения
Semantics	Семантика	Семантика
Semasiology	Семасиология	Семасиология
Sentence	Гап	Предложение
Sentence stress	Гап урғуси	Фразовое ударение
Separable compounds	Былинадиган бирикма	Раздельные композиты
Sequence of tenses	Замонлар мослашуви	Согласование времён
Sex gender	Табийий жинс	Биологический пол
Shift	Силжиш	Сдвиг
Shortening	Қисқартириш	Сокращение
Sign	Белги	Знак
Significance	Ащамият	Значение
Simile	Ўхшатиш	Сравнение (в стилистике)
Simple	Содда	Простой
Simple word	Содда сўз	Простое слово
Singular	Бирлик	Единственное число
Slang	Слэнг, аргó	Аргó, слэнг
Slavonic	Славян	Старославянский
Sound	Товуш	Звук
Sound-change	Товуш ызгариши	Звуковое изменение
Sound-shift (ing)	Товушнинг силжиши	Мутация
Speech	Нутқ	Речь
Speed of utterance	Нутқ тезлиги	Темп речи
Spelling	Сўзнинг ёзилиши	Написание слова
Spoken language	Оғзаки нутқ	Разговорный язык
Standard	Стандарт	Норма, стандарт
State	Ҳолат	Состояние
Statement	Мулоҳаза	Высказывание
Stem	Негиз	Основа
Stop	Нуқта	Точка
Stress	Урғу	Выделение, ударение
Study of personal names	Антропонимика	Антропонимика
Style	Стиль, услóб	Стиль
Stylistics	Стилистика	Стилистика
Subject	Эга, мавзу	Подлежащее
Subordinate	Эргаш, тобе	Придаточный
Subordinate clause	Эргаш гап	Подчинённое предложение
Subordinate conjunction	Эргаш боғловчи	Подчинительный союз
Subordination	Эргашиш	Подчинение
Substantive	От	Существительное

Substitution	Алмаштирш	Субституция
Suffix	Суффикс	Суффикс
Superlative	Орттирма	Превосходная степень
Supine	Супин, ҳаракат номи	Супин, инфинитив
Suppletive	Супплетив	Супплетивный
Syllabic	Бўғинли	Слоговой
Syllable	Бўғин	Слог
Symmetry	Симметрия	Симметрия
Synchrony	Синхрония	Синхрония
Synecdoche	Синекдоха	Синекдоха
Synonymy	Синоним	Синоним (ия)
Syntactic	Синтактик	Синтаксический
Syntactical	Синтаксисга оид	Синтаксический
Syntax	Синтаксис	Синтаксис
Synthesis	Синтез	Синтез
Synthetic (languages)	Синтетик тиллар	Синтетические языки
System	Тизим	Система
Taboo	Табу, маън қилинган сўзлар	Табу
Tautology	Тафтология, қайтариш	Тафтология
Temporal	Замонга хос	Временной
Tendency	Тенденция, оқим	Тенденция
Tense	Замон	Время
Term	Атама	Термин
Terminative	Маъноси чекланган	Терминативный
Terminology	Терминология, атамалар билан шуғулланадиган фан	Терминология
Thematic	Тематик, мавзуга оид	Тематический
Time	Вақт	Время
Tongue	Тил	Язык (орган речи)
Traditional stress	Анъанавий урғу	Традиционное ударение
Transcription	Транскрипция	Транскрипция
Transition	Ўтиш	Переход
Transitive	Ўтимли	Переходный
Transliteration	Транслитерация	Транслитерация
Transposition	Транспозиция	Транспозиция
Trial	Учлик сони	Тройственное число
Ultimate	Сўнгги, якуний	Конечный
Unilateral	Бир томонлама	Односторонний
Unmarked	Белгисиз	Немаркированный
Unreal	Ноаниқ	Нереальное
Utterance	Нутқ	Высказывание
Variable	Ўзгарувчан	Изменяемый

Variant	Вариант	Вариант
Verb	Феъл	Глагол
Verbal system	Феъл тизими	Глагольная система
Vocabulary	Луғат	Словарь
Weak	Кучсиз	Слабый
Weak stress	Кучсиз урғу	Ударение слабое
Weakening	Кучсизланиш	Исчезающий
Word	Сўз	Слово
Word-order	Сўз тартиби	Порядок слов
Word-stress	Сўз урғуси	Словесное ударение
Writing	Ёзув	Письменность
Zero morpheme	Нол морфема	Нулевая морфема

IV. Other materials

3. МАЪРУЗАЛАР АСОСИДАГИ ПРЕЗЕНТАЦИЯЛАР



LANGUAGE AND SPEECH LEVELS

GRAMMAR

A Branch of linguistics dealing with the forms of changing words, modal phrases and types of the sentence.

It is an abstract modal which differs from the concrete materialized meaning of the word (lexical), phrase and sentence

(Grammatical structure)
The structure of the word and sentence in a certain language

The sum of the rules worked out for a certain language to change and combine the words into a sentence

BASIC LEVELS

PHONOLOGY

• PHONEME

PHONETICS

• PHONE (SOUND)

MORPHOLOGY

• MORPHEME
• MORPH

LEXICOLOGY

• LEXEME
• LEX

SYNTAX

• MINOR (SENTENCE, PHRASE)
• MAJOR (TEXT, PARAGRAPHS, ...)

КУРС ИШЛАРИ МАВЗУЛАРИ ВА ЛОЙИҲАЛАР
TOPICS FOR COURSE PAPERS AND CASE ON THEORETICAL
GRAMMAR

1. Predicative phrase in English
2. Sentence structure in English
3. One-member sentences in English
4. Nominal sentences in English
5. Modality in English
6. Infinitival sentences in English
7. Elliptical sentences in English
8. Types of subordination in English composite sentences
9. Types of coordination in English composite sentences
10. Idiomatic sentences in English
11. Meaning and linguistic analysis in English
12. The problem of English Syntax in Present Day
13. The problem of Structural ambiguity in Homonymic Patterns on the Syntactic level
14. Synonymic syntactic structures in English
15. The problem of phrases Structure in English
16. The problem of subordinate phrases in English
17. The problem of noun phrases in English
18. The problem of verb phrases in English
19. The problem of coordinate phrases in English
20. The problem of predicative phrases in English
21. The problem of sentences structure in English
22. The problem of one-member sentences in English
23. The problem of nominal sentences in English
24. The problem of modality in English
25. The problem of infinitival sentences in English

26. The problem of elliptical sentences in English
27. Types of subordination in English composite sentences
28. Types of coordination in English composite sentences
29. Idiomatic sentences in English
30. Meaning and linguistic analysis in English
31. Nominal compounds in English

**МУСТАҚИЛ ИШИ МАЗМУНИ ВА НАЗОРАТ УЧУН МАТЕРИАЛЛАР
MATERIAL FOR EVALUATION AND INDEPENDENT RESEARCH WORK**

ОРАЛИҚ НАЗОРАТ ТЕСТЛАРИ МАЗМУНИ ВА НАМУНАСИ

Group:

Name:

Mid-term test in “Theoretical grammar of the English language“

Variant 1

1. The functional parts of speech can have

- A. full lexical meaning
- B. stylistical meaning
- C. structural meaning
- D. no meaning

2. How many criteria did American Descriptive linguists use to classify words to parts of speech?

- A. 1
- B. 2
- C. 3
- D. 4

3. Why do the grammarians think that «s» is still a case inflection?

- A. because it can't be added to all nouns
- B. because it is used to connect two nouns
- C. because it is not pronounced when it is added to nouns in the plural form
- D. because it has no meaning

4. The non-finite forms of the verb can function as

- A. any part of the sentence
- B. any part of the sentence but predicate
- C. only attributive
- D. devastating

5. What is the aim of practical grammar?

- A. the grouping requirements of the parts of speech
- B. definition of stylistic devices
- C. explanation for grammar rules
- D. description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences

6. What morphemes are there in the word «sportsman»?

- A. one lexical, three grammatical
- B. one lexical unbound, one lexical bound, one empty
- C. only grammatical
- D. two lexical unbound, one grammatical

7. What language levels are called non-basic?

- A. those that do not have their own units
- B. those that have own units
- C. those that have lost their units
- D. those that make use units of other levels

8. By the analytical grammatical categories they understand the ones which are expressed by

- A. discontinuous morphemes
- B. functional word
- C. notional words
- D. modal words

9. How are the degrees of comparison of the adjective «bad» formed by?

- A. by root vowel and final consonant change
- B. inflections
- C. suppletion
- D. functional words

10. What part of speech has the following features: express the meaning of quality and has the degrees of comparison?

- A. stative
- B. verb
- C. adjective
- D. noun

11. What verbs lack the grammatical categories?

- A. transitive
- B. intransitive
- C. notional
- D. modal

12. What are the functions of the auxiliary verbs?

- A. to build new words
- B. to connect the words
- C. to express number

D to form the grammatical forms

13. What is a language?

- A. It is the result of a definite act of speaking
- B. It is a set of rules
- C. It is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations
- D. It is a group of words

14. What language levels are called basic?

- A. those that do not have own units
- B. those that have own units
- C. those that have lost their units
- D. those that make use units of other levels

15. What does phonology study?

- A. word-building
- B. language and speech units
- C. speech units
- D. language units

16. What is the distinction between language and speech?

- A. language concrete is and speech is abstract
- B. language is individual while speech is common, general for bearers
- C. language tends to changes while speech is stable, less changeable
- D. language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tends to be open and endless

17. What article is usually used with the word «Mars»?

- A. indefinite
- B. zero
- C. definite
- D. both a and the

18. How many degrees of comparison in adjective?

- A. 1
- B. 2
- C. 3
- D. 4

19. From the point of view of taking objects verbs fall under

- A. 2 subtypes
- B. 3 subtypes
- C. 4 subtypes
- D. 5 subtypes

20. Derivational contrast is...

- A. words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance.
- B. the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes.
- C. the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

D. the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

21. By the term “Prosody” one should understand

A. the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

B. the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken.

C. words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance.

D. the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes.

22. According to morphological classification English is

A. an isolating language

B. an agglutinative language

C. a polysynthetic language

D. a flexional language

23. The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called

A. modality

B. transposition

C. word order

D. opposition

24. The distinction between language and speech was made by

A. Ch. Hockett

B.W. Francis

C. Ch. Fries

D. Ferdinand de Saussure

25. Which of following groups of words are used to connect words in sentences?

a) Interjection b) Notional verbs

b) Adverb d) Conjunctions

26. How are the forms of “to be” - “am, is, are” formed by?

A. by root vowel and final consonant change

B. inflections

C. suppletion

D. derivation

27. Inner inflexion is used in the following words

A. take- took-taken

B. let-let-let

C. read-read-read

D. clean-cleaned-cleaned

28. The words such as “peace, love, snow, furniture etc.” belong to

A. Pluralia tantum

B. Singularia tantum

C. countable nouns

D. abstract nouns

29. The words such as “trousers, spectacles, scissors, tongs” belong to

- A. Pluralia tantum
- B. Singularia tantum
- C. uncountable nouns
- D. abstract nouns

30. The words such as “family, government, team, group” belong to

- A. nouns of multitude
- B. material nouns
- C. inanimate nouns
- D. abstract nouns

Mid-term test in “Theoretical grammar of the English language“

Variant 2

1. Which of the following adjectives is qualitative?

- A. glass
- B. wooden
- C. dynamic
- D. metal

2. What article is usually used with the word «sun»?

- A. indefinite
- B. zero
- C. definite
- D. both a and the

3 How many degrees of comparison in adjective?

- A. 1
- B. 2
- C. 3
- D. 4

4. From the point of view of taking objects verbs fall under

- A. 2 subtypes
- B. 3 subtypes
- C. 4 subtypes
- D. 5 subtypes

5. Which part of speech is morphologically most developed one?

- A. adverbs
- B. verbs
- C. pronouns
- D. prepositions

6. What is the aim of practical grammar?

- A. the grouping requirements of the parts of speech
- B. definition of stylistic devices
- C. explanation for grammar rules
- D. description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences

7. The grammatical categories are characteristic to

- A. auxiliary words
- B. notional words
- C. non-sensical words
- D. functional words

8. By mixed type of grammatical categories they understand the ones which are expressed by means of

- A. prepositions
- B. functional words
- C. discontinuous morphemes
- D. conjunctions

9. What is a language?

- A. It is the result of a definite act of speaking
- B. It is a set of rules
- C. It is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations
- D. It is a group of words

10. What languages are called synthetic?

- A. that are rich in grammatical categories
- B. that are rich in stylistic devices
- C. that are rich in means of word-building
- D. that are rich in grammar inflections

11. What operation is called morphemic analysis?

- A. It is a study of the grammatical relations of linguistic units to one another and the grammatical structure of phrases and sentences that result from these grammatical relations
- B. The morphemic analysis is an operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of the same element.
- C. It is a study of the relation of linguistic units to the objects they denote
- D. It is a study of the relation of linguistic units to people who communicate

12. How are the zero morphemes identified?

- A. by their meaning
- B. by their form
- C. by co-relation between form and meaning
- D. by their function

13. The personal pronouns "I" is "me" and "we" is "us" in objective case form. How are they formed? By means of ...

- A. Inflection and suppletion
- B. Suppletion and inflection
- C. Both of them by suppletion
- D. Both of them by means of grammatical inflections

14. What do you understand by the grammatical structure of a language?

- A. all the grammatical inflections
- B. the means of words building
- C. the lexical- grammatical means
- D. all the means that are used to express the grammatical meaning of a language

15. Suffix –ed in the adjective “relaxed” as in “relaxed atmosphere” is

- A. lexical
- B. grammatical

16. The words such as “family, government, team, group” belong to

- A. nouns of multitude
- B. material nouns
- C. inanimate nouns
- D. abstract nouns

17. How many smallest meaningful and meaningless units in the word “misunderstandings”?

- a) 7/17
- b) 6/16
- c) 5/15
- d) 4/14

18. What is the difference between “-er ” in the words: higher and builder

- a) The first one is grammatical while the second is lexical morpheme
- b) The first one is lexical and the second one is grammatical
- c) Both are grammatical
- d) Both are lexical

19. What types of morphemes bear the content but have no form?

- a) zero morphemes b) empty morphemes
- c) overt morphemes

20. What does morphology study?

- A. the smallest meaningless units
- B. the smallest meaningful units
- C. the phraseological units
- D. the stylistic devices

21. What verbs lack of grammatical categories?

- A. modal
- B. notional
- C. transitive
- D. intransitive

22. Function words can be described as

- A. the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments – which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings
- B. are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance
- C. words which have neither lexical nor grammatical meaning
- D. words which have only lexical meaning no grammatical meaning

23. What grammatical categories do nouns have?

- A. Person
- B. Tense

- C. Degree
D. Case
- 24. Speech is stable, language is changeable**
a) True
b) False
- 25. What does morphological classification of languages study?**
a) Relativity of languages
b) The origin of languages
c) Grammatical structure
d) None of them
- 26. Language is common, general for all the bearers/speakers while speech is individual**
a) True
b) False
- 27. Speech is stable, language is changeable**
a) True
b) False
- 28. What is the difference between genetic and morphological classification of language?**
a) The genetic classification deals with the relatedness of language while morphological one deals with the grammatical structure of languages
b) The genetic classification deals with the grammatical structure while morphological one deals with relatedness of languages
c) There is no difference between them
- 29. What language family does English language refer to?**
a) Turkic
b) Indo-European
c) Semiotic
d) Tibet
- 30. What type of language is English from the point of view of morphological typology of languages?**
a) Agglutinative
b) Flexional
c) Isolating
d) Polysynthetic

ЯКУНИЙ НАЗОРАТДА БЕРИЛАДИГАН НАЗАРИЙ САВОЛЛАР

6.2. SAMPLES OF THEORETICAL QUESTIONS FOR FINAL

EVALUATION

- 1 The problem of the participle in Present day English
- 2 The problem of the Gerund in Present day English
- 3 The modal verbs in Present day English
- 4 The problem of the interjections
- 5 The problem of the prepositions
- 6 The conjunction in Present day English
- 7 The problem of the article
- 8 The problem of sentence structure
- 9 The problem of the classification of sentences

- 10 The problem of combinations of sentences
- 11 The simple sentence in Present day English
- 12 The problem of parts of the sentence
- 13 The subject in Present day English
- 14 The problem of the object
- 15 The attribute in Present day English
- 16 The problem of the predicates
- 17 The adverbial modifier in Present day English
- 18 The problem of the composite sentences
- 19 The compound sentence in Present day English
- 20 The problem of the complex sentences
21. Direct and indirect speech in Present day English
- 22 The principals and syntactic modeling
- 23 The types of syntactic relations
- 24 Types of phrases in Present day English
- 25 Subordinate phrases in Present day English
- 26 Co-ordinate phrases in Present day English
- 27 The problem of predicative phrases
- 28 The problem of substantive phrases
- 29 The problem of verbal phrases
- 30 Structural types of sentences in Present day English
- 31 Semantic types of sentences in Present day English

**ТАВСИЯ ЭТИЛАЁТГАН МУСТАКИЛ ВА БИТИРУВ МАЛАКАВИЙ ИШЛАР
МАВЗУЛАРИ РЎЙХАТИ**

TOPICS FOR COURSE PAPERS

1	
1.	1 The problem of the participle in Present day English
2.	2 The problem of the Gerund in Present day English
3.	3 The modal verbs in Present day English
4.	4 The problem of the interjections
5.	5 The problem of the prepositions
6.	6 The conjunction in Present day English
7.	7 The problem of the article
8.	8 The problem of sentence structure
9.	9 The problem of the classification of sentences
10.	10 The problem of combinations of sentences
11.	11 The simple sentence in Present day English
12.	12 The problem of parts of the sentence
13.	13 The subject in Present day English
14.	14 The problem of the object
15.	15 The attribute in Present day English
16.	16 The problem of the predicates
17.	17 The adverbial modifier in Present day English
18.	18 The problem of the composite sentences
19.	19 The compound sentence in Present day English
20.	20 The problem of the complex sentences
21.	21. Direct and indirect speech in Present day English
22.	22 The principals and syntactic modeling
23.	23 The types of syntactic relations
24.	24 Types of phrases in Present day English
25.	25 Subordinate phrases in Present day English

26.	26 Co-ordinate phrases in Present day English
27.	27 The problem of predicative phrases
28.	28 The problem of substantive phrases
29.	29 The problem of verbal phrases
30.	30 Structural types of sentences in Present day English
31.	International words and their peculiarities
32.	Lexicological analysis as a means of language learning
33.	Proverbs and sayings as a source of phraseological units in English
34.	Componential analysis in lexicological research
35.	Role of contextual analysis in distinguishing synonyms
36.	Comparative study of verbs' word formation.
37.	Semantic fields and their role in language development
38.	Phraseological units with kinship terms in English and Uzbek
39.	Ways of expressing "goodness/badness" in Modern English
40.	General characteristics of native words in English
41.	Major trends in the assimilation of borrowed words in Modern English
42.	The role of English in the globalization process
43.	English borrowings in Modern Uzbek
44.	The methods of the lexicological analysis of the text
45.	The semantic derivation in words and morphemes: a comparative study
46.	Why words die: a diachronic study of a synonymic group
47.	The onomasiological categories and semantic fields: a comparative study
48.	How neologisms are made: ways of replenishment of the vocabulary
49.	Variants of English in Australia (Canada, New Zealand, etc.)

Фойдаланиладиган адабиётлар рўйхати

Асосий адабиётлар:

1. Blokh M.Ya. A Course in Modern English Grammar. M.,2002
2. Iriskulov M.Kuldashev A. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language T.,2008

Қўшимча адабиётлар:

1. Abduazizov A.A. Theoretical Phonetics of Modern English. - T., 2007
2. Sokolova M.A. English Phonetics. A Practical Course. - M.,1994
3. Blokh M.Y. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language.- M., 2004
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5. Худяков А.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка.- М.,2007
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9. Vrabel. T.T Theoretical phonetics of English.- Ukraina., 2012

Интернет сайтлар:

- 1.<http://www.oup.co.uk>
2. www.onestopenglish.com
- 3.<http://youreng.narod.ru/teoper.html>
4. <http://tpot.ru/index.html>

**ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ
ВАЗИРЛИГИ
ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ**

“Тасдиқланди”
Ўқув ишлари бўйича проректор

_____ Т.Мадрахимов

2018 йил “ ____ ” июнь

**«НАЗАРИЙ ГРАММАТИКА»
ФАНИНИНГ ИШЧИ ЎҚУВ ДАСТУРИ**

Таълим соҳаси: 110 000 – Педагогика
Таълим йуналиши: 5111 400 – Хорижий тил ва адабиёти
(Инглиз тили ва адабиёти)

Умумий ўқув соати - 98 соат

Шу жумладан :

Маъруза - 26 соат (5 семестр)

Амалий машғулотлар - 30 соат (5 семестр)

Мустақил таълим соати - 42

ТОШКЕНТ – 2018 й.

Фаннинг ишчи ўқув дастури Ўзбекистон Республикаси Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги 201__ йил “__” _____даги ____-сонли буйруғи билан (буйруқнинг ____-илоvasи) тасдиқланган “Назарий грамматика” фани дастури асосида тайерланган.

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон Давлат жахон тиллари университети Кенгашининг 201__ йил “__” _____даги ____-сонли баёни билан тасдиқланган.

Тузувчилар:

- М.Т.Ирискулов – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи” кафедраси доценти, филология фанлари номзоди
Қ.А.Джаббарова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи” кафедраси мудир, катта ўқитувчи
М.Саидова – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили назарий аспекти №3” кафедраси мудир, ф.ф.н., доцент

Такризчи:

- А.М.Қўлдошев – ЎзДЖТУ, “Инглиз тили грамматикаси ва тарихи” кафедраси доценти, филология фанлари номзоди

ЎзДЖТУ инглиз тили-3 факультети декани:

2018 йил “__” _____ Б.Қулматов
(имзо)

Инглиз тили назарий аспекти №3 кафедраси мудир:

2018 йил “__” _____ М. Саидова
(имзо)

1. Ўқув фан ўқитилиши бўйича услубий кўрсатмалар

“Назарий грамматика” фани бўлажак филологларга инглиз тили назарий грамматика фанининг илмий назарий масалалари, назарий грамматика фанини ўрганиш билан боғлиқ муаммолар ҳақида атрофлича билим бериш билан бирга уларнинг келажакдаги иш фаолиятларида амалий аҳамият касб этувчи лингвистик билим, кўникма, ва малакаларни шакллантириш ва ривожлантиришдан иборат.

Фаннинг вазифаси – инглиз тили назарий грамматикаси ва у билан боғлиқ илмий назарий масалалар бўйича билимларни ўргатишдан иборат. Ушбу фан талабаларни назарий жиҳатдан етук мутахассис бўлишлари учун хизмат қилади.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билим, кўникма ва малакаларига қўйдаги талаблар қўйилади. **Талаба:**

- инглиз тилининг назарий масалалари ўрганиш методларини **билиши керак;**
- муайян назарий масалаларга оид фикрларни баён этиши, уларга нисбатан танқидий муносабатни шакллантириш **кўникмаларига эга бўлиши керак;**

1. Маъруза машғулоти

1-жадвал

№	Маърузалар мавзулари	Дарс соатлари ҳажми
5-семестр		
1	The place of the English language in genetic and morphological typology of languages	2
2	Speech and language levels and their units	2
3	The grammatical structure of the English language	2
4	The morphemic structure of the English language. Types of morphemes	2
5	The problem of grammatical categories	2
6	Parts of speech and their types. Criteria to identify the parts of speech. European and American approaches.	2
7	Nouns as a parts of speech. Their grammatical categories.	2
8	Adjectives and adverbs. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison	2
9	Pronouns and their characteristic features	2
10	Verb as a part of speech in modern English	2
11	Types of linguistic relations between words. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations and their types.	2
12	Syntax. It`s subject - matter. Syntax - minor and syntax - major.	2
13	Sentences and their types. The classification of sentences from the structural point of view. Simple sentences.	2

Жами

26 соат

Маъруза машғулоти мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда гуруҳлар оқими учун ўтилади.

Амалий машғулотлар

2-жадвал

№	Амалий машғулотлар мавзулари	Дарс соатлари ҳажми
5-семестр		
1	The place of the English language in genetic and morphological typology of languages	2
2	Speech and language levels and their units	2
3	The grammatical structure of the English language	2
4	The morphemic structure of the English language. Types of morphemes	2
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12	Syntax. It`s subject – matter. Syntax – minor and syntax – major.	2
13	Sentences and their types. The classification of sentences from the structural point of view. Simple sentences.	2
14	Composite sentences and their classification	2
15	Simple sentences.	2

Жами 30 соат

Амалий машғулотлар мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда иккита академик гуруҳга ўтилади. Машғулотлар фаол ва

интерфаол усуллар ёрдамида ўтилади, “Кейс-стади” технологияси ишлатилади, кейслар мазмуни ўқитувчи томонидан белгиланади. Кўргазмали материаллар ва ахборотлар мультимедиа курулмалари ёрдамида узатилади.

4. Мустақил таълим

3-жадвал

№	Мустақил таълим мавзулари	Дарс соатлари ҳажми
5 семестр		
1	Predicative phrase in English	4
2	Sentence structure in English	4
3	One-member sentences in English	4
4	Nominal sentences in English	4
5	Modality in English	4
6	Infinitival sentences in English	4
7	Elliptical sentences in English	4
8	Types of subordination in English composite sentences	4
9	Types of coordination in English composite sentences	4
10	Idiomatic sentences in English	4
11	The problems of the verbals	2

Жами

42 соат

Мустақил ўзлаштирилладиган мавзулар бўйича талабалар томонидан рефератлар тайёрланади ва уни тақдимоти ташкил қилинади.

5. Фан бўйича курс иши

Курс иши фан мавзуларига тааллуқли масалалар юзасидан талабаларга яқка тартибда тегишли (вариантланган) топшириқ шаклида 5-семестрда берилади. Курс ишининг ҳажми 20-25 бетдан кам бўлмаслиги, А4 форматдаги варақларда ёзилиши ва тикилиб расмийлаштирилиши лозим.

Курс ишини бажариш тартиби кафедранинг услубий қўлланмасида келтирилган. Ҳимоя кафедра мудири томонидан тасдиқланган график асосида дарс машғулотларидан сўнг ташкил этилади.

Курс иши учун мавзулар:

1. The problem of parts of speech
2. The problems of the noun
3. The problems of the adjective
4. The problems of the adverb in Present day English
5. The problems of numerals in Present day English
6. The problems of Pronouns
7. The problems of the verb
8. The problems of the category of voice
9. The problems of the category of tense
10. The problems of the category of aspect
11. The problems of the category of mood
12. The problems of the category of person
13. The problems of the subjunctive mood
14. The problems of the Imperative mood
15. The problems of the verbals
16. The problems of the infinitive

6. Фан бўйича талабалар билимини баҳолаш ва назорат қилиш меъзонлари

Баҳолаш усуллари	Тестлар, машқлар, ёзма ишлар, оғзаки сўров, презентациялар ва матн таҳлили.
Баҳолаш мезонлари	86-100 балл «аъло» <ul style="list-style-type: none">– фанга оид назарий ва услубий тушунчаларни тўла ўзлаштира олиш;– фанга оид кўрсаткичларни лингвистик таҳлил қилишда ижодий фикрлай олиш;– ўрганилаётган тил жараёнга таъсир этувчи омилларни аниқлаш ва уларга тўла баҳо бериш;– тил бирликларини семантик, структуравий, прагматик ва коммуникатив хусусиятларини билиш ва улардан фойдалана олиш;– сўзнинг морфологик тузилиши, сўзларнинг

	<p>ясалиши, фразеологик бирикмалар турлари, луғовий бирликларнинг келиб чиқишини билиш;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – инглиз тилининг вариантлари ва шевалари хусусиятлари тўғрисида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; – матн таҳлили натижалари асосида тил вазиятга тўғри ва холисона баҳо бериш; – ўрганилаётган тил ривожланиш жараёни тўғрисида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; <p>71-85 балл «яхши»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – ўрганилаётган жараёнлар ҳақида мустақил мушоҳада юритиш; – тил бирликларини семантик, структуравий, прагматик ва коммуникатив хусусиятларини билиш ва улардан фойдалана олиш; – сўзнинг морфологик тузилиши, сўзларнинг ясалиши, фразеологик бирикмалар турлари, луғовий бирликларнинг келиб чиқиши, инглиз тилининг вариантлари ва шевалари хусусиятлари тўғрисида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; – таҳлил натижаларини тўғри акс эттира олиш; – ўрганилаётган тил ҳодиса ва жараён тўғрисида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; – ўрганилаётган жараёнга таъсир этувчи омилларни аниқлаш ва уларга тўла баҳо бериш; – ўрганилаётган жараёнларни лексикологик таҳлил этиш ва тегишли қарорлар қабул қилиш. <p>55-70 балл «қониқарли»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – ўрганилаётган жараёнга таъсир этувчи омилларни аниқлаш ва уларга тўла баҳо бериш; – ўрганилаётган тил ҳодиса ва жараён тўғрисида тасаввурга эга бўлиш; – ўрганилаётган жараёнларни лексикологик таҳлил қила билиш ва таҳлил этиш. <p>0-54 балл «қониқарсиз»</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – ўтилган фаннинг назарий ва услубий асосларини билмаслик; – тил ҳодиса ва жараёнларни таҳлил этиш бўйича тасаввурга эга эмаслик; – ўрганилаётган жараёнларга лексикологик усулларни қўллай олмаслик. 		
	Рейтинг баҳолаш турлари	Макс. балл	Ўтказиш вақти
	Жорий назорат:	40	
	маъруза машғулотларда фаоллиги, мунтазам равишда конспект юритиши учун	10	Семестр давомида
	Мустақил таълим топшириқларининг ўз вақтида ва сифатли бажарилиши	10	

	Амалий машғулотларда фаоллиги, саволларга тўғри жавоб берганлиги, амалий топшириқларни бажарган-лиги учун	20	
	Оралик назорат	30	
	Оралик назорат (маъруза ўқитувчиси томонидан қабул қилинади). Оралик назорат 2 босқичда амалга оширилади. Биринчи босқич, 10 балл-талаба яқка тартибда топшириқ олади ва ёзма ва оғзаки такдимотни ҳимоя қилади. Топшириқлар 2-3-ҳафталар оралиғида талабаларга бириктирилади. Иккинчи босқич, 20 балл-талабаларга 60-та саволдан иборат ёзма тест (multiple choice) берилади ва жавоблари баҳоланади, ҳар бир тўғри жавоб 0,3 балл олади.		10-ҳафта
	Яқуний назорат	30	
	Яқуний назорат ёзма иш тартибида ўтқазилади. Ёзма иш иккита қисмдан иборат. Биринчи қисм 30 назарий саволларга жавоб (15 балл), ва иккинчи қисмда матн лексикологик таҳлилидан (15 балл) иборат бўлади.	30	20 ҳафта
	ЖАМИ	100	

Фойдаланиладиган адабиётлар рўйхати

Асосий адабиётлар:

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2. Sokolova M.A. English Phonetics. A Practical Course. - М.,1994
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