Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialized
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Andizhan State University

named after

Zahiriddin Muhammad Bobur

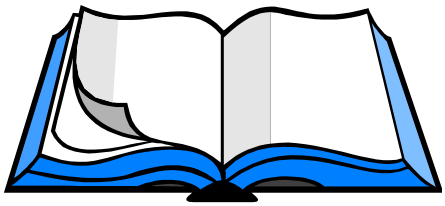
Department of Grammar of the English Language

G. M. Hoshimov

lectures on the theory of modern english grammar

(for the 4 th course)

(MORPHOLOGY, PART I)



(4- edition, revised)

Andizhan - 2015

Curriculum in " Theory of Modern English Grammar"

Introduction

The theoretical course of grammar "Relationship between Normative and theoretical Grammar". Types of Grammar, normative, theoretical, prescriptive versus descriptive, historical, synchronous, comparative, contrastive, taxonomic, generative, *cognitive grammar*. Grammar and Phonetics, grammar and lexicology. Word-building.

Methods of grammatical investigation and their application to the English language. The distributional method, the method of immediate constituents, the transformational method, etc. The notion of opposition in grammar.

Morphology and Syntax. Their interrelationship and boundary lines between them. The notion of grammatical category, grammatical meaning and grammatical forms as applied to the English language. Grammatical categories in Modern English.

Part I
Morphology

Basic morphological notions: word and morphemes. The notion of morph and allomorphs.Types of word-form derivation in English. Inflectional morphemes. Sound alternation. Analytical forms. Suppletivity. The notion of the zero morphemes. Grammatical homonymy.

P a r t s o f s p e e c h. The notion of parts of speech. Difficulties of the problem. Criteria applied in discriminating parts of speech: meaning, from and function on the phrase level (grammatical word combination) and on the sentence level. A descriptive approach to establishing classes of words. Ch.C. Fries's classification and its character. Possible ways of classifying parts of speech.

The problem of notional and formal parts of speech. The foundations of this division.
Modern English morphology and its system of morphological notions, metaterms in British and American English.

The noun. Its definition, grammatical meaning, morphological characteristics and syntactical functions on the phrase level and on the sentences level. Grammatical categories of the noun.

The category of number and its peculiarities in the English language. Mutual relations between the grammatical category of number and lexical meanings of nouns. Nouns acquiring some additional lexical meaning in the plural (lexicalization of plural forms). Collective nouns. Plural forms apprehended as singular. Nouns having no plural (singularia tantrum). Nouns having no singular (pluralia tantum). Comparison of the English and the Uzbek /Russian language in this respect.

The category of case. The nation of case. Different approaches to the category of case in English nouns. Cases and prepositional groups. A two-case system of English nouns. Definition of the Genitive (Possessive) Case. The scope of it's meaning. Different uses of this case. Views of some scholars denying the existence of cases in the English noun (G.N.Vorontsova and others). Treatment of the "-s-" form according to this approach. The use of the "-s-" form with phrases, sentences and interpretation of this use.
The problem of the gender in English nouns.

T h e a r t i c l e . The problem of the essence of the article. The article as a separate word as a form element in the system of the noun. The number of articles in English. The definite and indefinite articles. The problem of the zero article. The meaningful absence of the article. The meaning of each article. Different theories concerning this problem. The generic article. Lexicalization of articles in some geographical names and other cases. The difference in meaning between the definite and the indefinite article. The indefinite article as a way of expressing the novelty of an idea.

Pronouns approaching articles in their use.(the man –this man, that man, the men these men, those men, etc.). .

The adjective. Its definition: its grammatical meaning, morphological and syntactical functions on the phrases level and on the sentence level. Degrees of comparison.The synthetic forms of degrees of comparison. The problem of analytical forms of degrees of comparison. The elative meaning of the superlative degree. Use of the definite article with the superlative.

The problem of adjectivization of nouns in phrases of the "speech sound" type. Substantivization of adjectives (different cases).

The pronoun. Its definition. Difficulties of the problem. Noun pronouns and adjective pronouns. Types of pronouns and their morphological peculiarities. The case system of different kinds of pronouns as compared with the case system of nouns. A two-case system in pronouns of the "somebody" type. Lack of cases in pronouns of the "something" type. The case system in personal pronouns and the pronoun "who". Limits of the pronouns class.

The numeral. Its definition. Types of numerals. Similarity between numerals and pronouns. Substantivization of numerals.

The stative. The possibility of distinguishing the stative as a separate part of speech and its peculiarities. Some arguments against this view. Reasons for considering these words as adjectives. Assessment of both conception.

The verb. Its definition. Grammatical meaning of the verb. The system of verbal categories. Tense, mood, voice, person and number. Aspect and correlation (time relation). Argument for and against distinguishing these categories.

The problem of aspect. Definition of this category. The continuous and the common aspect. Non-recognition of the category of aspect by some scholars. The treatment of continuous forms as specific tense forms (N.F.Irtenyeva and other scholars). Assessment of different approaches to continuous forms.

The category of tense. Its definition. The system of tenses in the English verb. The present, the past and the future tense. Non-recognition of a future tense in English by O. Jespersen and his arguments. Assessment of these arguments. The theory of time centers (I.P.Ivanova). Relation of tense and aspect. Model shades of tense forms.

The perfect. Controversy concerning the essence of perfect forms. The perfect as a tense category (O. Jespersen), the perfect as a way of expressing the category of "time relation" (A.I.Simirnitsky), the perfect as a aspect category (G.N. Vorontsova). Assessment of these views A.I.Smirnitsky's three-dimensional model illustrating interrelationship of aspect, tense and "time-relation". An estimate of perfect, continuous and perfect-continuous forms from the viewpoint of different interpretations of the perfect.

Mood. Definition of the category of mood. Mood and modality. Different conceptions of the mood system in English and objective reasons for the existing controversy, the role of meaning and form in the classification of moods. The problem of mutual relations of these criteria.

The indicative. Definition of its meaning. Different uses of the indicative. The imperative. Its morphological peculiarities. The scope of use. Non-recognition of the imperative mood as a separate mood form. The problem of the "let us go" type.

Oblique mood. The subjunctive, the conditional, the suppositional and other notions met within the study of mood. Verbs that may be considered as mood auxiliaries.

Voice. Definition of the voice category. Different views of this problem. Relationship of voice and the transitivity and intransitivity of the verb. Interrelationship of the active and the passive voice. Transformational method in the study of voice. Peculiarities of the passive voice in English. The problem other voices: wiz, the reflexive, the reciprocal, and the middle voice. Reasons for and against the recognition of each of them. Different interpretations of the voice category in sentence of "the door opened" type. Assessment of each interpretation.

Person and number. The joint expression of person and number. Ways of expressing these categories in the main body of English verbs, in the verbs of the "may" type, in the verb "be".

Negative, interrogative and emphatic forms of the English verb and their treatment from the viewpoint of the system of its categories.

The non-finite forms of the verb (the verbals). The infinitive, the gerund, the participle. Their double character. Verbal categories in these forms. The category of aspect in the infinitive. The category of tense or correlation and the category of voice in the varbals. The problem of categories in the second participle.

Morphological classification of verbs in modern English. Semantic-syntactical classification of verbs.

The adverb. Definition of the adverb. The limits of the adverb. Degrees of comparison. Phrases of the “bring up” type and the problem of the second element of these phrases. Different views of this problem.

The preposition. Its definition. The problem of lexical and the grammatical meaning of prepositions. The function of prepositions in sentences and phrases. Different uses of prepositions.

The conjunction. Its definition. The problem of the lexical and the grammatical meaning of conjunction. The function of conjunctions in sentences and phrases. Classification of conjunctions.

The particle. Definition of the particle. The problem of discriminating adverbs and particle. Reasons for distinguishing particles as a separate part of speech. Assessment of these reasons. Syntactical functions of particles.

Modal words. Definition o modal words. Modal words and the modality of the sentence. Arguments for distinguishing modal words as a separate part of speech. Assessment of these arguments. Syntactical functions of modal words.

The interjection. Definition of the interjection. The problem of syntactical functions of interjections.

Words not included in the classification of parts of speech(yes, no, please, etc). their treatment. The problem of distinguishing response words, requestives, approximators(or approximitives).

Plan of lectures on "Theoretical Grammar"(Morphology)(for the 4 th course)

№	Themes to be studied	Hours for lectures
1.	Introduction.Grammar as a branch of linguistics.Methods of Grammatical analysis	2
2.	Morphology. The theory of Parts of speech in Modern English	2
3.	The Noun and its structural and semantic types and syntactical functions in the sentence	2
4.	The theory of Grammatical categories of the English nouns	2
5.	The theory of Articles in Modern English	2
6.	The pronoun: its structural and semantic types, the theory of its grammatical categories	2
7.	The Verb: its structural and semantic types and the theory of its grammatical categories(of number, person, mood)	2
8.	The Verb: grammatical categories of tense, voice, aspect and order.	2
9.	The Adjective, Adverb, Adlinks (Statives) and other parts of speech and their grammatical categories	2
	Total	18 hours

The main literature:

1. D.Crystal. The English Language, Cambridge. 1995.
2. D.Biber, S. Johansson, J.Leech, et al. Grammar of Spoken and Written English. Longman , 2007
3. D.Borsley. Syntactic Theory, Cambridge 1995
4. B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English, L, 1976
5. Khaimovich H.T. A Rogovskaya "A Course in Modern English Grammar" Moscow, 1968
6. M.Y.Blokh. "A Theoretical course of English Grammar" M,1982
7. М.Я. Блох .Теоретические основы грамматики, М, 1983
8. И.В.Иванова, В.С.Бурлакова, Г.Г.Почепцов. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка, М, 1980
9. А.И.Смирницкий. Морфология английского языка. М, 1959
10. А.С.Бархударов. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка.М,1978.
11. Л.С.Бархударов. Структура простого предложения современного английского языка. М,1967
12. N.A.Kobrina,A.B.Korneeva. The outline of Modern English Syntax, L,1973
13. Н.А.Слюсарева.Очерки по функциональному синтаксису современного английского языка.М.1976
14. Г.М.Хашимов. Типология сложных предложений разносистемных языков. Т. "Фан", 1991.
15. 19. L.L.Iofik, L.P.Chakhoyan, A.G.Pospelova. Readings in the Theory of English Grammar. L. 1981.
16. 20. R.Quirk, S.Greenbaum, J.Leech, J.Svartvik. A University Grammar of English, M., 1982.
17. 21. J.Leech, J.Svartvik. A Communicative Grammar of English. M., 1983.
18. 22. Б.Е.Зернов, В.В.Бурлакова и др. Спорные вопросы английский грамматики. Л., 1988.
19. R. Murphy.English Grammar in Use.Cambridge University Press.1993.
20. M.Hewings.Advanced Grammar in Use, Cambridge University Press,2000
21. G.M.Hoshimov . Lectures on the Theory of Modern English Grammar, Andizhan, 2010.
22. M,Iriskilov, A.Kuldashev. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language< Tashkent, 2008, 193 p.p.

The supplementary literature:
1. Г.Н. Воронцова. Очерки по грамматике английского языка. М., 1960.
2. Б.А. Ильиш. Современный английский язык. М., 1948.
3. Н.Ф.Иртеньева. Грамматика современного английского языка. М., 1956.
5. Ch. Fries. The Structure of English. New York, 1956
6. Г.Г.Почепцов. Конструктивный анализ предложения. Киев, 1976.
7. Е.Хлебникова. Сослагательное наклонение. М., 1973.
8. Ж.Буронов. Инглиз ва узбек тилларининг киесий грамматикаси. Т., 1971.
9. Bryant M.M. A Functional English Grammar. Boston, 1945
10. Chafe W.L. Meaning and Structure of Language. Chicago-London, 1970.
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12. Fillmore Ch.J. The Case for Case. "Universals in Linguistic Theory". New York a.?o., 1966.
13. Francis W.N. The Structural of American English New York, 1958.
14. Halliday M.A.K. Language Structure and Language Function. New Horizons in Linguistics, ed. J.Lyons, Middlesex, Engl.1970.
15. Halliday M.A.K. The Place of "Functional Sentence Perspective" in the System of Linguistic Description Papers on Functional Sentence Perspective, ed. F. Danes, Prague, 1974.
16. Harris Z.S. Discourse Analysis.-:Language", 28, No.1, 1952.
17. Hathaway B.A. Transformational Syntax. The Grammar of Modern American English New York, 1967.
18. Jespersen O. Essentials of English Grammar London, 1933
19. Jespersen O. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles. Part IV. Heidelberg, 1931; Part V. Copenhagen, 1940 (7 vols., 1914-1949).
20. Kruisinga E. A Handbook of Present-Day English. Part II, vols. 1, 2,3, Groningen (lst ed 1909).
21.Lakoff G. On Generative Semantics. - "Semantics", ed. D.Steinberg and L.Jacobovits, Cambridge, 1971.
22. Marckwardt A.H. Introduction to the English Language. Oxford University Press, 1971.
23. Onions C.T. An Advanced English Syntax London, 1932 (lst ed. 1904).
24. Poutsma H. A Grammar of Late Modern English. Part II Groningen, 1926 (5 vols., 1904-1929).
25. Roberts P. English Syntax. A Book of Programmed Lessons. An Introduction to Transformational Grammar. New York, 1964.
26. Roberts P. The Relation of Linguistics to the Teaching of English, Readings in Applied English Linguistics, ed. H.B.Allen. New York. 1964.
27. Roberts P. Understanding English. New York, 1958.
28. Sledd J. A Short Introduction to English Grammar. Glenview, Illinois, 1959.
29. Sweet H. A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical. Part I, Oxford, 1892; Part II. Oxford, 1898.
30. Whitehall H. Structural Essentials of English. New York, 1956.

LECTURE 1 (2 hours)

Theme: Introduction. Grammar as a branch of linguistics. Methods of Grammatical analysis.

Plan:

1. The theoretical course of grammar.
2.Types of Grammar. Cognitive Grammar. Relations between Normative and Theoretical Grammar.
3. Grammar and phonetics, grammar and lexicology (word-building) etc.
4. Methods of grammatical analysis and their application to the English language:
a) The parts of sentence method;
b) The distributional method;
c) The method of immediate constituents;
d) The transformational method;

e) The method of opposition in grammar and other methods of grammatical analysis.
5. The main parts of grammar:
a) Morphology.
b) Syntax.
The interrelationship and boundary lines between them.
6. The notion of grammatical category.
The notion of grammatical form.
The notion of grammatical meaning.
7. Grammatical categories in Modern English.
Key words:

grammar, types of grammar, normative, theoretical, prescriptive versus descriptive, historical, synchronous, comparative, contrastive, taxonomic, generative, cognitive grammar, grammeme, grammatical models or methods, word, morpheme, morph, allomorph, bound morpheme ,free morpheme, fused morpheme, methods of grammatical analysis parts of sentence method, distributional method, immediate constituents method, transformational method, componential method, (semantical method),tagmemic method, oppositional method, method of modeling, statistical method, contextual method, parts of grammar, morphology and syntax, paradigmatic morphology, syntagmatic morphology, paradigmatic syntax, syntagmatic syntax, form derivation - types of word; synthetic way of word form derivation,word form derivation by sound alternation, analytical way of word form derivation, suppletive way of word form derivation, grammatical homonymy,synonymy? antonymy, grammatical category, grammatical meaning, grammatical form and grammatical function.

The course of lecture:

The term “grammar” is of Greek origin and it means “the art of correct writing”. Today it means not only correct writing, but also correct speaking.

The term "grammar" is actually used in two senses: a) the structure of language; b) the science of the structure of the language. In sense (a) grammar is part of language as it exists independently of the linguistic theory; in sense (b) it is part of linguistic theory. All languages have "grammar" in sense (a), but "grammar" in sense (b) exists only for those languages that have been theoretically investigated. The knowledge of grammar in sense (a) is indispensable for every language user, while the knowledge of grammar as a theoretical subject is not (most naive confusion, we shall use the term theory of grammar). To avoid confusion, we shall use the term "grammar" only in sense (b), and make use of the term "grammatical structure" to cover sense (a).

So, in this course of theoretical grammar we use the term *grammar* to mean the system of structural rules which describes how words combine with each other to form sentences. In this sense, native speakers of English already have an instinctive knowledge of its grammar. It is this knowledge which enables us to distinguish a well-formed English sentence from one which is clearly ill-formed. For example, native speakers know that the following sentence is well-formed and `grammatical':

[1] ***David plays the piano***

Native speakers can produce and understand a sentence like this without ever thinking about its grammar. Conversely, in the course of everyday communication, no native speaker would ever produce this:

[2] *piano plays David the

We recognize instinctively that there is something very wrong with this sentence, not least because it doesn't make sense. It is ill-formed and `ungrammatical'.

Now if all this is true, then it is reasonable to ask why we need to study grammar at all. If we know instinctively that [1] is acceptable and that [2] is nonsense, then what more do we need to know?

In the most general terms, a knowledge of grammar is part of our knowledge of the world and of ourselves. The use of language is a distinctively human activity, so it is appropriate for us to understand how it works. The study of grammar enables us to say *why* [1] is acceptable and [2] is not. It enables us to externalize and formalize our instinctive knowledge of our own language.

Apart from professional linguists, however, few people study grammar as an end in itself. For many people, their first encounter with grammar comes when they try to learn a foreign language. In order to do this, it is essential to have some knowledge of the different parts of speech, and of how the parts of a sentence relate to each other. This knowledge can be acquired most efficiently by studying the grammar of one's own native language.

The study of grammar helps us to communicate more effectively. Quite simply, if we know how English works, then we can make better use of it. For most purposes, we need to be able to construct sentences which are far more complicated than *David plays the piano*. A knowledge of grammar enables us to evaluate the choices which are available to us during composition. In practice, these choices are never as simple as the choice between [1] and [2]. If we understand the relationship between the parts of a sentence, we can eliminate many of the ambiguities and misunderstandings which result from poor construction.

In the interpretation of writing, too, grammatical knowledge is often crucially important. The understanding of literary texts, for example, often depends on careful grammatical analysis. Other forms of writing can be equally difficult to interpret. Scientific and academic writing, for instance, may be complex not just in the ideas they convey, but also in their syntax. These types of writing can be difficult to understand easily without some familiarity with how the parts relate to each other.

The study of grammar enables us to go beyond our instinctive, native-speaker knowledge, and to use English in an intelligent, informed way.

Traditionally, grammar was divided into morphology (the grammatical study of morphemes and words) and syntax (the grammatical study of phrases and sentences). Later, some linguists added phonology as the third component, while still others added one more component, namely, semantics. The most important fact about the grammatical structure of language is that it's a highly complicated system, in which all its components are closely interrelated and interdependent. Thus, syntactical relations are often expressed be means of morphological forms, lack of inflexions is made up for by syntactical devices (such as the word order) etc.

TYPES OF GRAMMAR

First of all we have to distinguish two types of grammar:
1) normative (practical)
2) theoretical

The first type of grammar studies only generally accepted and non-disputable things, where as the second type studies disputable, theoretical and controversial phenomena. The latter may have different types.
There exist the following types of grammar (grammatical description):
1) PRESCRIPTIVE versus DESCRIPTIVE. The first tries to establish the norms of "correct" usage while the second describes objectively the grammatical phenomena of a language as they are actually observed in speech.
2) HISTORICAL (diachronic) versus SYNCHRONOUS. The former traces the historical development and changes of grammatical forms and structures in time, whereas the latter describes the grammatical system of a language as it exists at a given point of time (e.g. the grammar of the mid-twentieth century English).
3) COMPARATIVE versus CONTRASTIVE. Comparative grammar (often also called comparative-historical) sets up correlations between grammatical forms of two or more related (cognate) languages,

trying to trace back their historical developments to a common source (the so-called “parent” language). Contrastive grammar, on the other hand, establishes points of similarity and difference between grammatical structures of two languages irrespective of their degree of relation (that is, regardless of whether they are closely related, distantly related or totally unrelated).

4) TAXONOMIC versus GENERATIVE. The former is analytical and inductive; it starts with linguistic data and proceeds from them to abstract categories and classes of grammatical forms. The second (also called transformational-generative) is synthetical and deductive; it starts with abstract categories and rules and proceeds from them to concrete utterance in a given language.(Barkhudarov, 1967, 22)

5) TRADITIONAL(CONSTRUCTIVE, STRUCTURAL) versus COGNITIVE GRAMMAR. The first grammar type is aimed at studying morphological structure of the word stock of a language by classifying them into parts of speech and syntactical structure of phrases and sentences in which the words function as sentence parts.

The second one (cognitive grammar) is intended for studying grammatical structures known as grammemes functioning to represent certain “concepts” in the cognition of the objective reality (the world that surrounds us) by (native) speakers. Thus it is aimed at studying all language units as constructs used for generating gtrammemes including sentences of all kinds to represent various concepts of communicative importance .

6. TRADITIONAL(CONSTRUCTIVE, STRUCTURAL) versus COMMUNICATIVE GRAMMAR.

The tradiuional grammar is a kind of grammar aimed at studying, as shown above, the structural or the formal features of the grammemes, in which their communicative–functional aspect is almost fully ignored.

A Communicative Grammar is a fresh departure in grammatology in that it employs a communicative rather than a structural approach. There are several reasons for emphasizing the communication aspects of learning Grammar.

*A Communicative Grammar is aimed at t*he type of learner who is fairly advanced , usually, he already has grounding in the grammar of the language after several years of school and university studies. Yet his proficiency in actually using the language may be disappointing. This, it is believed, may be partly attributed to 'grammar fatigue' of rules of formation of structures. The learner may therefore benefit from looking at grammar from another angle, where grammatical structures are systematically related to meanings, concepts,. communication uses and situations.

The conventional method of presenting grammar in terms of structure also has a certain drawback in itself. For example, in such a grammar notions of time may be dealt with in as many as four different places: under the tense of the verb, under time adverbs, under prepositional phrases denoting time and under temporal conjunctions and clauses. The learner who is primarily interested in making use of the language rather than in learning about its structure (and this is true for the majority of foreign learners) is not likely to find such an arrangement particularly helpful. The organisation of *A Communicative Grammar*, the central part of which deals with grammar in use, makes it possible to bring similar notions, such as those involving time, together in one place.

A Communicative Grammar is a new kind of grammar. In presenting it, one should assume that studying grammar, for the learners, makes most sense if one starts with the question 'How can I use grammar to communicate?'. Thus the prime attention in such a grammar is duly paid to the *uses* of grammar, rather than to grammatical *structures*.

A Communicative Grammar is intended primarily for the fairly advanced learners. If you are such a learner, you have already studied some grammar in one form or another, but here learners are offered a new perspective on the subject, which relates grammatical structure systematically to meanings, uses and situations. In this way, it is hoped, learners will improve and extend the range of their communicative skills in the language.

A Communicative Grammar makes a fairly strong accent on synonymous, antonymous and even homonymous language phenomena(words, phrases, sentences) out of which one has to carefully choose the most suitable one for adequate communication.

A Communicative Grammar is also aimed at explaining briefly different kinds or varieties of the present day language, (for instance, such as “informal (British) English, “written (British) English” and

“American English”). In a grammar like this the different types of concept and meaning and different ways of organizing them(concept and meaning) are discussed in systematic order.
This how D.Ctrystal treats the ex[sting grammar types:

grammar 1, A systematic analysis of the structure of a language. A contrast is often drawn between a *descriptive grammar*, which provides a precise account of actual usage, and a *prescriptive grammar*, which attempts to establish rules for the correct use of language in society. A comprehensive practical description of the structure of a language is *a reference grammar*. *A theoretical grammar* goes beyond the study of individual languages, and uses linguistic data as a means of developing insights into the nature of language as such, and into the categories and processes needed for linguistic analysis. *A performance grammar* analyses the structures found in a corpus of speech or writing; this contrasts with a competence grammar, which is predictive of a speaker's knowledge. A grammar of the latter kind is usually thought of as *a generative grammar*, a device which gives a finite specification of the sentences of a language. A grammar whrich tries to establish the defining (universal) characteristics of human language is *a universal grammar*. In so far as grammar concentrates on the study of linguistic forms, or analyses language using the formalized techniques of logic or mathematics, it maybe referred to as *formal grammar;* this is often contrasted *with notional grammar*, which assumes the existence of extralinguistic categories in order to define grammatical units. *Traditional grammar* refers to the range of attitudes and methods found in the prelinguistic era of grammatical study, and especially in the European school grammars of the 18th and 19th centuries. >>case/finite state/formal/generalized phrase- structure / generative / lexical-functional / phrase - structure / relational / scale and category/systemic grammar; clause; competence; corpus; prescriptivism. 2. A level of structural organization which can be studied independently of phonology and semantics, generally divided into the branches of syntax and morphology. It is the study of the way in which words, and their component parts, combine to form phrases, clauses, sentences, and other units. ((David Crystal. A Dictionary of language . Second edition, The University of Chicago Press. 2001, 138). *Case grammar* is an approach to grammatical analysis which recognizes a set of syntactic functions ('cases') in the analysis of a sentence, giving these an interpretation in terms of the semantic roles that these functions express, such as *agentive, dative, and locative*. Devised by US linguist Charles Fillmore (1929-) in the late 1960s, in the context of generative grammar, it exercised considerable influence on subsequent '-developments in linguistic theory(David Crystal. A Dictionary of language . Second edition, The University of Chicago Press. 2001, 49)

GRAMMATICAL MODELS OR METHODS

A model is a theoretical construct, which is an approximation to the object which it represents (models). One and the same object such as, for instance, the sentence, can be represented through different models, each of which will represent certain essential properties of the sentence as it actually exists in language. Therefore it is incorrect to argue which model is "correct and which is not", although we can speak about the relative strength of different models. Out of various models, that one will be stronger which will represent a greater number of distinctive models. Thus, for instance, the structure of such two sentences as :
1) John saw a teacher
2) John became a teacher
may be represented as "Noun+Verb+Article+Noun". or, the two sentences may be represented as, respectively: 1) Noun/subject + Verb transitive + Article + Noun/object 2) Noun/subject + Verb linking + Article + Noun/predicative both models are correct, but the second is, evidently, stronger than the first, as it has a greater discriminative power.

The purpose of the Theoretical Grammar is to study the Grammatical structure of Modern English as a system, linked with the other aspects of the language and to distinguish leading lingua-communicative tendencies of its funtioning as a means of communication.

Grammar is a part of linguistics studying the grammatical structure of language. Grammatical structure of language is a unity of language means used for constructing speech units.

Any language, as well as English serves the society, people speaking this or that language. From this point of view, language serves to express some definite information by the help of its means (units). For example, if we want to express some idea or thought in English, we have to make use of the means of it. Let's think that some person by the name of say, John, resides in some definite place, say, London: We have to resort to the following English language means:

John live London

But to express the very idea it is not sufficient to utilize the given group of words. It is also necessary to link these words with each other, that is to say, we are to formulate an utterance (sentence) out of the given words keeping to the traditional laws of the very language: if we do so, well get the following.

John lives in London.

What did we do, so as to construct this utterance (speech unit)?

First of all, we put the words in a certain order of parts of a sentence, then we give them necessary forms (e.g. lives and not live).

In order to link the words London with the rest part of the sentence, we have to use a function word and at last we give the sentence one intonation pattern. This is true of an oral and not written speech, we have to use all kinds of punctuation marks.

The term "grammar" is of Greek origin. It is derived from Greek "Grammatik techno " and means the art of writing or technique of writing. Hence grammar is a branch of linguistics, which studies the art of writing, reading and speaking as to the Greek people. Accordingly we can say that grammar studies written and oral speech of human beings.

Now as a term "grammar" has three meanings:

1. Grammatical structure; grammar (science)
2. Grammatical knowledge of a person (John's grammar)
3. A textbook on grammar (grammar book).

Grammar and its relations to phonetics, lexicology and word-building.

(These notions have to be looked upon from the point of view of language levels and linguistic branches such as phonetics, lexicology,etc.)

Phoneme, morpheme, lexeme (word) syntaxeme (phraseme and sentenceme) are the main units of language and accordingly their discrete realizations(phone, morph, lex, syntax(phrase/sentence) are speech units. They are interconnected.

As to phonetics, it was not a relatively independent science in the period of early linguistic mind but was considered to be a part of grammar. Take the grammar books of the XVIII-XIX centuries, for instance.

Wordbuilding is not a part of grammar, because grammar doesn't study all possible ways of wordformation, but it analyses words from the point of view of the theory of parts of speech. Apart from that, we have to analyze words of a given language from the morphological and syntactical points of views.

Morphological study of a word presupposes the analysis of a word and its structure. Hence, it's important for grammar to distinguish what a word is and what a morpheme is.The notions of morph and allomorph are also of great significance here.

Let's see what units of language are found in English.

Phoneme is the smallest distinctive unit: tale – take, bank - rank.

So let's see what morph is?

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful language unit. Morph is its concrete realization in speech.

Morph is (as to Barkhudarov L.S.) the smallest combination (succession) of phonemes (at least one phoneme) which has its certain meaning and is not further divided into miner meaningful parts, but it is so frequently repeated in various utterances:

clear
clear/ly

clear/ness
clear/ed
clear/s
un/clear

As we see, "clear" is the smallest meaningful combination of phonemes, hence it is a morph, where as "cl" is not a morph.

If we take the morpheme "clear" off the structure of the above words, well have-,-ly, -ness,-ed,-s, un-," they are also morphemes.

Prof. Barkhudarov gives these two rather interesting conclusions of the word-structure:

1. In any utterance any phoneme or combination of phonemes always enters into a morph.
2. If one part of the word is already a morph, then the second (rest) half is also to be considered a morph.

Straw-berry
goose-berry
cran-berry
bil-berry

Morphemes fall under four types: free, bound, fused and zero morphemes.

F r e e m o r p h e m e s are the ones that can be used alone as one word when taken off the structure of the word:

class-room,
bed-room,
baby-sit
air-craft, etc

whereas bound ones are the morphemes that can't be used alone, if taken off the structure of the word.

B o u n d m o r p h e m e s are such ones, which can not be used alone, when taken off the structure of the word: -by,-ed,-tun,-ness,-s,ek.

Fused morphemes are:
real-ly - (riali)
actual-ly - (aktuali)

Here, one "1" is pronounced, so phoneme (l) found in both morphs, "real" and "-ly" in the parts of the word "really" are both fused morphemes, and the phenomenon itself is called fusion-(фузия-коришув).

M o r p h e m e is a combination of morphs having one and the same meaning and found in the relations of complementary distribution. One excludes the other below:

clear clarity - is not possible
clearly, clarify, clearness - is neither
clearness
please
pleasure
pleasing

The above morphemes (clear-, clar-, pleas-,) are the ones that have the meanings of "ясность", "удовольствие".

Here "clar-" and "clear-", as well as "pleas-" are morphemes that enter into one and the same distribution (-e-, -s, -en, -a) and make up one morpheme of plurality, the former being called allomorphs (variants of it).

man men
boy boys
ox oxen
} the morphs "-e","-s", "-en" are in complementary

phenomenon - phenomena distribution
clear-
clar- - are allomorphs of one and the same morpheme

in-
ir- - are allomorphs in the words "irregular,

foot - feet - these are allomorphemical combinations
men - man (морфологически обусловленные сочетания)

They are non-productive, because they are seldom used in language "-s" as in "boy-s","text-s", "chess-es" are allomorphs phonemically conditioned (фонологические обусловленные сочетания). They are productive, because they are frequently used in language.
sheep - singular
sheep - plural are the same following

Z e r o m o r p h e m e. Here we distinguish it (zero morph) in syntactical environment. "Lexeme" or "word" is a combination of morphemes (in the simplest form - one morpheme) into which there can't be included any other such a combination of morphemes. Take "Unreasonable", we can't insert anything here. So it is a word, a whole indivisible unit. We can speak of a phraseme, syntactaxeme and textemes as language units too.

Methods of analysis in grammar.

There are various methods of grammatical analysis, among which some main ones are:

1. Parts of sentence method
2. Distributional method
3. Immediate Constituents method
4. Transformational method
5. Componential method (semantical method)
6. Tagmemic method
7. Oppositional method
8. Contextual method
9. Method of modelling
10. Statistical method

Let's consider them separately and see what advantages they have in grammatical analysis.

1. Parts of sentence method

This method is extensively used in parsing sentences, according to which the following sentence parts are distinguished and analyzed:
a) the principle (primary, main) parts of a sentence (subject and predicate)
b) the secondary parts of sentence (object attribute and adverbial on modifiers Sometimes the parts of sentence method is helpless towards analysis of such disputable parts of the sentence as "from the people there came shouting of all sorts" for the part "From the people" can be analysis in three ways:
a) as an adverbial modifier complement
b) as an attributive complement (attribute)
c) as a predicative complement (object)
In such cases the distributional method is helpful in its own way:

2. Distributional method

The Distributional method is the one, according to which sentence structure is considered to be consisting of words, belonging to different parts of speech. For example, the sentence "The Old man saw a black dog there" is analyzed as follows by using the distributional model:

	I A	2-d	D3	I b 4
D 3 ---		+		---------
	He	-		he/she/it

Here: D - means "noun determiner' - article
3 - means "adjective"

I - means noun in singular, in masculine gender
He

2-d
+ - Means verb in the form of Past Indefinite singular or plural
-

I
------ - Means noun in singular, in masculine gender
He/she/it (or in feminine or neutral)

4 - means "adverb"
"a" and "b" above "I" mean that nouns have different denotates (or referents) which name different subject or persons.

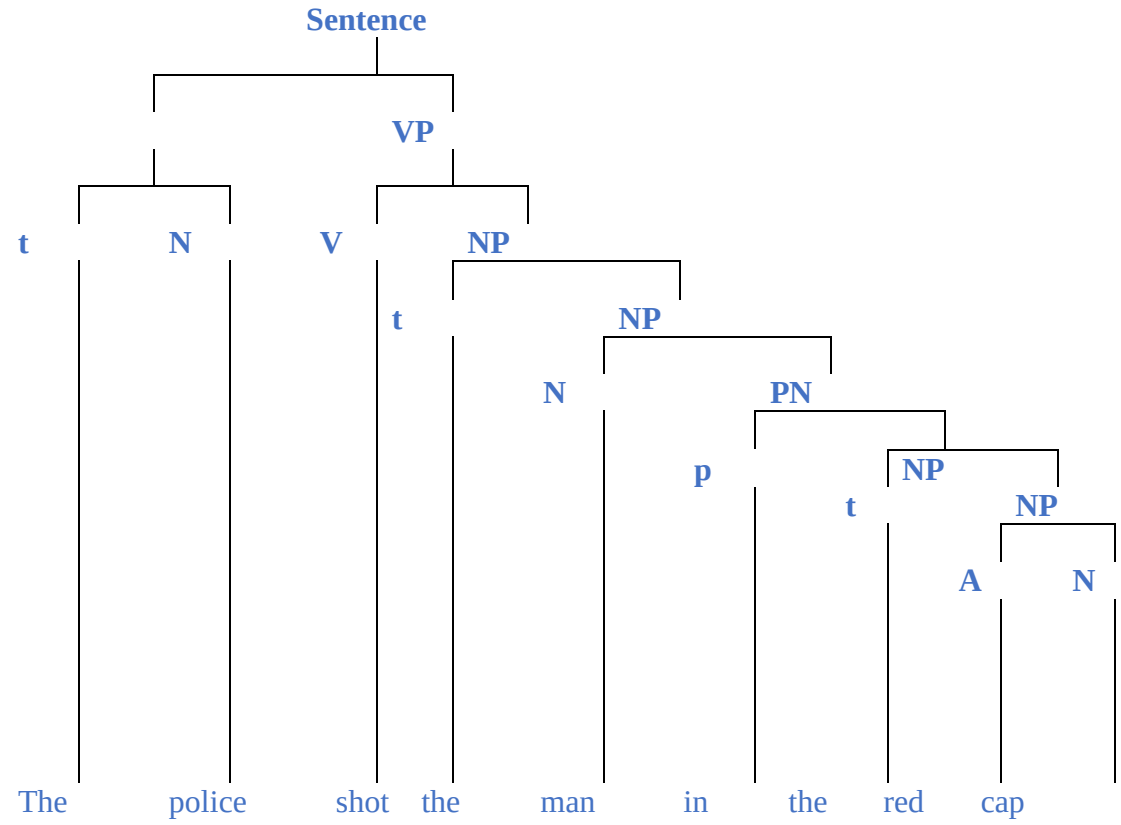
But when such sentences as:

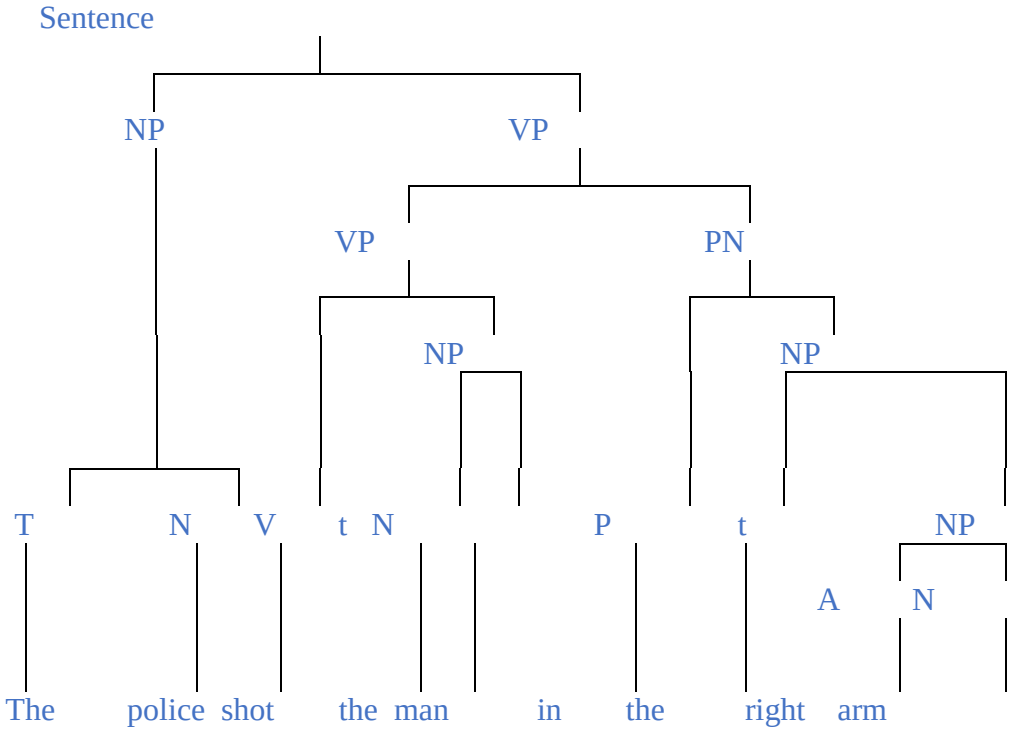
1. The police shot the man in the red cap
2. The police shot the man in the right arm are dealt with, they can not be analyzed by the very distributional method, for they are identical according to the latter, but in reality, we are, naturally, dealing with two different parts of the sentence: that is an attribute in the first sentence and an object in the second sentence.

Such disputable cases of analysis can't be solved by the distributional method and we have to apply the Immediate Constituents method.

3. Immediate Constituents Method

I.C. model is the leading model of analysis in the descriptive linguistics. It is based on not a linear succession of words in a sentence, but on the hierarchy of levels of sentence parts. Each time we distinguish a part of the sentence of maximum length on binary principle.





The IC model clearly shows the differences in the structure of the above sentences. Nevertheless there are some sentence structures, which the Immediate Constituents method is not able to analysis, and here it is necessary to use another model or method of grammatical analyses called transformational.

For example, the distributional method analyses the following sentences as identical, but in fact they are different structures, which can be proved by the transformational method.

1. John is eager to please
John is easy to please

4. The transformational method

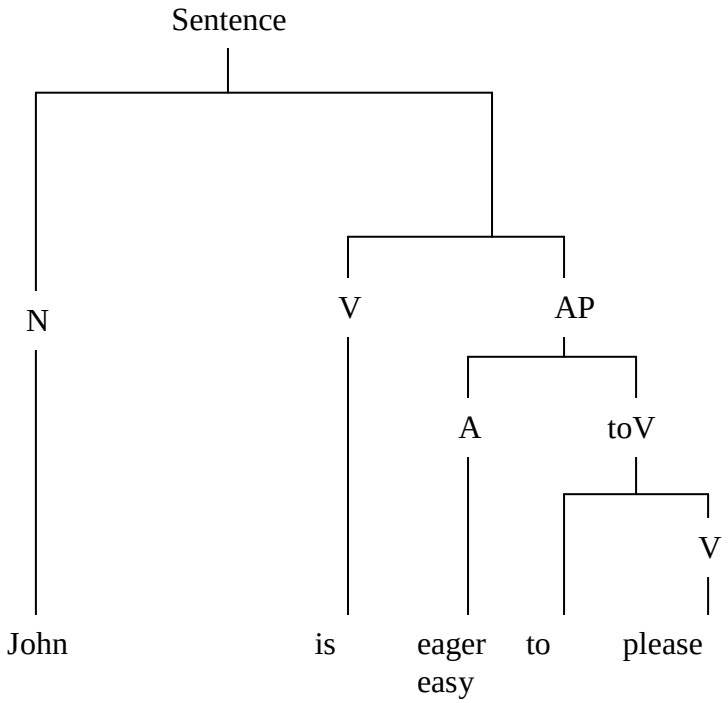
The transformational method is a method that helps linguist to analyse languages structures distinguishing what is kernel (initial) and what is derrivative (transformed).

So, the above two sentences may be well differentiated and identified as totally different structures:

1. John is eager to V ¦
John pleases X ¦--- John is eager to please (X)

2. It is easy ¦ It is easy (for X)
X pleases John ¦ to please John hence: John is easy
¦ to please

So, as is seen from the above described the transformational method analyses language structure in a system and not in isolation, which is the advantage of the former and is seen from the following model:



5. The Componential method.

The Componential method is a method by the help of which we analyze the semantic structures of language units by distinguishing s e m e s in the semantics of the former.

For example: to work - seme of indefiniteness of the action as to the moment of speech

to have worked - seme of completeness of the action as to the moment of speech

6. The Contextual method.

The Contextual method is a method by the help of which one can analyze language units on the basis of a micro or macro context.

For example: We need hands.

In this sentence we have a polysemantic word "hand", which means “кўл (рука), иш кучи (рабочая сила) and соат стрелкаси (стрелки часов)”. If we want an exact translation of the word "hand", we must work with the context of it, which might be as follows:

1.We need hands, because my watch is out of order.

(соат стрелкалари)

2.We need hands, because we have to finish the work in time.

(иш кучи, кул - рабочая сила, рука)

By the help of the context of the word “hand” we were able to exactly translate it, without which we could have failed.

7. The Tagmemic method

The Tagmemic Method is a method like the IC. The founder of this model (method) is Pike K.L. (see his work "Tagmemes and Immediate Constituents": Language",vol,19, 1943,N2, p 65-82).

The model founded by Pike represents the structure of the sentence as a string (тизим) of tagmemes.

A Tagmeme is a bilaterial unit,"___" a functional slot with its class filler". This is symbolized as "slot"; class with the signs "-(+)" to indicate obligatory and optional tag-memes.

John saw Mary yesterday.

Cl:=+s:n+p:v+o:n+-T: adv (where: cl=clause, s-subject, p-predicate, o-oblect, t-ime, adv-adverbial, n=noun, v=verb, adv=adverb).

This model in fact is another variant of the I C model, differing from it (I C model) in two respects:1) the division of the sentence (clause) into constituents is not necessarily binary:2) all coustituents are given double labels:(functional as well as class names).

8. The Method of Opposition.

The method of opposition is a method by the help of which we analyse language units as to "markedness" and "non-markedness" of the former.

Opposition of language units are given below:

marked member: non-marked member:

boys - boy

boy - boy's

boys - boys'

do - is done

9. Method of modeling

By the method of modeling we learn and analyze the grammatical structures as to the models(which are abstractions from real structures) which makes the efforts of a learner less difficult than it is in analyzing the endless empiric language units, that is it minimizes them by patternizing the latter into abstract models so as to give them a complete list of their invariant forms which are generatable. This method can be used in the analysis of any grammeme(say parts of speech, phrases, sentences, etc). For instance: S+P is the most abstract model of a sentence (with a subject and predicate structure) which can be made a bit more concrete by adding the symbol "O"(object): S+P+O, etc.

10.Statistical method

Statistical method is one that analyses language units, including grammemes, by way of calculations in order to find out the frequency of their usage, that is to find out, for instance, what frequency this or that grammeme has in language as to its use in different functional styles of language, or elsewhere.

PARTS OF GRAMMAR

There are two parts in grammar: morphology and syntax.

Morphology is a part of grammar that studies words of a language by classifying them into parts of speech according to their lexico-grammatical meaning, form and function that make up their grammatical categories.

Syntax is a part of grammar that studies phrases, sentences and their structure and functions.

1. Paradigmatic morphology studies all possible changes in a word: boy - boys - boy's - boys', etc.
2. Syntagmatic morphology studies the use of all possible forms of a word in speech:
   I have done(taken isolatedly).:
1. Paradigmatic syntax studies all possible forms of a word in language:
   I have not done(taken isolatedly).

"I will have done" are paradigms of the sentence "I do"

2. Syntagmatic syntax studies the use of all possible sentence forms in concrete flow of speech:

LECTURE 2 (2 hours)

THEME: MORPHOLOGY. THE THEORY OF PARTS OF SPEECH IN MODERN ENGLISH

P l a n:

1. Morphology. Theory of Parts of speech in Modern English (ME).
2. The main criteria for classifying Parts of speech in Modern English:

a) meaning

b) form

c) function

3. The notion of:

1) a word structure

2) morpheme and its types

3) allomorph

4) grammatical meaning

5) grammatical form

6) grammatical function
7) grammatical category
4. The total number of the Parts of speech in ME.

Key words:

theory of parts of speech, classification of parts of speech,
the main criteria for classifying parts of speech; a) meaning; b) form;c) function
total number of the parts of speech ; word structure; grammatical meaning; grammatical form; grammatical function; grammatical category; total number of parts of speech: 1) the noun: 2) the adjective: 3) the pronoun:4) the numeral:5) the stative: 6) the verb:7) the adverb:8) the preposition:9) the conjunction; 10) the particle:11) the modal word: 12) the interjection, 13)article, 14) response words, 15)requestive 16)approximative.

The course of lecture.

The parts of speech theory is one of the vexed and controversial problems in linguistics. In the history of linguistics there were made many attempts to create a solid theory of parts of speech on the basis of strict principles and strict criteria. But none of those attempts has as yet proved right and generally been accepted.

Still there is no generally accepted classification of parts of speech in linguistics as well as in Modern English. It is because of the lack of strict criteria for their classification, hence are differences in the nomenclature of parts of speech.

It is very important, first of all, to define the very phenomenon called parts of speech. Here is our attempt to give a definition of a part of speech in Modern English.

So, a part speech is, then, a class or a group of words (or one word in its simplest form) characterized by the following 3 main criteria:

1. Meaning
2. Form
3. Function, as well by a grammatical category, if the part of speech has a changeable form.

It is, then, right to postulate that parts speech that are in changeable in form have no grammatical category at all.

We shall analyze different approaches to the parts of speech in English.

The first author of the English scientific Grammar Henry Sweet (1898) divides parts of speech into two main groups:

1.declinables
2.indeclinables (or particles)

So, his classification is based mainly on the morphological criteria.

Here he distinguished the following parts of speech:

1. declinables:
1) noun; 2) adjective; 3) verbs.
2. indeclinables:
1)adverbs; 2)prepositions;
3)conjunctions; 4)interjections.

Besides his classification of parts of speech based on morphological criteria he offers another classification based on syntactical criteria:

Declinables: 1.noun-words: noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund.
2. adjective-words: adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, adjective-participles.
3.verbs: finite verb,verbals (infinitive,gerund participle).

Indeclinable (particles): adverb, preposition,conjunction, interjection.

As we see, the first attempt to classify the words in English into parts of speech seems to be very interesting. But it has its weak points, which lie in the following:

1. It covers not all the parts of speech, for example, articles, adlinks (words of category of state), etc. are excluded here altogether.

2. Henry Sweet's indeclinable parts of speech have words which may be declined : for example, adverbs, (fast, faster, fastest).
3. Among his declinables not all of them are declined. numerals, one, two, three, ten, twenty, etc.
Let's see O.Jespersen's classification; (he is a Dutch linguist). He suggests to classify words as to their functions though he says that not only function, but meaning and form of words have also to be considered here:
1.primary words
2.secondary words
3.tertiary words
As, for example, in the word combination "A furiously barking dog" he calls the word "dog" primary, because it may serve as a nucleus of a phrase or subject of a sentence: the word " barking " is the secondary, "furiously" is the tertiary one. Here we see strict syntactical subordination of one word to another.
So here is his classification based on form, meaning and function of the words:
1.substantives (including proper names)
2.adjectives
Note: In some respects, as to Jespersen, parts of speech number one and two may be classed together with "nouns".
3.pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs).
4.verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbals" (non-finite forms).
5.particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections).
As to Jespersen the last group (5) can not be included into any four (above given classes).
As we see this classification is not full either. It does not include the modal words, adlinks (words of category of state of "afraid" type).
An original approach to the classification of parts of speech was made by Charles Fries (1956) in his book "The Structure of English". His classification is based on one criteria the position of words in sentences. He distinguished four main word classes, which correspond to traditional "nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs".

"The concert was good" (always) by four parts of speech he means all the words that can substitute them. Besides that Fries distinguished 15 word groups, with different positions in the sentence. They correspond to the traditional functional parts of speech.

This way, Fries distinguishes four main parts of speech that make up, as to him, 67 percent of the language vocabulary.
The sentence type "The (good) concert was good (always)" was a pattern for him to include this or that word into this or that class.

Fries's classification is interesting but not full, for there are cases when his word classes do not work properly.

Say, for instance, modal verb makes up words of group B, though they function together with the infinitive predicatively.
Here, as one can see, both the morphological and syntactical criteria are fully ignored, position of words being more important in this respect.

Later J. Trager and Smith offered their classification of parts of speech based on morphological and syntactical features/criteria. But their theory did not provide full coverage of English word stock either.

Here is H.Glison's opinion of the parts of speech. His classification is based on the two criteria:
1.morphological form;
2.position/order of words.
The whole language word stock is divided by him into two main groups:
1.Words, which change their form (declinable)
2.Words, which don't change their form (indeclinable)
It is like Henry Sweet's classification.

The first group includes, nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. But he exchanged all words belonging to the aforesaid parts of speech, if they don't change or are indeclinable;
For. ex.: beautiful, merciful, etc. don't belong to the group of adjectives, but belong to the group of "adjectives", like some pronouns can't be classified as such, but included into a much larger group called "pronominals".
For example: he, her, him, his.
but some, any, no, nothing, every, each, its, myself, himself etc.
are included into "pronominals" only. As we see here some words enter different groups, which shows that this theory is not a happy one either.
J.Sledd's (1959) classification is close to Glison's. He distinguishes the two main types of parts of speech:
1) inflectional classes of words
2) positional classes of words

To the first class of words belong noun, pronoun, verb, adjective and adverb, to the second: nominals, verbals, adjectivals, adverbials (altogether 4) and 8 smaller positional classes: determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensives-reflexives, auxiliaries, adverbials of degree.

Paul Roberts avoids altogether classifying the words into parts of speech, because, as he thinks, in a real language it is only rarely that word classes or other structures are signaled by some simple and unique signals.

The Russian linguists have suggested a more acceptable classification of words of the English language into parts of speech.
Among them the ideas of B.A.Ilyish and S.Barkhudarov in their approaches to the parts of speech are more convincing and pretend to be full.
As to B.A.Ilyish the three the main factors - criteria must lie under the classification of parts of speech.
They are: 1)meaning (semantics)
2)form (paradigm of a word)
3)function (syntactic function and ability to be combined with other parts of speech)
B.A.Ilyish offers 12 parts of speech:
1) the noun:
2) the adjective:
3) the pronoun:
4) the numeral:
5) the stative:
6) the verb:
7) the adverb:
8) the preposition:
9) the conjunction:
10) the particle:
11) the modal word:
12) the interjection.

Besides that B.A.Ilyish registers some words which do not fit into any other group of parts of speech such as: yes, no, please, almost, very, nearly. He doesn't give articles in the list of parts of speech, and calls them noun-determiners. It's interesting, but groundless. Hence we accept article as a separate functional part of speech, because it has its real status of a part of speech and may be added not only to nouns, but to other parts of speech as well (for example, adjectives, numerals, etc.)
B.A Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya offer 14 parts of speech:
1) noun;
2) adjective;
3) pronoun;
4) adverb;
5) numeral;
8) conjunction;
9) preposition;
10) interjection;
11) article;
12) particle;

6) verb;
7) statives;
(theirs is the most complete
list of parts of speech)
13) modal words
14) response words: yes, no.

Ivanova, Burlakova, Pocheptsov distinguish 13 parts of speech:

1) noun;
2) adjective;
3) pronoun;
4) numerals;
5) verb;
6) adverb;
7) modal words
8) interjection;
9) words not included;
10) function words:preposition;
11) conjunction;
12) particle;
13) article.

Jigadlo distinguishes 13 parts of speech:

1) noun;
2) adjective;
3) numeral;
4) pronoun;
5) verb;
6) statives;
7) adverb;
8) modal words;
9) interjection notional
10) prepositions;
11) conjunctions;
12) particles;
13) articles (function words).

W.N.Francis (in "The Structure of American English" N,York,1958) stresses that there are only 4 main parts of speech (function parts of speech are excluded he- re), for they are helpers to the notional parts of speech and have to be treated separately).

1) noun; 2)verb; 3)adjective; 4)adverb.

J.Sledd (A Short Introduction to English Grammar, Glenview,Illinois,1959) distinguishes only two classes (types) of parts speech.

1) Inflectional classes (paradigmatically) (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb), distinguished as to the affixes in their structure" King+dom, patience, presence, teach+er, act+or etc.

2) Positional classes (as to their position in the sentence).

The will+be+3 good

1) nominals;
2) verbals;
3) adjectivals;
4) adverbals and 8 smaller positional classes;

a) determiners;
b) prepositions;
c) conjunctions;
d) relatives;
e) interrogatives;
f) intensive-reflexives;
g) auxiliaries;
h) adverbials of degree.

As we-see there are a lot of opinions on one and the something: the number of parts of speech and their types.

Among the abovementioned, as it seems, the most adequate classification is that of B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovokaya's . (that is, 14 parts of speech with "Response words" at the end of their classification).

It is up to a learner to follow this or that grammarian or work out his or her own classification of parts of speech (adjectives, numeral, etc.)

L.S.Barckudarov thinks that in classifying the words into parts of speech the two criteria must be kept to:

1) syntactical
2) morphological

He severely critisizes the traditional classifications of parts of speech for observing only the semantic criteria. He offers the same traditional parts of speech.

There were attempts to classify words of a language into:

1) notional parts of speech;

2) functional parts of speech.

It is linked with the fact that a word can express some semantics (meanings) alone or where as some are fully grammaticalized: if he came, would you do it? This we find in the latest classifications of parts of speech in English.

"Postposition" as a part of speech was offered by B.A.Ilyish, G.G.Pocheptsov, Ivanova, etc,as in the following cases:

to put on
to put off
to turn on
to turn off
to go away - away
to go up – up
to go down
to clear up - up

As to words like " *on*, off, up, away, down" we think that they are still prepositions, but can be used in postpositions after verbs. We think that in the above mentioned cases of ellipsis " turn *on*" means, for instance, "turn on (the light), "put off" means "put off (the coat)","go up" means "go up (the road)", "to go down" means "to go down(the street), "come in" means "come *in*(to the room)","go away" means "go away (from home),where, as is seen from the illustrations, the underlined words are not at all "postpositions", placed postpositively after the verbs, but prepositions used in the verbal phrases or combinations of elliptical character, the missing parts of which can be easily restored(compare: " turn *on*" in "turn on (the light), "put off" in "put off (the coat)", where the underlined words are nothing but prepositions preceding the nouns).

Among the theorists of parts of speech the Russian scholars occupy a conspicuous place. The distinguished feature of the Russian scholars' investigations lies in the fact that they base themselves on the three main criteria in classifying words of the English language into parts of speech:

1) meaning (semantics)
2) form (paradigm) (their ability to combine with the other parts of speech, to enter the phrase and sentences)
3) function

There arises naturally a question "What about certain parts of speech that do not have all these features? Do all the parts of speech have these three features?" Certainly not. Here one thing is definitely clear that at least one of the three criteria is obligatorily characteristic of any part of speech. As to the nomenclature of the parts of speech most of the Russian scholars stick to the following list of parts of speech:

1. noun
2. article
3. adjective
4. pronoun
5. numeral
6. words of category of state (statives or adlinks)
7. adverb
8. preposition
9. conjunction
10. particle
11. modal words
12. interjection
13. words not included into the parts of speech (yes, no, please)
14. postposition (послелог) (Ilyish, Pocheptsov, Ivanova: up, down, in, no, etc.) in such cases as: stand up, sit down, come in, etc.

As to the existence of the above mentioned “postpositions” in Modern English we are a little bit doubtful, because we think that they still preserve their true “preposition” before the words they modify, and not a postposition as the mentioned group of grammarians think, especially in such cases as “ put on, put off, turn on, turn off, come in, rush in”, etc. If we consider all the above mentioned cases of preposition usage, after any of them we can use such nouns as “ put on /off (a coat), come (in the room), rush in(to the smoke, etc.), turn on/off (the light, water, gas stove, etc.), so in all such cases prepositions are still preceding the nouns they modify. Hence they have to be treated as prepositions and not as postpositions and the cases of the ellipsis in the given examples in the flow of speech should be obligatorily taken into consideration.

In this list one can distinguish the so called notional and functional parts of speech. But it is not so happy a division, because there's no logic and no ground in it, for it is the independent or dependant use of this or that part of speech. But in fact lexical meaning (semantics) lies under this division. Sure, some words classified as separate parts of speech may not have and in fact do not have their own semantics, e.g. that(conjunction) should, would (auxiliaries etc. They can function in the sentence together with the other words, which is the thing that makes them semantically charged.

Though they have no lexical meaning of their own, as to their functions in the necessary context or distribution, they enjoy equal rights with the notional parts of speech, because not a single notional part of speech can replace the functional ones, or vice versa. The above said serves as the ground for denying the division of parts of speech into "notionals" and functionals", besides that not all the notional parts of speech can be independently used (modal verbs, non-finite forms, etc.) As to those words which are called "doubtful" we have our own treatment of them.

The words of the type, yes, no, please, almost, very, nearly, etc, can be treated as follows. We accept B.S.Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya's treatment of words "yes, no" as response words we would rather call them "responsives" by analogy of "statives" for adlinks.

As far as the word "please" is concerned we offer the term "requestive", for they express "request" only.

The words of the type "almost, nearly" can be called "approximitives" or even approximators, for their semantics presupposes something of “approximation”.

So, now it is high time for us to sum up our analysis of the parts of speech in Modern English. Our observations show that there are the following 16 parts of speech.

1. Noun
2. Pronoun
3. Adjective
4. Verb
5. Numeral
6. Adverb
7. Modal word
8. Word of category of state (stative)
9. interjection (ah,alas,oh)
10. Particle
11. Article
12. Conjuction
13. Preposition
14. Responsive (yes,no)
15. Requestive (please)
16. Approximatives (almost, nearly, about)

Now we shall learn the above mentioned parts of speech one by one.

Questions on the theme:

What does Morphology study?

1. What is a word structure?
2. What is a morpheme?
3. What are the types of the mnorpheme?

4. What is an allomorph?
5.) What is a grammatical meaning?
6. 5) What is a grammatical form?
7. 6) What is a grammatical function?
8. 7) What is a grammatical category?
9. What is a part of speech?
10. What are the main criteria for distinguishing parts of speech?
11. What is a grammatical form?
12. What is a grammatical meaning?
13. What is a grammatical function?
14. How are the words classified into parts of speech?
15. What words are called primary(main, meaningful)parts of speech?
16. What words are called secondary(structural, formal or functional)parts of speech?
17. What is the nomenclature of parts of speech?
18. How many parts of speech are distiunguished traditionally?
19. How are such words as “yes, no, please” and “almost or nearly” treated from the point of view of the parts of speech?
20. What is the total number of the English parts of speech theoretically?
21. Whose classification of parts of speech do you really appreciate and why?
22. Why not try your own classification of parts of speech in Modern English?

LECTURE 3 (2 hours)

THEME: THE NOUN AND ITS STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC TYPES AND SYNTACTICAL FUNCTIONS IN THE SENTENCE.

P l a n:

1. Noun as a principal part of speech.
2. Structural types of the Noun.
3. Semantic types of the Noun.
4. Syntactical functions of the Noun

Key words:

noun, meaning, form, function of nouns, lexico-grammatical meaning of thingness or substance, substantive, classification of nouns, structural classification of nouns: simple nouns,derivative or derived nouns,compound nouns, combinations as “stone wall”and”speech sound”, semantical classification of nouns proper nouns, common nouns, class nouns, collective nouns, nouns of multitude, material nouns, abstract nouns, grammatical categories:category of mumber, category of case, “category of gender”

The course of lecture

Noun is a part of speech, expressing the lexico-grammatical meaning of thingness or substance, hence some linguists call it substantive.

We shall analyze the nouns as to the above mentioned three criteria:

Meaning of nouns: (general semantics of nouns) is "thingness" in the broadest sense of the word. Thingness is pecular to all nouns.

Examples: fox, idea ,air, peace, water, necessity, journey, honesty, etc.

Form: almost all the nouns have variable forms, though few nouns have invariable forms. The change of forms we observe in connection with the categories of nouns: plural and singular that make up the category of number, and, "common” and" genitive”cases that make up the category of case.

Function : the functions of nouns are seen in their ability to form phrases and in their functioning as parts of sentences (subject, object, attribute, part of a predicate, adverbial modifier, when proceeded with prepositions), for example:

1. The boy came in.
2. He is a worker.

3. A woman teacher is needed.
4. I see the driver.
5. He sits in the room.

Nouns are very great in number in the word stock of language. They make up a considerable part of the language word stock.

Classification of nouns.

1. Structurally we distinguish:

1) simple nouns:

cat, hat, tea (with one root only)

2) derivative or derived nouns: stem+noun forming affix:

teacher - or
doctor - or
successor - or
-ism - capitalism
-dent - student
-ment - government
-ity - activity
-tion - question
attention
-sion - tension
pension

3) compound nouns.

1. noun stems+noun stem:
appletree
showball
mortor-car
class-room

(Such combinations as “stone wall”and”speech sound” are not compound nouns, but word combinations(for example, B.A.Ilyish considers them phrases, so do U.I.Smirnitsky and O.S.Akhmanova)).

2. Adjective stem+noun stem:
blackbird, bluebell
3. Verb stem+noun stem:
pickpocket, mockingbird dancing-room, sitting-room reading-hall
4. Preposition+noun stem: on-looker
5. Verb+pronoun-particle: forget-me-nots
6. Noun+preposition: passers-by.
7. Adjective+verb+affix: blackmailer, blackmarketer,
8. Noun+verb+affix: bookseller, babysitter, antiaircraftcarrier

2. Semantically there can be distinguished:

1) proper nouns
2) common nouns

Common nouns may be semantically classified into two large groups:

a) concrete nouns: pen, hen. ben, etc:
b)abstract nouns - idea, aim, love, purpose
a) concrete nouns: pen, hen. ben, etc:

Concrete nouns ,in their turn, may be:

a) class nouns - student, worker, doctor, pen, pencil
b) collective nouns - jury, crew, board, committee,police
c) nouns of multitude - jury, crew, board, committee,police
d) material nouns - silk, cotton,wood, gold, copper

The common nouns are the ones that form one class each member of the class shares common features, meanings and functions with others(for example, teacher, writer, driver, student, superintendent, or quickly, slowly, beautifully, etc).

The Proper nouns are the names given to individuals, animals, ships, cities, places, buildings, etc., hence they are unique and always written through the capital letters. For instance, Jackson, White Fang, the Titanic, London, India, " Antalia", etc.

Nouns have various syntactical functions in the sentence.

The chief syntactical functions of the noun in the sentence are those of the subject and the object. But it may also be used as an attribute or a predicative.

The sun was rising in all his splendid beauty. *(Dickens)* (SUBJECT)

Troy and Yates followed the tourists. *(Heym)* (OBJECT)

He (Bosinney) was an architect... *(Galsworthy)* (PREDICATIVE)

Mary brought in the fruit on a tray and with it a glass bowl, and a blue dish... *(Mansfield)* (ATTRIBUTE; the noun *glass* is used in the common case)

[1] Gender, i. e. the distinction of nouns into masculine, feminine and neuter, may be expressed lexically by means of different words or word-compounds:

father — mother man — woman
boy—girl gentleman—lady
husband — wife cock-sparrow — hen-sparrow
boy-friend — girl-friend man-servant — maid-servant

Very often personal or possessive pronouns indicate the gender of the noun. (See Chaptei IV.)

The hero and heroine, of course, just arrived from his father's yacht. *(Mansfield)* (ATTRIBUTE; the noun *father* is used in the genitive case) A noun preceded by a preposition (a prepositional phrase) may be used as attribute, prepositional indirect object, and adverbial modifier.

To the left were clean panes of glass. *(Ch. Bronte)* [(ATTRIBUTE)

Bicket did not answer, his throat felt too dry. He had heard of the police. *(Galsworthy)* (OBJECT) She went into the drawing-room and lighted the fire. *(Mansfield)* (ADVERBIAL MODIFIER)

"Stop everything, Laura!" cried Jose In astonishment. *(Mansfield)* (ADVERBIAL MODIFIER)

The noun is generally associated with the article. Because of the comparative scarcity of morphological distinctions in English in some cases only articles show that the word is a noun.

A noun can be modified by an adjective, a pronoun, by another noun or by verbals.

Questions on the theme:

1) What is a noun?
2) What are the main criteria for distinguishing a noun?
3) Do the nouns change their form?
4) What are the main functions of the noun?
5) What structural types of nouns do you know?
6) What semntic types of nouns do you know?
7) What nouns are called simple ?
8) What nouns are called derivative or derived?
9) What nouns are called compound nouns?
10) How are such combinations as "stone wall"and"speech sound"treated?
11) What nouns are called nouns of the singularia tantum?
12) What nouns are called nouns of the pluralia tantum ?
13) What nouns are called proper nouns?
14) What nouns are called common nouns?
15) What nouns are called class nouns?
16) What nouns are called collective nouns?
17) What nouns are called nouns of multitude?
18) What nouns are called material nouns?

19) What nouns are called abstract nouns?

Lecture 4(2 hours)

THEME 4: THE THEORY OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE ENGLISH NOUNS

PLAN:

1.Notion of a grammatical category.
2.Grammatical categories of the noun in Modern English:
a) number
b) case
c) "gender"
3.Nouns of the pluralia tantum(only)
4.Nouns of the singularia tantum(only)
5.Collective Nouns and agreement between subject and predicate
6.Nouns of Multitude and agreement between subject and predicate

Key words: grammatical category, category of nouns, category of number, singular and plural forms, nouns of the singularia tantum, nouns of the pluralia tantum, count nouns, non-count nouns, nouns of multitude, collective nouns, agreement of subject expressed by collective or multitude noun with predicate, the use of articles before count nouns, non-count nouns, special uses of articles before certain types nouns, category of case, common case, possessive case, double possessive,"of" phrases and their treatment, category of "gender", three ways (morphological, lexical and syntactical) of forming gender in language, English uses of the two of them: 1) lexical(boy, girl, man , woman) ; 2) syntactical(woman teacher, man driver, woman driver), so no use of the morphological way(by the help of a morpheme "-ess" which was typical of the Old English some ferminine forms are still kept in Modern English(compare: tiger - tiger+ess, actor - actr+ess, poet - poet+ess, lion - lion+ess, etc.).

We shall further analyze the c a t e g o r i e s of the nouns.
Before that let's recall our memory back as to what grammatical category itself is.
Grammatical category is the unity of all existing contrasting forms, which exclude one another. It is always based on opposition of at least two forms of morphological character, which goes within the paradigmatic line. (It is a change of word form and not word coinage).

cat - cats
man - men
child- children
ox - oxen
criterion - criteria
formula- formulae/or even "formulas"/

It is generally accepted that English nouns have two main grammatical categories:

1. category of mumber
2. category of case

The problem of the so called "category of gender" is still disputable, because the "-ess" is not productive in Modern English today.

actor - actress
poet – poetess
a he wolf – a she wolf
a woman teacher - a man teacher
a female teacher - a male teacher

There are three main ways (morphological, lexical and syntactical) of forming gender in language, and English makes use of the two of them: 1) lexical(boy, girl, man , woman) ; 2) syntactical(woman teacher, man driver, woman driver), so at present English doesn't use the morphological way(today English does not form the ferminine out of masculine which was typical of the Old English period, some conservative elements of which are still kept in Modern English: (compare: tiger - tiger+ess, actor -

actr+ess, poet - poet+ess, lion - lion+ess, etc. by the help of a morpheme “-ess” which was typical of the Old English period: tiger - tiger+ess, actor - actr+ess, poet - poet+ess, lion - lion+ess, etc.).

NUMBER

Let's analyze the category of number of nouns.

The category of number of nouns is represented by the two opposite forms or opposemes:

1) singular - boy
2) plural - boys

This doesn't mean that all the nouns obligatorily have both the singular and plural forms, because in English we have the two main types of nouns:

1) nouns of the singularia tantum (singular only);
2) noun of the pluralia tantum (plural only).

To the first group of nouns we refer the nouns having only the singular form, for example:

milk
butter
bread
sugar
wine
iron
meat
water
fish, etc.

If we want to express some quantity of the nouns of the type "sugar, bread, meat" we have to use the word "piece", for example: a piece of bread, two pieces of sugar", etc.

Among the nouns in the above list we must consider “win” and “fish” separately. Because when used in sentence these nouns always agree with the predicate in singular. But there are some cases when they have the plural form as “wines”, “fishes”. Here we deal with different kinds of the phenomena in question.

Sometimes the word “water” may also be used in plural, but this use is more stylistic than anything else, for example:

ex:

The waters of the Atlantic Ocean
The waters of the Andijon region are very pleasant to drink.

The word "beauty" may also be used in plural:

The beauties of the native land are amazing
His daughters are all beauties (stylistical usage).

The group of nouns belonging to the “pluralia tantum” have no singular forms, which makes them opposite to the nouns of the “singularia tantum” for example:

mathematics ¦
physics ¦
phonetics ¦
linguistics ¦---- is a science
arithmetics ¦
politics ¦

rickets ! - рахит
trousers ! - шим
scissors !.....are bad. - кайчи
environs ! - чор-атроф, мухит
dregs ! -отстой, лукмалар, колдиклар, чукинмалар
outskirts ! - четлари,окраины

These nouns have no singular form at all. But they agree with the predicate differently.

Such nouns as physics, politics, phonetics, linguistics etc agree with the predicate in singular.
Physics is a science.
Linguistics is advancing.

But when we mean one's knowledge of linguistics or mathematics we can say: "His linguistics are good" or "his mathematics are bad"? here the predicate is in plural.

The nouns of the types" measles, mumps, rickets and trousers, scissors, environs", etc always agree with the predicate in plural: The measles are dangerous ("the" is always used before diseases in the pluralia tantum).

My trousers are very long.
This scissors are very tough.

If we want to make out the number of trousers or scissors etc, we have to use the word "pair": I have two pairs of trousers or scissors and never two scissors or "trousers".

In English some scholars (B.A.Ilyish) and others distinguish "collective nouns" and nouns of "multitude". There are certain groups of nouns, denoting group of human beings (family, government, people, party, comittee, board, jury, clergy,etc) and also of animals (cattle, poultry, swine, sheep) can be used in two ways:

1) if they are used to denote the group as a single whole as some unit then they are in singular and called "Collective nouns". The government of Great Britain condemns the policy of hostile actions of the USA in Africa.

2) If they are used to denote groups consisting of different human beings or animals (here the number of the representatives is stressed) they agree with the predicate in plural and then called nouns of "multitude", proceeded by the definite article:

The board are here
The committee are discussing the matter
Two people come home late
Two peoples are fighting for peace.

In Modern English we can give the definite nomenclature of the allomorphs of the morpheme of the plurality:

They are: - s
boy-boys
- en
ox-oxen
child-children
morpheme change of the vowel
e
man-men
woman-women
a
datum-data
memorandum - memoranda
- ei
nucleus - nuclei
- ae
formula - formulae,(*formulas* is also possible)

Only here a new way of forming plurality is expressed (*formulas*).

The category of number in nouns is a universal category pecular to any noun in any language. In Modern English we have the following types of nouns:

1)nouns having both numbers

copper - coppers - медки, жисмлар
tin - tins - консервные банки,консерва банкалари
hair - hairs - волос(ки), соч толалари
youth - youths - юноши, йигитлар

custom - customs - обычаи, урф-одатлар
colour - colours - цвета, ранглар
people - people - народы, халклар
work - works - произведения, асарлар
green - зеленый цвет,
advice - совет
damage - вред, убыток
2) nouns having only Singularia Tantum
copper - медь, мис
tin - оловотжесть, калай
hair - волосы (материал волос), соч
youth - молодежь, ешлар
3) nouns having only Pluralia Tantum
customs - пошлина, бож
colours - знамя, байрок
acoustics - (акустика),
glasses - очки
greens - зелень, овощь
CASE

The grammatical category of case is a very disputable question and grammarians express different views on this category.
The mostly accepted view is that noun has 2 cases: 1) common and 2) possessive.
A few other grammarians think that there are more than two cases in the English nouns, that is: three, four, five or even an indefinite quantity.
Some scholars think that there are no cases at all. They are against treating "father's" as a case form of nouns in English, because, as they assume, it is no longer a case inflexion, as it may be added not only to nouns, but to the other parts of speech as well: to adverbs, prepositions, etc: yesterday's, with's.
For example, B.A.Ilyish says there's no case at all because "s" can be added even to adverbs like;"yesterday's events" or quickly's as is the case in :"The man who speaks quickly's speech is not good".

Definition of a case. Case is the category of nouns expressing relations between the thing denoted by the noun and other things, or properties, or actions, and manifested by some formal sign("-s") in the noun itself. If there are no morphological means indicating the case then, they are not to be accepted as such.
Max Deutschbein thinks that there are 4 cases in nouns: nominative, genetive, dative, accusative (by word order) "with the pen" should be as to this conception "an instrumental case" of nouns which Ilyish fully denies, because in the pen - should be, locative then. Ilyish says with a little doubt that there should be only two cases:common and genetive. It's is really doubtful, if me consider the following: Oxford professor of poetry's lecture, King of England's residence.The man I saw yesterday's(s) son came somebody else's horse (adverb). This girl in my class 's father is a worker. The blond I've been dancing with's name was Berna. I never knew the woman who spoke too loudly's name was Macferson, in which the possessive case inflexion is no longer added to the nouns only as is seen from the above cases.
G.N Vorontsova considers "-s" as a postposition functioning as a syntactical element of dependancy and it is then a morpheme, which speaks for its not being a case inflexion, so there's no case as to her. ButWe think that there's a case system in English with ending"-s" in most of the nouns.
Henry sweet (1998, 50-52) thinks that there are the following cases of the English nouns.
1. Nominative in: "The earth is round".
2. Vocative in: "Sir!" (a sentence case).
3. Accusative in: 'The man saw the boy".
4. Dative: in "She gave my sister a book".

5. Genitive in: "man's , men's".
6. Common: in "Man, men".

A famous grammarian O.Curme distinguishes the following interesting cases in nouns:

1)Nominative(girl);
2)accusative(saw a girl);
3)dative which has two forms:a) simple dative as in: gave the girl a book
b)prepositional dative as in: gave it to a girl);
4) genitive which has three forms accordingly: a)S-genitive (as in: girl's hat),b)Of-genitive(as in :the son of the man), c) double genitive (as in: a friend of my father's), that is with "of" and "-s" in one phrase.

Still more interesting point of view on the case of nouns was suggested by H. Whitehall, who distinguishes the following :1) nominative;2) objective;3) possessive which, he thinks, has two forms: a) possessive(father's); b) genuine possessive(a book of Nan's)(See his: Structural Essentials of English, p.13).

A most interesting view on the case in nouns was expressed by Ch. G. Fillmore (in his: The Case for Case, p.2,3,21-25) ,who offers the following case types in nouns:

1. Agentive (as in: John opened the door);
2. Instrumental(as in:The key opened the door, John opened the door with the key, or John used the key to open the door);
3. Dative(as in:John believed that he would win, We persuaded John that he would win or It was apparent to John that he would win);
4. Factitive(as in :John built the house)
5. Locative(as in: Chicago is windy, or It is windy in Chicago)
6. Objective(as in : The key opened the door, John opened the door with the key, or John used the key to open the door)
7. Benifactive(B)
8. Time(T)(In cases of B and T Ch. G. Fillmore gives no illustrations).As we see from the above mentioned examples, Ch. G. Fillmore's cases are based rather on the semantic criteria than the surface-structural ones, so se can't accept his approach as the happiest one of its kind.

If we sum up the above described, we must assume that there can really be distinguished only two existing cases in the English nouns:

1. common (John)
2. genitive (possessive) (John's)

And we think that there is no ground for other cases to be accepted here, because we are not to go out of the boundaries of a noun class, and ascribe such features as dative, accusative, factitive, agentive, instrumentalis, etc, to the noun which it doesn't have, there being too many other prepositions used with nouns prepositively or even postpositively that need to be called as separate cases.

Questions on the theme:

What is a noun?

1) What main criteria are used in discriminating the English nouns?
2) What is the lexico-grammatical meanioing of a noun in English?
3) What about the form of the nouns?
4) What syntactic functions of the noun in Modern English do you know?
5) What structural types of the English nouns do you know?
6) What semantic types of the English nouns do you know?
7) What grammatical categories has the noun?
8) What are the nouns of the singularia tantum?
9) What are the nouns of the pluralia tantum?
10) How do the both types of the nouns as subjects agree with the predicate in the sentence?
11) What nouns are called collective?
12) What nouns are called multitudinal?
13) How does the subject expressed by the collective noun agree with the predicate?
14) How does the subject expressed by the nouns of multiotude agree with the predicate?

LECTURE 5 (2 hours).
THEME : THE THEORY OF ARTICLES IN MODERN ENGLISH.
Plan:

1.Article as a separate part of speech and different approaches to it

2.Types of article in ME:

a) indefinite article and its forms and meanings

b) definite article and meanings

c) zero article and its disputable nature and meanings

3.Special uses of articles(exceptions from the rules)

Key words: notion(concept) of definiteness and indefiniteness, article, definite article, indefinite article, zero article, generic article , particularizing article, problem of "article + noun" and its treatment as a noun determiner, meaning of articles, use of articles in set expressions, free phrases, special uses of articles, deliberate omission of definite and indefinite articles in titles, advertisements, etc.

The article presents the student with one of the most difficult and intricate problems of language structure. Although a great number of philologists have treated the article both I in English and in other languages, it will be only fair to say that even the most essential points concerning" the theory of the articles still remain doubtful.

In embarking now on a study of the Modern English article, we should first of all eliminate those problems which are of no real scientific interest, though they have been occasionally discussed. Thus, we will not dwell on the problem whether the article is a separate part of speech, since neither an affirmative nor a negative answer would in any way affect the really relevant questions concerning the article. We have not included the article in our list of parts of speech; but this should not be taken to mean that it cannot be included in that list. The problem is irrelevant.

Another problem, which, though not irrelevant, appears to have been frequently misstated, is this: is the article a word or a morpheme? It has been solved in different ways by different authors. There would always be some argument in favour of the article being' a separate word, and some argument to show that it was a morpheme.[1] This kind of approach, however, does not seem to be the right one. It would mean that we start examining the article, a very peculiar phenomenon, with ready-made notions of what a word and what a morpheme is. Instead we should first study the article as it actually exists and functions in the language, and only then see whether it will fit into any ready-made category. It may well happen that it will not; then we shall have to face the situation and take it for what it is worth.

With respect to the article we must state, in the first place, that there are languages which have no article. Besides Russian and most other Slavonic languages, the Latin language belongs here. Ancient Greek had only one article — the definite one. Many languages (Italian, Spanish, German, Swedish, etc.) have two articles — the definite and the indefinite. As far as its form is concerned the article is usually a separate unit which may be divided from its noun by other words, chiefly adjectives. However, in certain languages the article may also be a morpheme attached to the noun as a kind of suffix.

This is the case, for instance, in Bulgarian, where we find such formations as *селото* 'the village', *линията* 'the line', etc. The same may be said of Rumanian, e. g. *universul* 'the universe', *curentul* 'the courier', etc., where *-I* is the definite article corresponding etymologically to French *le*, Latin *ille*. A suffix article is also found in Swedish; compare, e. g., *dag* 'day', *dagen* 'the day'; *rum* 'room', *rummet* 'the room'. Alongside of this suffix article Swedish also has an article separate from the noun, as in *den* 'the'. The fact that a suffix article exists in several languages must of course be taken into consideration in a general theory of the article.

[1] This applies to Modern English. In speaking of the German language, it would be impossible to assert that the article was a morpheme, since it is declined and, therefore, every form of it consists of two morphemes, e. g. genitive singular neuter *d-es*, as distinguished from the nominative and accusative *d-as*.

NUMBER AND MEANING OF ARTICLES

It has been a long debated question how many articles there are in English. Obviously there are only two material articles, the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a (an).* The distinction thus is between, for instance, *the language* and *a language.* However, the noun *language,* and indeed many other nouns, are also used without any article, as in the sentence *Language is a means of communication.* It is obvious that the absence of the article in this sentence is in itself a means of showing that "language in general", and not any specific language (such as English, or French, etc.), is meant.

Hence we may say that there are three variants: (1) *the language,* (2) *a language,* (3) *language.* Now the question arises, •how this third variant is to be treated. The older grammatical tradition described it as "omission of the article", which is obviously inadequate, since there is not the slightest reason to believe that the article in such cases was ever "omitted". Another view is that we should describe this as "absence of the article", and sometimes this notion is made more precise and the phenomenon is called "meaningful absence .of article".[2] A third view, which has been gaining ground lately, is that the very absence of the article is a special kind of article, which is then termed "zero article".

According to this view, then, there would be three articles in English: definite, indefinite, and zero.This idea of a zero article takes its origin in the notion of "zero morpheme", which has been applied to certain forms in inflected languages, — namely to forms having no ending and differing by this very absence from other forms of the same word, which have each their individual ending. A case in point in Russian is the genitive plural of some nouns (chiefly of the feminine gender), e. g. рук, which is characterized as a special form by the absence of any ending, as distinct from nominative singular рука, genitive singular руки, dative plural рукам, etc. The notion of "zero morpheme" may also be applied in English, for instance, to the singular form of nouns *(room)* as distinct from the plural form with its -^- inflection. If, therefore, we were to interpret the article as a morpheme, the idea of a zero article would make no difficulty. If, on the other hand, we take the article to be a word, the idea of a "zero word" would entail some difficulty. It has been pointed out that the notion of a "zero copula" has been applied to such Russian sentences as он здоров, where there is no verb. In this sentence the present tense is implied as distinct from он был здоров and он будет здоров, where the past or future tense is expressed by a form of the verb быть. However, in this case it is not a "zero copula", but a "zero form" of the copula быть. We might thus formulate the following tense system of this copula: present tense — "zero", past tense был, future tense будет. So even in this particular case the notion of a "zero word" seems very doubtful. Still more doubtful is the notion "zero" with reference to the English article, if the article is a word. We will therefore proceed on the assumption that the notion "zero article" is only possible if the article is not a word.

The two main views of the article are, then, these: (1) The article is a word (possibly a separate part of speech) and the collocation "article + noun" is a phrase (if of a peculiar kind). (2) The article is a form element in the system of the noun; it is thus a kind of morpheme, or if a word, an auxiliary word of the same kind as the auxiliary verbs. In that case the phrase "article + noun" is a morphological formation similar to the formation "auxiliary verb + infinitive or participle", which is an analytical form of the verb.[3]

Now, the very fact that two such widely divergent views of the article are possible shows that there are some quite peculiar difficulties here. Besides those already mentioned, there is the problem of the meaning of each article: we must find out whether it has one or several meanings, each of them appearing in a different context.

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[1] See, for example, Т. Н. Сергеева, *О значащем отсутствии артикля перед именами существительными в современном английском языке.* Иностранные языки в школе, 1953, № 1

[3] This view of the article has of late been emphatically stated once more. See Т. В. Строева и Л. Р. Зиндер, *Грамматическая категория соотнесенности имени существительного в немецком языке.* Проблемы языкознания, Ученые записки ЛГУ им. А. А. Жданова, Серия филол. наук, вып. 60, 1961, стр. 218—232.

We can illustrate this problem by comparing, for example, the two sentences: (1) *The dog has come home* and (2) *The dog is a domestic animal*. Of course it is at once obvious that *the dog* in the former sentence means one individual dog, whereas *the dog* in the latter sentence means the dog in general, as a zoological species. The question, then, is whether the article itself has two distinct meanings (if so, the second of these is termed "the generic article") or whether the meaning of the article is the same in both sentences, and the difference in meaning between them depends on some other factor.

If we endorse the first view, we shall say that the definite article has at least two distinct meanings, viz. (1) it means that an object is singled out from all objects of the same class, (2) it means that the whole class of objects, as distinct from other classes, is referred to.

If we endorse the second view, we shall say that the definite article has one meaning only, viz. that of something singled out from other entities. Now, whether the essence thus singled out is a separate object or a whole class depends not on the article at all but on the other elements in the sentence, usually on the predicate.

Reverting to the two sentences, (1) *The dog has come home* and (2) *The dog is a domestic animal,* we shall see that each of the predicates has several peculiarities which influence the meaning of the sentence one way or another. Let us analyze each of these. First, the grammatical peculiarities. In (1) the predicate is a verb in the present perfect tense, in (2) it is a group "link verb + predicative", and the link verb is in the present tense. That of course would not in itself be sufficient to show the different meanings of the sentences, but it does give a certain indication this way: the verb in the present perfect tense is more likely than not to express a concrete action (i. e. one that has taken place once), while the group "link verb in the present tense + predicative" is very likely to express some general characteristic.

Now, these grammatical points are supplemented by some lexical points, which make the difference quite clear. In (1) the verb *come* and the adverb *home* denote a concrete physical action and the place to which it is directed, while in (2) the predicative *a domestic animal*[4] denotes a zoological idea and thus proves that by *the dog* is meant not an individual dog but the whole species. According to this view, then, the meaning of the definite article itself is the same in both sentences, and the difference proceeds from the peculiarities of the predicates and the words expressing them.

Which of the two views is the more convincing one? Both views seem to be defensible, and the decision will have to be made on the ground of some guiding principle.

Such a principle may be that of the invariable, i. e. of a stable element in the meaning of a word preserved throughout all the changes and combinations in which the word may be found. This principle of the invariable has been recently very forcefully defended by A. Jsachenko in his paper on grammatical meaning.[5] The principle may be briefly formulated in this way: "State an invariable wherever possible," or negatively in this way: "Do not state differences wherever this is not strictly necessary." In short, the principle amounts to this. Whenever a word, or a word form, appears to have different meanings in different contexts, look for that element of its meaning which is always there and does not depend on any context: that is the invariable. If we adhere to this view (as it appears we should) we will say that there is no difference in the meaning of the definite article between the sentences *The dog has come home* and *The dog is a domestic animal;* the difference proceeds from other sources, as we have explained above. It is obvious, however, that not everybody will accept the principle of the invariable, and for those who will not do so, the question of the meaning of the definite article will appear in a different light.

The same may be said about the indefinite article. If we compare the two sentences, (1) *There is a hill behind our house,* and (2) *A hill is the opposite of a valley,*[6] the question will arise, whether the indefinite article with the noun *hill* has different meanings in the two sentences. If we think it has, we shall say that in (1) it serves to denote an individual object, without reference to its individual peculiarities, and in (2) any object of a given class. If, on the other hand, we endorse the principle of the invariable, the article will be said to have the same meaning of indefiniteness in both sentences, and the difference in meaning will have to be sought elsewhere. We shall first of all note the different types of predicate in the two sentences. In (1) we have the predicate *there is,*[3] in (2) the group "link verb -f predicative", and the

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predicative is a noun. There is, besides, an adverbial modifier in (1) and an object in (2). From the lexical point of view, it is important to note that in (1) we find three words with a meaning pointing to a concrete situation, viz. *behind,* denoting a relation in space, *house,* and especially *our.* In (2), on the other hand, there is the group *the opposite of a valley,* which expresses some general notion, not restricted to any concrete position in space or time. The indefinite article before *valley* is of course quite parallel to that before *hill,* and they are bound to be used in quite the same way. All these peculiarities in (2) point to the sentence having a general meaning, i. e. expressing a definition. Such, then, are the factors on which the general meaning of each sentence and the use of the indefinite article depends. Taking this line, then, we should say that the invariable in the indefinite article is its meaning of taking an object without its individual peculiarities. Whether the noun used with this article is used to denote "a certain hill" or "any hill", is outside the meaning of the article itself, and depends on a series of different factors, which we have tried to point, out. It must be emphasized, of course, that if the principle of the invariable is not accepted the result of the analysis will be different.

In coming now to the difference in meaning between the definite and the indefinite article, we should start by comparing two sentences which are exactly alike in everything except that one has the definite article where the other has the indefinite. We ought to find several pairs of this kind, and then try to get at the essence of the difference between them. So let us take these two, in the first place: *Give me a newspaper, please!* and *Give me the newspaper, please!* Here the difference is obvious: the one sentence means, 'Give me some newspaper, no matter which', and the other means, 'Give me that particular newspaper that you are reading at the moment, or the one that is lying on the table, or the one that you had in your hand as you came in', etc., depending on the situation. Of course many similar pairs of sentences might be found. Here, then, the difference is that between "individual object with its own characteristics", and "some object belonging to that particular class of objects". This may indeed be called the difference between definite and indefinite in the usual sense of the words.

However, this distinction will not apply to all cases and we must proceed to look at the sentences where the line of distinction is of another kind. Let us now take these two sentences, *The door opened, and the young man came in,* and *The door opened, and a young man came in.* We need not deny that at the bottom of this distinction there is one between "definite" and "indefinite"; however, another element has come in here, which may be briefly described like this. We can only say *The door opened, and the young man came in,* if we knew in advance that the person standing, say, in the corridor was a young man; if there was a knock at the door, and we did not know who had knocked, and we said, "Come in," we can only say, *The door opened, and a young man came in,* which might be made more explicit in the following way, *...and the person who came in proved to be a young man* (implying, not an old man, not a young girl, etc.). Thus the fact that it was a young man would be new, it would be the central point of the sentence. Coming back now to the sentence with the definite article, we can say that its meaning is approximately this, 'The door opened, and the young man (did not stay out but) came in'[7]. Here, then, the central point would be that he came in. Now, this element of the sentence which is the central point may be said to correspond to the semantic predicate, or the rheme. Then the indefinite article, as opposed to the definite article in sentences of this kind, would be a means of expressing the semantic predicate of the sentence. How should we then define its meaning? To use the simplest words possible, we might say that the indefinite article expresses what is new, and the definite article expresses what is known already, or at least what is not presented as new. This opposition would then be superimposed on that between definite and indefinite.

To make the point quite clear, let us consider two more sentences. Let us assume that we are speaking about what happened in a classroom during a lesson: *The door opened and a teacher came in. — The door opened and the headmaster came in.* In both cases we did not know in advance who was coming, we only learnt it when the door opened. We would then say, *...a teacher came in,* but not *...a headmaster came in.* How are we to account for the difference? Obviously the reason is this. There are many teachers in a school, but only one headmaster. Therefore the sentence *The door opened, and a headmaster came in*

[1] In Russian, this difference would be expressed by word order. Compare Дверь открылась, и молодой человек вошел and Дверь открылась, и вошелмолодой человек. -

would have no reasonable sense. Apparently, the idea of definiteness (there being only one headmaster in every school) takes the upper hand and the idea of newness is not expressed at all. Thus, the sentence *The headmaster came in,* which in this case corresponds to the Russian вошел директор, might, in another context, correspond to the Russian директор вошел: in that case *came in,* and not *the headmaster,* would be the semantic predicate.

Let us now see in what relation the absence of the article stands to the meanings' of the definite and the indefinite article.

When we consider the absence of the article, we have to distinguish between the singular and the plural number. Broadly speaking, the absence of the article with a noun in the plural corresponds to the indefinite article with that noun in the singular, whereas the absence of the article with a noun in the singular stands apart and does not correspond to anything in the plural.

We will first consider the absence of the article with a noun in the singular and start with nouns which can equally be used with the definite and the indefinite article and without any article. One of these is the noun *language.* We take three sentences: *Language is a means of communication. English is the foreign language I know best. Everyone must study a foreign language.* The difference here is obvious enough. *Language* without article does not refer to any one language (Russian, English, German, etc.) but to the general idea of that means of communication. Compare also the following three sentences: *He has eaten the egg. He has eaten an egg. He has egg on his sleeve.* In the latter sentence, what is meant is not a "unit", an oval-shaped hen's egg, but some "material", which happens to have stuck to his sleeve. Similar observations might be made on a number of other nouns.

From this we may also draw some conclusions about nouns which cannot be used with the indefinite article. Compare: *Water boils at 100° centigrade* and *The water is boiling; Snow is white* and *The snow has melted.* In each of these pairs, the first sentence expresses a general truth, without reference to any particular occasion, while the second expresses a concrete occurrence at a certain moment (this is seen from the form of the verb used in each case). The noun *water* without any article is the name of the substance in general, whereas with the article it denotes a certain quantity of that substance found at a certain concrete place. The same of course applies to the noun *snow.* The indefinite article is not possible with these nouns.

The absence of the article with a noun in the plural, as we have said, corresponds to a certain extent to the indefinite article with the noun in the singular. However, this is far from being always the case. This may be shown by some very simple examples. If we take, for instance, the sentence / *have read a novel by Thackeray* and if we want to change it in such a way as to show that more than one novel is meant we will of course say / *have read some novels by Thackeray,* i. e. we shall have to use the word *some,* and not merely drop the article. Though the word *some* is not an article, it does come close in meaning to the indefinite article in one of its uses.

The absence of the article with a noun in the plural is the only possibility in sentences expressing general statements, such as, *Dogs are domestic animals,* or *Goose quills were in common use formerly.* The article is also absent in such sentences as, *Pencils, pens, and sheets of paper were strewn all over the table,* where indefinitely large quantities are meant.

Such would seem to be the main factors determining the use of the definite or indefinite article and the absence of the article. They do not cover all possible cases, and a considerable number of examples will be found to lie outside the sphere of the grammatical system and to be due to occasional causes which sometimes remain obscure. To give only a few examples, if a noun is modified by the adjective *wrong* meaning 'not the one needed', the definite article is always used with it, as in / *took the wrong bus,* or *He walked in the wrong direction.* The underlying idea seems to be that there were two alternatives, the one right, and the other wrong, and the wrong one happened to be chosen. This, however, is not quite convincing, since, for example, in the case of buses, there often would be more than one bus line which might prove "wrong". Such peculiar cases do not easily fit into any system.

Another peculiar case is that of the absence of the article with nouns used in pairs. A typical example is the sentence *In the quiet, quaintly-named streets, in town-mead and market place, in the lord's mill beside the stream, in the bell that swung out its summons to the , crowded borough-mote, in merchant-gild and church-gild and craft-gild, lay the life of Englishmen who were doing more than*

knight and baron to make England what she is ... (J. R. GREEN) No article is found here either with the noun *knight* or with the noun *baron.* If only one of these nouns had been used, the article could not possibly be absent. This also applies to the other nouns in this sentence, and this usage may be found elsewhere. It appears to be strictly- literary.

There are many other special cases defying grammatical analysis, such as the use of the definite article with certain geographical names, etc.

Having considered the main meanings of the articles and the main factors determining their use, we will now look into the question of the essence of the article and its place in the English language.

The question arises whether the group "article + noun" can be a form of the noun in the same way as, for example, the group *will speak* is a form of the verb *speak.* If we were to take that view, some nouns would have three forms, two of them analytical, e. g. *room, the room, a room;* while other nouns would have two forms, one of them analytical, e. g. *water, the water,* etc. It must be said that the problem, is hard to solve, as unmistakable objective criteria are missing. There seems to be nothing to prevent us from thinking that *a room* is an analytical form of the noun *room,* and there seems to be nothing to compel us to think so. If we endorse the view that the group "article + noun" is an analytical form of the noun we shall have to set up a grammatical category in the noun which is expressed by one or the other article or by its absence. That category might be called determination.

In that case we could also find a "zero article". If, on the other hand, we stick to the view that the group "article + noun" is not an analytical form of the noun and the group is a peculiar type of phrase, no "zero article" is possible, and the meanings of each of the two articles (definite and indefinite) are to be taken as individual meanings of words. The choice between the two alternatives remains a matter of opinion, rather than admitting of a binding conclusion. On the whole the second view (denying the analytical forms of nouns) seems preferable, but we cannot, for the time being at least, prove that it is the only correct view of the English article.

Questions on the theme:

1) What is an article?
2) Is it right to call the article noun determiner only?
3) What artiucles do we distinguish in Modern English?
4) What meanings can the indefinite article express when used with nouns?
5) What meanings can the indefinite article express when used with other parts of speech than noun(for example with numerals(*a two, a three a four, a five*)or with pronouns like in
6) *"a good one",* adjectives(a strong man, the strong wind), the participle II(the unemployed, the sacked, the present,the absent) , even with adverbs of
7) *"The more closely* he came to the house, *the better* was the scene "type?
8) What meanings can the definite article express when used with nouns?
9) What meanings can the zero article express when used with nouns?
10) Can the indefinite article be used before the proper nouns(names)
11) Can the definite article be used before the proper nouns(names)
12) Can the indefinite article be used before the non-count nouns? If yes/no , why?
13) In what cases can the indefinite article not be used?
14) In what cases can the definite article not be used?
15) In what cases can the zero article not be used?
16) How are the the articles translated into Uzbek or Russian?

LECTURE 6(2 hours) :
THEME: THE PRONOUN: ITS STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC TYPES AND GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Plan:

1)Pronoun as a primary part of speech
2) Pronoun, meaning, form, function
3) Grammatical meaning of "reference", indication of pronouns.
4) Grammatical form of pronouns.

Grammatical function of pronouns.
Classification of pronouns : Structural Types of pronouns.
7)Semantical Types of pronouns
8)Grammatical categories of pronouns

Key words: Pronoun , "reference", indication,proadjectives, proadverbs, pronumerals
classification of pronouns:structural ("wh" – pronouns,: self – pronouns, "th" – pronouns, "every" – pronouns, "no" – pronouns,) ”neither”–pronouns, either-pronouns,
"other"-pronouns,) “another"-pronouns, "each"–pronouns, "one"- pronouns,) "some"-pronouns, "any"-pronouns, "such"-pronoun, "same"-pronoun,) ”both”- pronoun,)”you” pronouns,)”he” pronoun,)”she” pronoun, “it” pronoun, we” pronoun,), semantical (contrasting, reciprocal, indefinite, negative, generalizing, quantitative, personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, interrogative, connective, “condenced pronouns”? grammatical categories of pronouns, person, number, case, gender, special uses of pronouns.

Pronoun is a primary part of speech denoting substances, qualities, quantities**, circumstances, etc.** not by naming or describing, but indicating them, pointing to them.
If has the grammatical meaning of "reference", indication.

"Pronoun" means "a word" used instead of a noun around the noun. In fact pronouns may replace not only nouns, but also numerals, adverbs, adjectives etc. Jack (he), thirty (many) books, , his (good)book, our (hard) work, so they can function instead of them, and we may say that there are not only pronouns, but also proadjectives, proadverbs, pronumerals, which can be used instead of the aforementioned parts of speech (adjective, adverb, numeral, etc).

1. pronouns- he Jack
we Jack and I
2. proadjectives-

other book	good book
this bike	Nick's bike

3. proadverbs:

there, here	at the institute
now, then	at present, at that moment

4. pronumerals:
several books fifty books

As to their structure pronouns may be traditionally classified into:
1)” wh-pronouns” (who, what, whose, which, when)
2) “self-pronouns”: himself, myself, etc.
3) other types of pronouns.
As to semantics B.A.Khamovich and B.I. Rogovskaya classify pronouns: into 12 types:
1. personal
2. possessive
3. reflexive
4. demonstrative
5. interrogative
6. connective- (who, what, which, whose, that, where,when, why, how)
7. reciprocal- (each other, one another)
8. indefinite- (some, any, somebody ('s), anybody('s), someone('s), something, anything, somewhere, somehow, anyhow)
9. negative- (no, nobody, nobody's, none, nothing, neither, nowhere)
10. generalising- (all, both, each, either, every, everything, everybody, everywhere)
11. quantitative- (much, many, few, little, several)
12. contrasting- other (others, other's, others'), another (another's), otherwise, etc.

B.S. Khaymovich and B.I.Rogovskaya think that the pronouns of the type "one, one's, oneself" may belong to more than one group at the same time., so they treat them as follows:

whose- 1) interrogative (connective)
2) possessive
one - generalising, personal, indefinite
one's - possessive
oneself- reflexive

As to I. P .Ivanova, there are the following 7 types of pronouns:

1) personal
2) possessive
3) demonstrative
4) interrogative
5) reciprocal
6) relative
7) indefinite (includes negative, defining, generalising)

As to L. L. Iofick there are 13 pronouns in Modern English:

1) personal - I ,you, he, she, it, we, you they- (as nominative case forms)and " me ,you, him, her, it, us, you, them (as objective case forms);
2) possessive - my, his, her, us, your, their, , mine, his, yours(singular) hers, ours, yours (plural) theirs
3) reflexive - myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves
4) intensifying - myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves
5) interrogative- what, which, who, whose, whom

Here the term " condensed pronouns" as in: "What he knows is no longer a secret(Christie)" quoted by B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya is very noteworthy (Compare: B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar, M., "Высшая школа", 1987, p. 119).

But our treatment of the so called " condensed pronouns" here is different, for in fact "who" is not at all alone in the language, we have "which", "who", "one", "one another" as well as "you", 'we", "all", " everybody" etc., which are not less condensed in their meanings than "what". Moreover, all pronouns may seem to be "condensed", because they only refer or point to something without naming , their exact meaning being pragmatically dependent on the speaker who uses them, because the listener or reader can only guess what is meant by this or that pronoun and at times he or she may be mistaken in guessing the communicative intention of the speaker.

6) relative - who, which, that, whose
7) demonstrative- this, that, such, (the) same
8) reciprocal - each other, one another
9) indefinite - some, any, somebody, anybody, something, anything, someone, anyone
10) generalizing - all, each, every, both, either,
11) negative - no, none, nobody, nothing, neither
12) "indefinite-personal", "generalising-personal" (one)
13) distinguishing - other, another

We think that the classification of pronouns in any language should be two fold:

1)structural
2)semantic

Our structural classification of the pronouns is as follows(G.M.Hoshimov's structural classification of the pronouns):

1) "wh" - pronouns
what – whatever
who –whoever, whom – whomever, whose
which - whichever

2) self - pronouns
myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves. themselves.

3) "th" - pronouns
this, these
that, those
4) "every" pronouns
every, everybody, everyone, everything
5) "no" - pronouns
no, nobody, no one, none, non, nothing(Here we think that non is also a negative pronoun as in : Non is to be found now).
6)"neither"pronouns:
neither (neither's),
7)either pronouns:
either, either's
8) "other"pronouns
other, others (other's, others')
9)"another"pronouns
another (another's)
10) "each"pronouns:
each, each other (each other's)
11) "one" pronouns
one, one another (one another's)
12) "some"pronouns
some, someone, somebody, something
13) "any"pronouns
any, anyone, anybody, anything
14) "such"pronoun:
such (a day)
15) "same"pronoun:
same (name), the same
16)"both" pronoun:
both(of them)
17)"you" pronouns:you(singular), you(plural),yee, your(singular), your(plural), yours(singular), yours(plural)
18)"he" pronoun: he, him, his
19)"she" pronoun: she(her, hers)
20) "it" pronoun: it, its
21)"we" pronoun: we,(us, our, ours)
22) "all" pronoun: all(all of them), all (of that), all (of whom)

The way the words "several, much, many, little, enough and few" are treated by B.S.Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya as the "quantitative pronouns" is not fair (Compare: B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar, M., "Высшая школа", 1987, p. 113) and acceptable, for we think and believe them to be nothing else but adjectives that can be used subjectively , objectively (as in the cases of their substantivization) ,or attributively as in usual cases of their usagee:

Many preferred the pianist to the violinist.
Much has been done.
Enough is as goal as a gift (proverb).
I don't see much nonsense here.
They have done very much of that little.

As to the treatment of the words "everywhere" and "nowhere" by B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya as a "generalizing pronoun"(as in: "everywhere") and as a "negative pronoun"(as in: "nowhere"), we think they are not well grounded, for the words "everywhere" and " nowhere" are adverbs of place , because they can not be used either subjectively, objectively or attributively, but can be

used only adverbially as in" You can find a job everywhere". He can go nowhere"(Compare: B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar, M., "Высшая школа", 1987, p. 113).

As viewed from this angle, the words like " anywhere, anyhow, somewhere, somehow" analyzed by B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya as "indefinite pronoun " subtypes are not pronouns as such (Compare: B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar, M., "Высшая школа", 1987, p. 110)., but pure adverbs, because of their only function as adverbials.

The same can be said of the morphological status of such words as "here" and "there", "hence and "thence" treated by B. S. Khaymovich and B.I. Rogovskaya as " demonstrative pronouns", so they are , as we assume, not pronouns, but adverbs, functioning only adverbially. We think that words like "where", "when"," why", "how" treated by the above mentioned grammarians as the " connective pronouns" prove to be rather adverbs than pronouns both semantically and functionally(Compare: B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar, M., "Высшая школа", 1987, p. 107).

As far as the words like "where, wherever, when, whenever, why, how, however" treated by certain grammarians as "connective pronouns" (Compare: B. S. Khaymovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar, M., "Высшая школа", 1987, p. 108), are conserned, we are of the opinion that they are not pronouns at all , but connective adverbs of place, functioning only adverbially.

If we go into deeper analysis of the pronouns semantically and functionally, then it is fair to keep to the following classification of the pronouns(See: The semantico-functional classification of the pronouns by Hoshimov G.M in his: "Lectures on the Theory of the English Grammar, Andizhan, 2008, p.p.46-47);

1. personal - I ,you, he, she, it, we, you they- (as nominative case forms)and " me ,you, him, her, it, us, you, them (as objective case forms);
2. possessive - my, his, her, us, your, their, , mine, his, yours(singular) hers, ours, yours (plural) theirs
3. reflexive - myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves
4. demonstrative - this, those, that, those, such, (the) same
5. interrogative - what, which, who, whose, whom:
6. connective- who, what, whose, whom, which
7. relative - who, what, whose, whom, which.(*three cases of grammatical homonymy of* demonstrative, connective , interrogative pronouns).
8. reciprocal - each other, one another
9. indefinite - some, somebody, something, someone , *any, anything, anyone, anybody*.
10. negative- no, none, no one, nobody, nothing, neither
11. contrasting (other, other's, others', others)
12. defining - all, both
13. generalizing –every, everyone, everything, everybody, each, either, *any, anything, anyone, anybody(two cases of grammatical homonymy of* indefinite and generalizing pronouns*).*

The last four pronouns " any, anything, anyone, anybody", we think, are not indefinite pronouns as they are traditionally treated in the existing manuals on grammar, but generalizing ones which are homonymous with the latter, for there's nothing indefinite in what they express, but categorical generalizations with no exceptions here.

Note: 1) self pronouns may have some intensifying meaning, hence they are not intensifying pronouns:
He himself did it
I myself met your friend.

2)personal pronouns" we", "you", "they" and an indefinite pronoun "one" may have some generalizing meaning too, so they are not generalizing pronouns:
One should know how to fight for living:
You should be very calm in a classroom
You should do what you should do.
3) "we" may have a generalizing meaning:
We must fight for peace.
We know that the earth is round.
4) "they" may have a generalizing meaning

They say he is working at school.

It is important to stress the fact that in certain cases the pronouns "one", "we", and "you", may be interchangeably, that is, synonymously, used in their generalizing meanings.

1. We must know such things (One must know such things).
2. You must know such things (One must know such things) .
3. One must know such things (We(you) must know such things).

Interrogative pronouns "what" and "it" are means of exclamation (Compare: "What a good thing you've done! It's great!"). And " which" can also denote a person as in: "Which of them is a worker?.

"It" can also be a personal pronoun(when used subjectively or objectively as in: Here is a book. It is new.), and "It" may be an impersonal or introductory(or anticipatory) pronoun(when used as an introductory(or anticipatory) "it" as in: "It is cold", or "It is late" or "It is John who came here", "It is important that he should be here").

Reflexive pronoun "myself" is not only a reflexive pronoun, but also an intensifying one as is the case in: "My friend and myself would be obliged if you would tell us that (Jerome)".

"This" and" that" have the category of number as in: "this – these" and "that – those".

"That"as a pronoun is homonymous with a conjunction "that", and sometimes

" that"as a conjunction may mean either singular or plural as in: The students that are working there are very strong, or the student that is coming here is Jack.

In studying the pronouns one has to take into consideration very frequent cases grammatical homonymy as in the following: "it "as a personal and impersonal pronoun, "that" as a "demonstrative pronoun" and as a "connective pronoun",. "what", "which", "who", "whose", "whom", "whoever", "whatever", "whichever", "whomever" as interrogative, relative and connective pronouns. In all the above mentioned cases we face the universal phenomenon of grammatical homonymy of language units – lexemes, which are like" twins", hence are identical in form , but not in meaning and function. So here we are dealing not with one word demonstrating one form, but different meanings and functions, on the contrary here we are facing at least two or more words that are identical in form, but different in meaning and hence are called homonyms. Accordingly we can draw a conclusion that we have as many words – homonyms - as the meanings and functions we have in question.

Conclusion as to the types of pronouns.

Grammatical forms of pronouns are variable, changeable, but not all pronouns have a changeable form.

Functions of the pronouns are those of: 1)subject; 2) predicative;3) attribute; 4)object, etc.

The grammatical categories of the pronouns. The pronoun has the following grammatical categories that are observed in its combinability with other parts of speech to perform certain grammatical(syntactical) functions:

1) number
2) case
3) person

From our point of view the problem of "gender" of the pronouns, as some grammarians think there is such a category (R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum , G. Leech, J. Svartvik . A University Grammar of English,M., "Vyssaya skola", 1982, p.97), is solved, for in Modern English pronouns have no "gender" category, because the cases of "he, she, it" are rather lexical phenomena than grammatical, because we see no change in the pronouns themselves, unlike those of Russian "мой, моя, мое", in which there's the category of "gender" of pronouns, represented by masculine(мой), feminine(моя) and neutral(моё) gender forms.

Category of case of pronouns

The category of case of pronouns is not typical of or common to all types of pronouns, for there are certain pronoun types that have no case category at all: interrogative pronouns what, which, my, your, his, her, its, our (possessive pronouns), both, all, (defining pronouns) etc.

We have to consider the pronoun types having the category of case and they are as follows.

	PRONOUN TYPES	CASE TYPE

		nominative	possessive /genitive	common	objective
1.	Personal pronouns	+	-	-	+
2.	Possessive pronouns	-	-	-	-
3.	Reflexive	-	-	-	+
4.	Reciprocal	-	+	+	-
5.	Interrogative	+	-	-	+
6.	Negative	-	+	+	-
7.	Defining (generalizing)(all, each)	-	-	-	-
8.	Indefinite	-	+	+	-
9.	Conjunctive	+	-	-	+
10.	Quantitative	-	-	-	-
11.	Generalizing	-	-	-	-
12.	Demonstrative	-	-	-	-
13.	Relative	+	-	-	+
14.	Distinguishing or contrasting (other, another)	-	+	+	-

Possessive pronouns like "my, your, his, her' may have some specific forms called absolute (mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs) and conjount (my, your, his, her, our, your, their), which is peculiar only to the possessive pronouns.

The grammatical category of person of the pronouns

№	PRONOUN TYPES	Person I	Person II	Person III
1.	Personal	+	+	+
2.	Possessive	+	+	+
3.	Demonstrative	-	-	-
4.	Reflexive	+	+	+
5.	Reciprocal	-	-	-
6.	Interrogative	-	-	-
7.	Negative	-	-	-
8.	Defining	-	-	-
9.	Indefinite	-	-	-
10.	Conjunctive	-	-	-
11.	Quantitative	-	-	-
12.	Demonstrative	-	-	-
13.	Relative	-	-	-
14.	Distinguishing	-	-	-

As, we see not all pronouns have the categories of gender, case and number, because some pronouns are invariable and that's why they have no grammatical categories at all.

Questions on the theme:

1) What part of speech does the pronoun belong to?
2) What grammatical form has the pronoun?
3) What lexico-grammatical meaning has the pronoun?
4) What grammatical(syntactical) functions has the pronoun?
5) What are the structural types of the pronouns?
6) What are the semsantic types of the pronouns?
7) What is the structural classification of the pronouns based on?
8) What is the semantical classification of the pronouns based on?
9) What grammatical categories have the pronouns?
10) What is a condenced pronoun?

11) Is it right to distinguish a condenced pronoun like “what”?
12) Are such pronouns as “which”, “who”, etc. not “condenced ones like the so called “what”?

LECTURE 7 (2 hours)
THEME: THE VERB: ITS STRUCTURAL AND SEMANTIC TYPES AND THE THEORY OF ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES(OF NUMBER, PERSON, MOOD)

P l a n:

1. Verb as a principal (primary, main) part of speech.
2. Structural classification of the verb(simple , derivative, composite/compound, complex, mixed/).
3. Semantic classification of the verb(notional,“semi-notional”, modal, terminative /non-terminative, aspectual verbs, etc(or verbs with aspectual meaning) .
4. Functional classification(link, auxiliary)
4. Transitive/intransitive verbs(direct and indirect, cognate objects).
5. Conclusion.

Key words: verb as one of the notional parts of speech, lexico-grammatical meaning of an action, a process, a quality,a quantity, a state, form, function, morphological types of verbs, standard and non-standard verbs, invariable verbs; mixed type, verbs of being and their suppletive forms, finite and non-finite verbs, functional types of the verbs, notional,functional,auixillary, semi-auxiliaries, modal verbs, syntactical types of the verbs: subjective and objective verbs, structural types of verbs:simple, derivative, composite:compound, complex, mixed, semantical types of the verb: *terminative and non-terminative, aspectual* verbs, unlimitative", "limitative", grammatical category of: person, number, mood.

The course of lecture

The verb is one of the notional parts of speech, which is open to various disputes arguments and problems. The ever complicated nature of it as a part of speech is recognized by all scholars. See: and V.V.Vinogradov calls it the most complex and capacious part of speech. A.I.Smirnitsky considers it intricate part of speech. Such linguists as M.Y.Blokh, L.S.Barchudarov,B.A. Ilyish, Ivanova, Zhigadlo, Khamovich and Rogovskaya are of the same opinion on the verb.

The verb is of complex nature, because of its grammatical categories, on the one hand, and of its various subtypes with all lexico-grammatical features of theirs, on the other. So the verb is a part of speech that has a very developed system of morphological categories.

There are various definitions of the verb as a part of speech in English.

1. Zhigadlo: The verb is a part of speech, which names the action or represents state,the presence of some property or the change of the property as an action.
2. Barckudarov: The verb is a part of speech that has certain forms of voice, aspect, time correlation, tense, person etc.
3. Blokh: The verb is a part of speech having the general categories, meaning of process, presented dynamically, i.e.developing in time.
4. Klaimovich and Rogovskaya: The verb is a part of speech characterized by the lexico-grammatical meaning of action, process. The grammatical meaning of the verb is that of action, process (Maslov, Ivanova) presented dynamically.

We think that the verb has lexico-grammatical meaning of :

1) an action - to play, to work, to translate.
2) a process - to love, to think, to live.
3) a quality - to redden, to blacken, to whitewash
4) a state - to free, to release, to imprizon, to enrich, fatigued, tired, to retire

Morphologically verbs are classified into:

1.standard and non-standard verbs.

(regular)	(irregular)
want- wanted	sit-sat

2.invariable verbs; to put, cut, hit, cast , let, set, etc.

3. mixed type: keep-kept (not “ed”or “d”)
sleep-slept
feel-felt
learn-learnt or learned
4. verbs of being have suppletive forms, to be has the following forms:
am-was are-were is-was
5. finite and non-finite verbs: to work- is working- has worked
Functionally the verbs are classified into:
1.Notional: to read, to help
2.Functional: to do, to have, to be
a) auixillary(of two types: 1)auixillaries; : am reading, have read etc.
2) Semi-auxiliaries:get to, happen to,seem to, be about to, *be going to, be likely to, etc.*
b) link verbs; to become, to be, to grow, to get, etc.

Semi-auxiliaries

Among the auxiliary verbs, we distinguish a large number of multi-word verbs, which are called SEMI-AUXILIARIES. These are two-or three-word combinations, and they include the following:

get to	*seem to*	*be about to*
happen to	*tend to*	*be going to*
have to	*turn out to*	*be likely to*
mean to	*used to*	*be supposed to*

Like other auxiliaries, the semi-auxiliaries occur before main verbs:

The film *is about to* start

I*'m going to* interview the Lord Mayor

I *have to* leave early today

You *are supposed to* sign both forms

I *used to* live in that house

Some of these combinations may, of course, occur in other contexts in which they are not semi-auxiliaries.

For example:

I'm going to London

Here, the combination is not a semi-auxiliary, since it does not occur with a main verb. In this sentence, *going* is a main verb. Notice that it could be replaced by another main verb such as *travel* (*I'm travelling to London*). The word *'m* is the contracted form of *am*, the progressive auxiliary, and *to*, as we'll see later, is a preposition.
3.Modal verbs: can, may, might etc.

B.S.Khamovich and B.I.Rogovskaya think that there are no functional verbs in English, they being semi-notional (to be, to become) have their meanings, for "He is old, he becomes old, he seems old", are not the same. They propose to call the link verbs notional links, for they have their own, though faded, meaning, see: " He becomes (is, seems) old" are not the same.
Syntactically we distinguish subjective and objective verbs: Subjective verbs are associated only with names denoting the subject of the action.

He works. She lives on.

Objective verbs are usually associated with the names in the function of object.

He kissed him tenderly.

Objective verbs connected with the objects directly are called "transitive". The subjective and objective verbs that may/may not/ be connected (with object not directly) but indirectly) are called "intransitive".

Semantically we can distinguish *terminative and non-terminative* verbs.

1)non-terminative: to sleep, to think, to love, to carry,etc.

2)terminative: to hit, to slap, to risk, to break, etc.

We have verbs with *aspectual* meanings; begin, stop, resume, etc

The first group can be called, as to M.Y. Blokh, "unlimitative" and the second "limitative".

Structurally verbs may be divided into the following types:

1. Simple - sit, work, talk, etc.
2. Derivative: intensify, pacify, gasify,

a) stem+affix: activate, motivate, pressurize, darken, blacken,

b) affix+stem: rewrite, subdivide, mistake, untie

3. Composite:

a) compound (with coordinated elements): whitewash, black-market, blackmail transact, underestimate, overdo, overlap, outdoor, outfight,

b) complex with subordinated elements: to sit up

to give away

to give in

to keep on

to insist on

Verb has a changeable form, which speaks for its having certain grammatical categories.

Verb has various syntactical functions in a sentence:

1) predicate - She works

2) subject - To live is to fight

3) object - I remember having seen him before

4) a part of a complex object: I see him jump every day

5) attribute - Here is a book for you to read

6) adverbial modifiers of:

a) time: Having done the work,we came back

b) purpose; I came to speak to you

c) reason: He excused her for coming late

d) condition: He, if questioned, will tell the truth.

e) concession: He, though criticized, was not angry

f) comparison: He stopped there, as if knowing the secret

g) manner: He spoke stammering

h) attending circumstances: The whole day was spent in waiting

Sunstantivization of verbs is a normal process in English:

to work - working (gerund) workings (verbal noun)

to paint - painting (gerund) paintings (verbal noun)

to meet - meeting (gerund) meetings (verbal noun) or noun

to build - building (gerund) buildings (verbal noun) or noun

The grammatical categories of the verb.

The disputable character of the categories of the verb is naturally linked with the total number of the verbal categories.

a. B.S.Khainovich and B.I.Rogovskaya distinguish the following 8 grammatical categories, out of which 3 of them are found both in finites or non-finites: voice, order, aspect. The categories of voice and order can be found in all verbals, but aspect – both in finite and non-finite verbs

b. asks-is asking
to ask-to be asking.

B.S.Khainovich and B.I.Rogovskaya:
1).voice
2).order
3).aspect
4).mood
5).tense
6).posteriority
7).person
8).number

Ivanova:
1..tense
2.voice
3.mood
4.aspect
5.order

M.Y.Blokh:
1.finitude< finite / non-finite
2.person
3.number
4.tense
5.aspect
6.voice
7.mood

L.S.Barkhudarov:
1.finitude
2.tense
3.voice
4.aspect
5.mood

B.A. Ilyish:
1.aspect
2.tense
3.order (perfect - non-perfect)
4.mood
5.voice
6.person
7.number

Other morphological categories:
1) negative-non negative (negopositivity) affirmation: take -don't take
2) interrogative- non-interrogative
does he take
does he not take

The category of order
(time correlation in B.A.Ilyish's term)

The category of order is system of the member opposemes such as "writes-has written, wrote- had written, is writing-has been writing, will write-will have written, was writing-had been writing etc, showing whether the action is viewed as prior to (perfect) or irrespective of (non -perfect) other actions or situations.

1. O.Jesperson thinks that perfect has to be treated in the chapter of tenses, hence it is kind of tense belonging to the category of tense.

2. Vorontsova considers perfect to be an aspect category (resultative aspect or transmissive aspect.

3. Ivanova finds perfect something in between tense and aspect system.

4.Smirnitsky considers it to be a special category of the verb, called "time correlation". Ilyish avoids the word "time" and calls it "correlation", Khaimovich and Rogovskaya call it "order".

The category of aspect.
works-is working
has worked-has been working

to work-to be working

The linguists, who recognize this category are; Deutchbein, Kennedy, Curme who treat it from the semantic point of view by distinguishing the following subtypes of aspect:

1) terminative aspect - he went there
2) ingressive - he began to work
3) effective - she ceased speaking
4) durative - Wheat grows in Canada. She is working .
5) iterative - Each night the man would walk.

Those, who doubt to recognize it as a category are H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, who think the forms to be pure tense forms, and not aspect forms.

We should admit that tense and order are different grammatical categories of the verb (So do Yartseva, Ilyish, Smirnitsky)

Category of Mood

Mood is a grammatical category of the verb which express the speakers attitude towards the action

1. Smirnitsky, Akhmanova, Ganshina, Vasilevskaya find six 6 moods:
1)indicative
2)imperetive
3)subjunctive (1)
4)subjunctive (2)
5)conditional
6)suppositional one (subjunctive)
2.B.A.Ilyish and Vinokurova, Zhigadlo find 3 moods:
1)indicative
2)imperative
3)subjunctive (Ilyish; conditional and subjunctive)
3 L.S.Barkhudarov distinguishes two typed of mood:
1)indicative
2)imperative

This scholar doesn't recognize the subjunctive mood at all, referring it to rather the indicative and imperative.

4. Vorontsova distinguishes 4 mood types:
1)indicative
2)optative(желательное наклонение):
a)imperative
b)desiderative(тоже, что желательное наклонение)
c)subjunctive
3)speculative(тоже, что делиберативный - сомнительный):
a)dubitative(вид сослагательного наклонения)
b)irrealis(сослагательное ирреальное)
4)presumptive(презумптивный – явный(should, would)

In general the number of English moods theoretically varies from two to seventeenб the latter being within the subdivision into different types of moods B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya recognize the existance of only 3 moods in English:

1)indicative
2)imperative
3)subjunctive

As to H. Sweet:

1) indicative; 2) imperative; 3)conditional mood (If I were you, I should (he would) do it; 4)permissive mood: may see, might see, May you be happy!, Let the dog loose? 5)Compulsive mood; What am I to do?, What is to be done? 6) tense mood or subjunctive tense mood:

If I were there, I would do it.

O. Curme (3 moods):1)indicative;2)subjunctive: a) optative subjunctive("I wish he were here" type; b) potentive subjunctive(irrelis seemingly: If I were you ,I should do it)); 3)imperative: Go! Come!

Mood needs a clear cut-solution, so this problem still rests, perhaps its better to analyze it on the basis of notions of: indicative and non-indicative character of the action, on the one hand, and of real non-real character of it , on the other. Hence its better to speak of the 3 mood types: 1)indicative; 2)imperative; 3)subjunctive.

Questions on the theme:

1) What part of speech does the verb belong to?
2) What grammatical form has the verb?
3) What lexico-grammatical meaning has the verb?
4) What grammatical(syntactical) functions has the verb?
5) What are the structural types of the verbs?
6) What are the semsantic types of the verbs?
7) What is the structural classification of the verbs based on?
8) What is the semantical classification of the verbs based on?
9) What verbs are called link verbs?
10) What verbs are called auixilliary verbs?
11) What verbs are called notional verbs?
12) What verbs are called modal verbs?
13) What grammatical categories have the verbs?

LECTURE 8 (2 hours)

Theme 8:THE VERB: GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF TENSE, VOICE, ASPECT AND ORDER, ETC.

P l a n:

1. Grammatical categories of the verb(person, number and tense mood, voice, aspect, order, etc.)
3. Grammatical category of tense of the verb.
4. Grammatical category of voice of the verb.
5. Grammatical category of es of aspect, order and other categories, etc.(posteriority(Khaimovich ans Rogovskaya), finitude(Barhudarov), negopositivity.
6. Conclusion.

Key words: Verb and its grammatical categories of tense, voice, mood, order, aspect, etc.(posteriority, finitude, negopositivity) of the verb: different approaches to the category of voice: (1)active; 2)passive;3)reflexive 4) reciprocal; 5) middle voice; article, adjective, adverb, adlink, etc, meaning, form, function of article, adjective, adverb, adlink, structural and semantic types of the above mentioned parts of speech, grammatical category of degree of comparison of adjective, adverb and adlink.

The course of lecture;

The verb as a part of speech is very rich in its grammatical categories. There are various opinions as to what grammatical categories the verb has in Modern English. Below we see different approaches to the question in hand.

1. Various opinions: B.S. Khaimovich and R.I. Rogovskaya distinguish the following grammatical categories (8 categories)

1. Tense
2. Voice
3. Mood
4. Aspect
5. Order
6. Posteriority (will be writing-would be writing, shall come - should come) etc.
7. Person
8. Number

We are going to analyze different approaches to verbal categories.

Category of voice

The category of voice is a also very disputable problem in Modern English that it has given rise to the very heated linguistic discussions and debates, hence to the birth of numerous fundamental investigations.`

1.L.S.Barkhudarov distinguishes only two voices; (Vorontsova and A.I.Smirnitsky do the same)
1)Active; 2)Passive

2.B.H.Zhigadlo, Ivanova, Iofisk find 3 voice types;
1)active;2)passive;3)reflexive (self) :He cut himself while shaving.

3.B.Ilyish fixes 5 voices: 1)active; 2)passive; 3)reflexive
4) reciprocal (each other); 5)middle voice
The paper burns, The door opens, The book reads, sells well

B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya distinguish two voices:
1) active; 2) passive

The category of voice is one of very vexed problems in language theory:
Different opinions on this category.

Definition: Voice is a category of the verb which denotes whether the subject acts or is acted upon or whether the object is acted upon. So this is a category which expresses the relation of the verb to the subject and object from the point of view of the performer of the action, whether it is performed by the subject or object they are acted upon.

Active: I read the letter.
Passive: The letter is read to me
I am read the letter.
Middle: The letter reads well.
The book sells well.
The paper burns.

Opinions of scholars differ greatly as to the number of voices in the English verb.

They say that the voices of the type reflexive and reciprocal are not lucky, for they are not purely characteristic and dependent on the verb. Here the analysis are not carried on the verb which has to have the category, but the words like himself, herself, themselves which are pronouns. If we accept the reflexive voice, this makes us unwillingly accept that the verb has the category of gender(like “He did it” and “She did it”, the same will have to be done in the case of reciprosity with “one another, each other”, for these are the words belonging not to the class of verbs, but pronouns .so the voice I to be distinguished within the boundaries of the verb itself, by pushing off from the verbal and only the verbal form, meaning and function.Otherwise we may have to fix a lot more voice types, if we don’t strictly keep to the aforementioned principle based on the three concrete criteria – form, meaning and function.

So H.Sweet distinguishes 3 voices: 1) active; 2)passive; 3)reflexive: a)reflexive-transitive; b)reflexive-intrensitive;
O.Curme finds 2 voices: 1)active; 2)passive
1) says there are two voices: active and passive. So, do B.S. Khaimovich and B.I Rogovskaya and. Vorontsova.
2) A.I. Smirnitsky and ,L.S.Barkhudarov are also is of the same opinion. Here also belong H.Sweet, O.Gespersen, Bryant, H.Whitehall too.
3)Zhigadlo, Ivanova, Iofick think that there are 3 voices;
1)Active; 2) passive; 3) reflexive(himself , themselves, etc.)
4. B.A.Ilyish thinks that there are 5 voices:
1)active; 2)passive; 3)reflexive; 4)reciprocal; 5)middle

We consider that more or less accepted in this respect is the opinion that in English verbs there are two voices; 1)active and 2)passive presupposed and realized by the form , meaning and function of the verb. Hence, the opposition “active/passive” tends to be a generally accepted structural way of analysis of

the verb forms based on marked and non-marked members of the former. In the other cases there is no opposition as such within the strict boundaries of the verb itself, for in the cases of the so called " reciprocal and reflexive" voices the analysis goes out of the boundaries of the verb (or even the form of the verb is fully ignored, semantics being in the focus of attention, especially in the case of the the so called "middle voice").
This way, there are two voices in English, the active voice and the passive voice:

Active Voice	Passive Voice
[1] Paul congratulated David	[2] David was congratulated by Paul

Passive constructions are formed using the PASSIVE AUXILIARY *be*, and the main verb has an *-ed* inflection. In active constructions, there is no passive auxiliary, though other auxiliaries may occur:
Paul *is* congratulating David
Paul *will* congratulate David
Paul *has* congratulated David

All of these examples are active constructions, since they contain no passive auxiliary. Notice that in the first example (*Paul is congratulating David*), the auxiliary is the progressive auxiliary, not the passive auxiliary. We know this because the main verb *congratulate* has an *-ing* inflection, not an *-ed* inflection.

In the passive construction in [2], we refer to *Paul* as the AGENT. This is the one who performs the action of congratulating David. Sometimes no agent is specified:

David was congratulated

The last voice form may be referred to as an AGENTLESS PASSIVE

Category of aspect

The category of Aspect is also one of the controversial problems in English. There are different opinions on this problem. 1.Aspect is not a grammatical category but semantic. (Kennedy, Curme, Duntschbein).
2.Aspect is not a verbal category in grammar (A. Sweet) .
3.Aspect lies in between tense forms that it is not a separate category (O.Jespersen).
4.Aspect and tense are two different categories. (B.S.Khaimovich, B.I.Rogovskaya,Iyish, Smirnitsky, Yartseva. Not all verbs have this category like not every verb can have voice distinctions, for example, in future tenses (auxiliary verbs have only active forms) no passive.

ASPECT refers to how an event or action is to be viewed with respect to time, rather than to its actual location in time. We can illustrate this using the following examples:

[1] David *fell* in love on his eighteenth birthday
[2] David *has fallen* in love
[3] David *is falling* in love

In [1], the verb *fell* tells us that David fell in love in the past, and specifically on his eighteenth birthday. This is a simple past tense verb.

In [2] also, the action took place in the past, but it is implied that it took place quite recently. Furthermore, it is implied that is still relevant at the time of speaking -- David has fallen in love, and that's why he's behaving strangely. It is worth noting that we cannot say **David has fallen in love on his eighteenth*

birthday. The auxiliary *has* here encodes what is known as PERFECTIVE ASPECT, and the auxiliary itself is known as the PERFECTIVE AUXILIARY.

In [3], the action of falling in love is still in progress -- David is falling in love at the time of speaking. For this reason, we call it PROGRESSIVE ASPECT, and the auxiliary is called the PROGRESSIVE AUXILIARY.

Aspect always includes tense. In [2] and [3] above, the aspectual auxiliaries are in the present tense, but they could also be in the past tense:

David *had fallen* in love -- Perfective Aspect, Past Tense
David *was falling* in love -- Progressive Aspect, Past Tense

The perfective auxiliary is always followed by a main verb in the *-ed* form, while the progressive auxiliary is followed by a main verb in the *-ing* form. We exemplify these points in the table below:

	Perfective Aspect	Progressive Aspect
Present Tense	*has fallen*	*is falling*
Past Tense	*had fallen*	*was falling*

While aspect always includes tense, tense can occur without aspect (David *falls* in love, David *fell* in love).

Such modal verbs as" must, can, dare, may, might, shall, will, ought, need", etc. have no category of voice, person, number, aspect, order, mood , but the category of tense(except for "must and ought", which are invariable.

Category of Order (Time correlation).

The category of order is represented by a system of two member opposemes, such as writes-has written, wrote-had written writing-having written, to be written-to have been written, which shows whether the action is viewed by the speaker as completed (perfect) or non-completed (non-perfect) action.B.S.Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya consider it to be a separate verbal "category of order", while B.A.Iluish, G.N.Vorontsova think that is a part of the aspect system - (resultative aspect or transmissive aspect), etc. I.P.Ivanova treats it as a tense category. Prof. A.I.Smirnitsky was the first to call it the category of "time correlation".

The problem of the category of " Posteriority"

The category of posteriority is distinguished by B.S. Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya as a system of opposemes like "shall come - should come", "will come-would come", " will do-would do", etc, showing whether an action is prior or posterior with regard to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.

The problem of the category of finitude

The category of finitude is the category represented by such opposemes as "to work works", to have worked - has worked - had worked", to be working - was working, were working, is working, are working, have been working, had been working," etc.
This category shows whether the actions is absolute or non-absolute, being represented in the first case by the finite verb form, in the second-by the non-finite form.

The problem of the category of negopositivity (negation/non-negation).

The category of negopositivity (negation/non-negation) is the category represented by the opposemes of affirmative and negative forms such as" to work-not to work, work -don't work, works - doesnt work, will work - want work, has worked - had not worked, will have worked - will not have worked". The categories of person and number cause almost no difficulty in learning and you have certain knowledge and experience of the use of these categories.

The non-finite forms of the verb (the verbals).

The English verb has two distinct forms: *finite*(that have all the 7 generally accepted grammatical categories of the verb person, number, tense, mood, voice, aspect and order) and *non-finite forms*(that have only the last three of the aforementioned categories. The latter includes
the infinitive, the gerund and the participle. All of these non-finite forms have a double nature, nominal and verbal.

1.The particip1 combines the characteristics of a verb with those of an adjective; the gerund and the infinitive combine the characteristics of a verb with those of a noun.

2. The tense distinctions of the verbals are not absolute (like those of the finite verb), but relative; the form of a verbal does not show whether the action it denotes refers to the present past or future; it shows only whether the action expressed by the verbal is simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb or prior to it.

3. All the verbals can form predicative constructions, i. e. constructions consisting of two elements, a nominal (noun or pronoun) and a verbal (participle, gerund or infinitive); the verbal element stands in predicate relation to the nominal element, i. e. in a relation similar to that between the subject and the predicate of the sentence. In most cases predicative constructions form syntactic units, serving as one part of the sentence.

They sat down to supper, Mansion still talking cheerfully. *(Hardy)* Они сели ужинать; Мэнстон продолжал весело разговаривать. *Mansion still talking cheerfully is* a predicative construction with a participle: the participle *talking* stands in predicate relation to the noun *Mansion,* which denotes the doer of the action expressed by the participle. In the sentence a verbal may occur: (a) singly, i. e. without accompanying words. She... went away smiling. *(Dreiser)* Она... ушла, улыбаясь.

Reading is out of the question —I can't fix my attention on books. *(Collins).*

There are certain Verbal categories in these forms. There is the category of aspect in the infinitive. The category of tense or correlation and the category of voice in the varbals. The problem of categories in the second participle.

Questions on the theme:

1) What is a grammatical category?
2) What grammatical categories of the verb do you know?
3) What is the grammatical category of person of the verb?
4) What is the grammatical category of tense of the verb?
5) How many tenses has the verb?
6) What is the grammatical category of number of the verb?
7) What is the grammatical category of mood of the verb?
8) How many mood types has the verb?
9) What is the grammatical category of voice of the verb?
10) How many voices has the verb?
11) What is the grammatical category of aspect of the verb?
12) What aspects are distinguished in the verb system?
13) What is the grammatical category of order of the verb?
14) What are the other disputable grammatical categories of the verb(posterior**ity, finitude and** negopositivity)?

LECTURE 9(2 hours)

THEME: THE ADJECTIVE, ADVERB, ADLINKS (STATIVES) AND OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH AND THEIR GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Plan:

1) The Adjective: form, neaning, function

2) The Structural types of adjectives(simple, derivative, composite(compound, complex). Substantivation of adjectives and adjectivization of nouns.
3) The Semantic types of adjectives(quantitative, qualitative, relative).
4) The grammatical category of degree comparison (no category with relative adjectives)
5) The elative use of adjectives and the indefinite article preceding them
6) The adverb as notional part of speech (meaning, form, function).
7) The structural and semantic type of adjectives
8) The syntactical functions of the adverb.
9) The grammatical category of degree of the adverb (synthetic, analytical and suppletive ways of forming the degree).
10) The grammatical homonymy of adverbs and adjectives(fast – fast, late –late, hard –hard, adverbs and modal words (like *certainly-ceretainly, possibly-possibly,obviously- obviously* (compare also: untimely, monthly, weekly, yearly, etc. are adjectives).
11) The adverb and its partial substantivization(in such cases as "from here, up to now, since then(when)"when preceeded by prepositions.
12) Disputable nature of word groups of the type "put down, put on, bring up, come in, set up, turn on, turn off, etc.
13) The adlink(stative or word of category of state): form, meaning, function .
14) The grammatical category of degree of comparison.
15) The preposition and its structural and semantic types.
16) The conjunction and its structural and semantic types.
17) The particle and its functions in the sentence.
18) Homonymy of conjunction and conjunctive pronouns, prepositions and particles.

Key words: adjective as a primary, notional part of speech, three main criteria to characterize the adjective, form, meaning, function of adjectives, simple, derivative, composite(compound, complex) adjectives, substantivation of adjectives and adjectivization of nouns, semantic types of adjectives(quantitative, qualitative, relative), grammatical category of degree comparison, elative use of adjectives, adverb as notional part of speech(meaning, form, function). structural and semantic type of adjectives, syntactical functions of the adverb, grammatical category of degree, synthetic, analytical and suppletive ways of forming the degree of comparison, grammatical homonymy of adverbs and adjectives, adjectives with "-ly", substantivization of adverbs in cases like: "from here, up to now, since then(when)", problem of treating the final element of the word groups of the type: "put *down*, put *on*, bring *up*, come *in*, set *up*, turn *on*, turn *off*", etc, adlink(stative or word of category of state), form, meaning, function of adlinks, grammatical category of degree of comparison of adlinks, preposition and its structural and semantic types, conjunction and its structural and semantic types, particle and its functions in the sentence.

1.1 The adjective is a part of speech expressing the categorial semantics-i.e. meaning of property (quility) of a substance. It always denotes some certain features of names in the text. Sometimes it denotes the property of the substitute of substance that is the indefinite pronoun "one". This is a good book. It is indeed a good one. Sometimes the adjective comes very close to the nouns.
We are fighting the white.
The whites will surrender.

The adjectives usually denote (nominate) the size, position, quality, measure (many numerous, various) plentiful, material (woollen, wooden, silk) and physical state of persons or thing old, happy, sad, hard, soft etc. So their meaning is that of property .
2. The adjectives have various forms depending on morphological features of them. They have the category of degree of comparison. dark-darker-the darkest big-bigger-the biggest.
3.The adjectives are specialized in the function of mostly an attribute to a noun or a predicative in a compound predicate.
A good book is there, The book is good.

Sometimes they may have the function of a subject and object. It is observed only when they are substantivized.
The Red are sure to win. I support the Red.
I spoke to the native people.
The natives are very wonderful people.

There are various opinions on the nature of some words adjectives such as; much, many, little, few, expressing quantity. As they have the category of comparison they are close to the adjectives, as well as to the numerals. By some other features they are close to pronouns. In fact, as Ivanova considers these words lie between the adjectives and the numerals, they being intermediate parts of speech. She suggests to consider them as an interfield group of words, having the features of the adjectives numerals and pronouns. The adjectives are characterized by the following stem-building elements; -ful, -less,-ish, -ons, -ive, -un, -pre, -in... hopeful, tactful, homeless, lavish, boyish etc.

There is not much to be said about the English adjective from the morphological point of view. As is well known, it has neither number, nor case, nor gender distinctions. Some adjectives have, however, degrees of comparison, which make part of the morphological system of a language. Thus, the English adjective differs materially not only from such highly inflected languages as Russian, Latin, and German, where the adjectives have a rather complicated system of forms, but even from Modern French, which has preserved number and gender distinctions to the present day (cf. masculine singular *grand,* masculine plural *grands,* feminine singular *grande,* leminme plural *grandes* 'large').

By what signs do we, then, recognize an adjective as such in Modern English? In most cases this can be done only by taking into account semantic and syntactical phenomena. But in some ■*cases,* that is, for certain adjectives, derivative suffixes are significant, too. Among these are the suffix *-less* (as in *useless),* the. suffix *-like* (as in *ghostlike),* and a few others. Occasionally, however, though a suffix often appears in adjectives, it cannot be taken as a certain proof of the word being an adjective, because the suffix may also make part of a word belonging to another part of speech. Thus, the suffix *-jul* would seem to be typically adjectival, as is its antonym *-less.* In fact we find the suffix *-jul* in adjectives often enough, as in *beautiful, useful, purposeful, meaningful,* etc. But alongside of these we also find *spoonful, mouthful, handful,* etc., which are nouns.
On the whole, the number of adjectives which can be recognized as such by their suffix seems to be insignificant as compared with the mass of English adjectives. The only morphological problem concerning adjectives is, then, that of degrees of comparison.

Degrees of Comparison

The first question which arises here is, how many degrees of comparison has the English adjective (and, for that matter, the adjective in other languages, such as Russian, Latin, or German)? If we take, for example, the three forms of an English adjective: *large, larger, (the) largest,* shall we say that they are, all three of them, degrees of comparison? In that case we ought to term them positive, comparative, and superlative. Or shall we say that only the latter two are degrees of comparison (comparative and superlative), whereas the first *(large)* does not express any idea of comparison and is therefore not a degree of comparison at all? Both views have found their advocates in grammatical theory. Now, if we define a degree of comparison as a form expressing comparison of one object or objects with another in respect of a certain property, it would seem that the first of the three forms *(large)* should not be included, as it does not express any comparison. Then we should have only two degrees of comparison *larger, (the) largest,* and a form .standing apart, coinciding with the stem from which the degrees of comparison are formed, and which may be described as the ,,basic form.
However, in a very few adjectives the basic form differs from the stem in sound. This difference is of some importance, though it is not reflected in the spelling.

This applies to two adjectives in *-ng,* namely *long* and *young;* their stems are [long-] and [JArjg-] and the degrees of comparison formed from these stems are, *longer* [Tonga], *longest* [longist] and

younger [Члпдэ], *youngest* ['JAngist]. The basic forms, on the other hand, are *long* [log] and *young* [JAn], without the final [-g], which is impossible after [-n] in modern literary English.[8]

A somewhat similar phenomenon is found in adjectives ending . in *-r* or *-re*, such as *poor, pure, rare, sure.* Their stems are [puor-], [pjuer-], [rear-], [Juer-] and the suffixes of the degrees of comparison are added on to these stems, whereas the basic form loses its final [-r], unless it is followed without pause by a word beginning with a vowel, as in the phrases *poor idea, rare image,* and the like.

Now it is well known that not every adjective has degrees of comparison. This may depend on two factors. One of these is not grammatical, but semantic. Since degrees of comparison express a difference of degree in the same property, only those adjectives admit of degrees of comparison which denote properties capable of appearing in different degrees. Thus, it is obvious that, for example, the adjective *middle* has no degrees of comparison. The same might be said about many other adjectives, such as *blind, deaf, dead,*^ etc. However, this should not be taken too absolutely. Occasionally we may meet with such a sentence as this: *You cannot be deader than dead.* In a novel by E. Hemingway the hero compares the ways one and the same word sounds in different languages: *Take* dead, mort, muerto, *and* todt. Todt *was the deadest of them all.* But as a rule adjectives having such meanings do not appear in forms of comparison.[9]

A more complex problem in the sphere of degrees of comparison is that of the formations *more difficult, (the) most difficult,* or *more beautiful, (the) most beautiful.* The question is this: is *more difficult* an analytical comparative degree of the adjective *difficult?* In that case the word *more* would be an auxiliary word serving to make up that analytical form, and the phrase would belong to the sphere of morphology. Or is *more difficult* a free phrase, not different in its essential character from the phrase *very difficult* or *somewhat difficult?* In that case the adjective *difficult* would have no degrees of comparison at all (forming degrees of comparison of this adjective by means of the inflections *-er, -est* is impossible), and the whole phrase would be a syntactical formation. *The traditional view held both by practical and theoretical grammars* until recently was that phrases of this type were analytical degrees' of comparison. Recently, however, the view has been put forward that they do not essentially differ from phrases of the type *very difficult,* which, of course, nobody would think of treating as analytical forms.

Let us examine the arguments that have been or may be put forward in favour of one and the other view.

The view that formations of the type *more difficult* are analytical degrees of comparison may be supported by the following considerations: (1) The actual meaning of formations like *more difficult, (the) most difficult* does not differ from that of the degrees of comparison *larger, (the) largest.* (2) Qualitative adjectives, like *difficult,* express properties which may be present in different degrees, and therefore they are bound to have degrees of comparison.

The argument against such formations being analytical degrees of comparison would run roughly like this. No formation should be interpreted as an analytical form unless there are compelling reasons for it, and if there are considerations contradicting such a view. Now, in this particular case there are such considerations: (1) The words *more* and *most* have the same meaning in these phrases as in other phrases in which they may appear, e. g. *more time, most people,* etc. (2) Alongside of the phrases *more difficult, (the) most difficult* there are also the phrases *less difficult, (the) least difficult,* and there seems to be no sufficient reason for treating the two sets of phrases in different ways, saying that *more difficult* is an analytical form, while *less difficult* is not. Besides, the very fact that *more* and *less, (the) most* and *(the) least* can equally well combine with *difficult,* would seem to show that they are free phrases and none of them is an analytical form. The fact that *more difficult* stands in the same sense relation to

[1] In some dialects (more especially in the North) final [g] may be pronounced after [n].

[9] It is sometimes stated that qualitative adjectives form degrees of com-^ parison, whereas relative adjectives (such as *wooden, woollen, Asian, oriental)* do not. But the division of adjectives into qualitative and relative is not a grammatical but a semantic division, and some qualitative adjectives have no degrees of comparison either, e. g. *perfect, main,* etc.

difficult as *larger* to *large* is of course certain, but it should have no impact on the interpretation of the phrases *more difficult, (the) most difficult* from a grammatical viewpoint.

Taking now a general view of both lines of argument, we can say that, roughly speaking, considerations of meaning tend towards recognizing such formations as analytical forms, whereas strictly grammatical considerations lead to the contrary view. *It must be left to every student to decide* what the way out of this dilemma should be. It seems, on the whole, that the tendency towards making linguistics something like an exact science which we are witnessing to-day should make us prefer the second view, based on strictly grammatical criteria.

If that view is adopted the sphere of adjectives having degrees of comparison in Modern English will be very limited: besides the limitations imposed by the meaning of the adjectives (as shown above), there will be the limitation depending on the ability of an adjective to take the suffixes *-er* and *-est.*[10]

A few adjectives do not, as is well known, form any degrees of comparison by means of inflections. Their degrees of comparison are derived from a different root. These are *good, better, best; bad, worse, worst,* and a few more. Should these formations be acknowledged as suppletive forms of the adjectives *good, bad,* etc., or should they not? There seems no valid reason for denying them that status. The relation *good: better = large: larger* is indeed of the same kind as the relation *go: went = live: lived,* where nobody has expressed any doubt about *went* being a suppletive past tense form of the verb *go.* Thus, it is clear enough that there is every reason to take *better, worse,* etc., as suppletive degrees of comparison to the corresponding adjectives.

The Definite Article with the Superlative

When giving above the forms of the superlative degree we always added the definite article in parentheses. We did so because it remains somewhat doubtful whether the article belongs to the noun defined by the adjective in the superlative degree, or whether it makes part and parcel of the superlative form itself. To find an answer to this question, it is, apparently, necessary to know whether the definite article is ever used with a superlative form where it cannot be said to belong to a noun. Some examples, rare though they are, go some way to prove that the definite article can at least be said to have a tendency to become an appendix of the superlative form itself, rather than of the noun to which the adjective in the superlative degree is an attribute.

This appears to be quite incontrovertible in the few cases where the definite article is joined to the superlative form of an adverb, so that there is no noun to which it might, directly or indirectly, be said to belong. Here is an example from a nineteenth-century novel: *The world hears most of the former, and talks of them the most, but I doubt whether the latter are not the more numerous.* There are two phrases including a superlative form here, namely, *hears most of the former,* and *talks of them the most.* While there might be some doubt about the grammatical status of the first *most* (whether it is rather an object, that is, a substantivized adjective, or an adverbial modifier, that is, an adverb), the second *most* gives rise to no such doubts: the verb *talk* cannot take any object of that kind. So *the most* is bound to be an adverb and in any case there is no noun whatever to which the article might be attached. So we must draw the conclusion that the definite article has here become an.integral part of the adverb's superlative form. Such instances are'rare, but they do at least show that there is a tendency for the article to become an integral part of the superlative form, whether of an adjective or of an adverb.

Special Meanings of the Superlative

The basic meaning of the superlative is that of a degree of a property surpassing all the other objects mentioned or implied.However, there are cases when the meaning is different and merely a very high degree of a property is meant, without any comparison with other objects possessing that property. Thus, in the sentence *It is with the greatest pleasure that we learn of...* the phrase *the greatest pleasure*

[10] We will not discuss here the question of what adjectives can take these suffixes, since we could not add anything to what is common knowledge.

does not mean that that particular pleasure was greater than all other pleasures, but merely that it was very great. The same may be said of the sentence *In Brown's room was the greatest disorder* and of other sentences of this kind. This meaning of the form is usually described as the elative.[111] It can be recognized as such only owing to the context, and it seems to have (in some cases, at least) a peculiar stylistic colouring, being essentially uncolloquial.

The forms of the superlative degree are never used with the indefinite article. The phrase *"most* + adjective", on the other hand, may be used with the indefinite article and expresses in that case a very high degree of a property, without implying any comparison, e. g. *a most satisfactory result.* The meaning of the phrase is thus the same as that of the superlative degree in its elative application. The possibility of using the phrase *"most* + adjective" with the indefinite article seems to be an additional argument in favour of the view that this is not an analytical form of the superlative but just a free phrase.

Substantivization of Adjectives

It is common knowledge that adjectives can, under certain circumstances, be substantivized, i. e. become nouns. This is a phenomenon found in many languages, e. g. in Russian: compare ученый человек and ученый; рабочий стаж and рабочий. In German, compare *ein gelehrter Mann* and *ein Gelehrter;* in French, *un homme savant* and *un savant,* etc. The phenomenon is also frequent enough in English. The questions which arise in this connection are: (a) what criteria should be applied to find out if an adjective is substantivized or not? (b) is a substantivized adjective a noun, or is it not?

As to the first question, we should recollect the characteristic features of nouns in Modern English and then see if a substantivized adjective has acquired them or not. These features are, (1) ability to form a plural, (2) ability to have a form in *-'s* if a living being is denoted, (3) ability to be modified by an adjective, (4) performing the function of subject or object in a sentence. If, from this point of view, we approach, for example, the word *native,* we shall find that it possesses all those peculiarities, e. g. *the natives of Australia, a young native,* etc.

The same may be said about the word *relative* (meaning a person standing in some degree of relationship to another): *my relatives, a close relative,* etc. A considerable number of other examples might be given. There is therefore every reason to assert that *native* and *relative* are nouns when so used, and indeed we need not call them substantivized adjectives. Thus the second of the above questions would also be answered.

Things, are, however, not always as clear as that. A familiarexample of a different kind is the word *rich.* It certainly is substantivized, as will be seen, for example, in the title of a novel by C. P. Snow, *"The Conscience of the Rich".* It is obvious, however, that this word differs from the words *native* and *relative* in someimportant points: (1) it does not form a plural, (2) it cannot be used in the singular and with the indefinite article, (3) it has no possessive form. Since it does not possess all the characteristics of nouns but merely some of them, it will be right to say that it is only partly substantivized. The word *rich* in such contexts as those given above stands somewhere between an adjective and a noun. ^

The same may be said of *the poor, the English, the Chinese,* also *the wounded, the accused* (which were originally participles), and a number of other words. We might even think of establishing a separate part of speech, intermediate between nouns and adjectives, and state its characteristic features as we have done for parts of speech in general. However, there would appear to be no need to do so. We shall therefore confine ourselves to the statement that these words are partly substantivized and occupy an intermediate position.

Sometimes the result of substantivization is an abstract noun, as in the following examples: *The desire for a more inward light had found expression at last, the unseen had impacted on the seen.* (FOR-STER) *Her mind was focused on the invisible.* (Idem) Nouns of this type certainly have no plural form.

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[11] A similar phenomenon is also found in other languages, for instance in Russian: с величайшим удовольствием; философ, величайшего ума человек (ЧЕХОВ) etc. 3*

Adjectivization of Nouns

There is also the question of the opposite phenomenon — that of nouns becoming adjectives. For a variety of reasons, this question presents a number of difficulties and has, accordingly, given rise to prolonged and inconclusive discussions. The facts are, briefly stated, these. In Modern English a noun may stan* before another noun and modify it. Witness numerous formations of the type *stone wall, speech sound, peace talks, steel works, the Rome treaty*, etc. The question, as usually asked, is, whether the first component of such phrases is a noun or whether it has been adjectivized, i. e. become an adjective.[12] Different views have been put forward here.

The view that the first element of such phrases as *stone wall* is a noun has been defended by H. Sweet [13] and others, the view that it is an adjective or at least approaches the adjective state, by 0. Jespersen [14] and others, and finally the view has also been expressed that this element is neither a noun nor an adjective but a separate part of speech, viz. an attributive noun.[15] The very variety of opinions on the subject shows that the problem is one of considerable difficulty.

We shall become aware of that peculiar difficulty if we attempt to apply here the criteria serving to distinguish a noun from an adjective. It must be stated at once, though, that one criterion, namely that of degrees of comparison, is useless here. The first element of those phrases is indeed unable to form degrees of comparison, but that in itself does not prove that the element is not an adjective, since many adjectives, e. g. *wooden, woollen, European*, do not form degrees of comparison either.

The criteria to be applied here are the following: (1) Has the first element of those phrases number distinctions? (2) Is it able in the cases when it denotes a human being to have a possessive form? (3) Does it denote a substance or a property? Strangely enough all these questions are very hard to answer. As to (1), it must be stated that the first element usually appears only in one number form, which is either singular or plural, e. g. *stone wall*, not *stones wall; house fronts*, not *houses fronts; goods van*, not *good van*, etc. However, that observation leads us nowhere. It is quite possible to argue that the first element is a noun, capable of number distinctions, but always appearing in a definite number form when making part of that phrase. So the application of criterion (1) proves to be inconclusive. As to criterion (2), we also run into difficulties. If, for example, we take the phrase *the Einstein theory* and ask whether the first element can take the possessive form, we shall have to concede that of course it can; thus the phrase *Einstein's theory* is quite possible, and indeed, it occurs in actual texts. However, those who hold that it is not a noun, but either an adjective or an attributive noun (meaning a special part of speech) argue that the word in the phrase *the Einstein theory* is not the same word as in the phrase *Einstein's theory* and that the word in the first of these groups is incapable of taking a possessive form. Thus, it appears to be impossible to come to a definite conclusion on the basis of this criterion. Now we proceed to criterion (3). How are we to decide whether the word *Einstein* in the former group denotes a substance or a property? There seems to be no perfectly convincing argument either way. We might say that it denotes a substance but this substance only serves to characterize the property of the thing denoted by the noun.

Thus, we reach the conclusion that no perfectly objective result can be attained in trying to determine what part of speech the first element in such phrases is. This explains the existing difference of views on the subject and we are compelled to recognize that the question can only be solved in a somewhat subjective way, according as we start from one premise or another. If we start from the premise that we shall not speak of homonyms, or indeed new parts of speech, unless this is made strictly necessary by indisputable facts, we will stick to the view that the first element of such phrases as *stone wall* or

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[12] Another question concerning these fo-rmations is whether they are phrases or compound nouns. We will not go into this question here.

[13] H. Sweet, *A New English Grammar*, Part I, § 173.

[14] O. Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar*, Part II, p. 310 ff.

[15] See Э. П. Шубин, *Атрибутивные имена в языке Шекспира и их генезис.* Ученые записки Пятигорского Гос. Педагогического Института, т. 14, 1957.

speech sound is a noun in a special syntactical function. It is this view that appears to be the most plausible.

2) Structural types: of adjectives are
1) simple - big, nice, small,etc.
2) derivative- -able, -ible, -al (typical)
3) compound - ivorywhite, redhot,steel-blue
4) mixed type (compound derivative) - coldhearted, blue-eyed, high-nosed, four-wheeled three cornered, four-legged table red-cheeked
3. Semantical types of adjectives are
a) qualitative (good, bad, young, sweet)
b) quantitative (much, many)
c) relative (they have no degree) wooden, children, wooden, distant, industrial, cultural, etc

The grammatical. category of degrees of comparison of adjectives. The adjectives have only are one grammatical category that of degree of comparison. First of all, we should point out that not all the adjectives have this category: e.g. blind, dead, deaf, lame, etc. The grammatical category of degree of adjectives is represented by the following system of opposemes: large-larger-(the) largest which express different degree of the property in question as compared with the starting point of the property. There are 3 forms of degree: 1) positive-(un marked); 2) comparative-(marked by "-er"); 3) superlative-(marked by "-est") Iyish says that there are only two forms, denoting the degree of conparison of adjectives:(large, expressing no degree)
1.Comparative-larger, 2.Superlative-largest
The form large"he says",expressing no degree at all and is called the basic form. In fact it is advisable to speack of 2 ways of forming the degree of comparison of adjectives:
1. synthetic: big-bigger-biggest;
2.analytical(syntactical): beautiful-more, beautiful-most beautiful (progressive degree) difficult-less difficult-least difficult (regressive degree)
So more, most, less, least are analytical means of expressing the degrees of comparison. There is a rule, to use the definite article before the adjective in the superlative degree: the most beautiful, the biggest
3. suppletivism:good-better-best, bad-worse-worst little-less-least

The superlative degree expresses the highest strongest degree of the property in question. It is interesting to note that the analytical superlative form has a pecular usage. It can be used even with the indefinite article: A most attractive girl. A most clever boy.

It shows the strongest form of the property or quality in question. This particular usage is considered by Ilyish and Ivanova as a usage, having the elative meaning. The foreign grammarians consider the analytical forms to be emotional and stylistically coloured. The analytical forms are found in the degrees of compasion of adjectives, consisting of more than two or three syllables. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya speak of the adjectives, which are always in their elative meaning: extreme, supreme, super, hyper, outstanding, superior, inferior, etc.
Some adjective form their comparative (regressive) degree[16] by the help of the suffix -ish, and never have the superlative degree:
red-redish - not red (but weaker)
dark-darkish - not dark (but weaker)
blue-bluish - not blue (but weaker)
The second "-ish" form denotes that the property in question is weaker than the property of the basic form.

Substantivization of adjectives.

In all the existing languages the adjectives are substantivized. The Red have started firing. The Black have won the chess game. Functions of the adjectives are the following:
1)attribute - a good book
2)predicative - The book is new

[16] In the comparative degree of adjectives(as in" longer") we see the progressive degree, whereas in the cases of the adjectives (as in " red +ish, black+ish") we find the regressive degree which is indeed weaker than the positive degree.

3)subject - (when substantivized): The present have decided it
4)object (when substantivized): We salute the present.
When it is substantivezed they can even be modified by attributes The marching unemployed are approaching. The working poor are irritated B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya distinguish also the relative adjectives: household goods, a table lamp, etc. But they are nouns in their attributive function as B.A. Ilyish rightly points out.

Adverbs

In giving a general review of parts of speech, we have already mentioned some general problems connected with the adverbs. It will be our task now to look at these problems more closely.

We will accept that definition of the meaning of adverbs which, though not quite satisfactory, enables us to distinguish what is an adverb from what is not. The adverb, then, expresses either the degree of a property, or the property of an action, or the circumstances under which an action takes place.

In adopting this definition, we have not included under adverbs words expressing the speaker's view of the action spoken of in the sentence, and have classed them under modal words. Thus, the words *perhaps, maybe, certainly, possibly, indeed,* etc. do not fall under the head of adverbs.

Among the adverbs there are some which admit of degrees of comparison, and others which do not. In. mentioning this, we need not go into details, since .we can apply here everything that has been said about degrees of comparison of adjectives. Thus, if we do not admit such phrases as *more difficult, (the) most difficult* to be analytical degrees of comparison of the adjective *difficult,* we shall not admit, e. g., *more quickly* and *most quickly* to be analytical degrees of comparison of the adverb *quickly.* In that case, there would be only two types of degrees of comparison in adverbs: (1) the suffix type, for instance, *quickly, quicker, quickest,* or *fast, faster, fastest,* and (2) the suppletive type, represented by a few adverbs, such as *well, better, best,* or *badly, worse, worst.*

Adverbs may sometimes be preceded by prepositions, which means that they become partly substantivized. This is seen in such phrases as *from here, from there, since when, up to now,* etc.

In the traditional way we can define the adverb as follows. The adverb is one of the primary part of speech, characterized by its semantics - meaning of "qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of action, states, processes , qualities or quantities: to do quickly very old, grow slowly, so nice, very much, so many. By form adverbs are changeable, they have grammatical category of degree of comparison, of course not all of them:

quickly - more quickly - most quickly
soon - sooner - soonest

They function in the sentence as adverbial modifiers to the verb mostly, to the adjectives, to the adverbs and to the adlinks and less nouns: very afraid the then secretary very alone. They are formed according to certain models:

adjective+ly, noun-ways, noun+wise:
slow+ly side+ways, clock-wise
clever-ly high +ways kitchen-wise

Adverbs may be semantically devided into:
1)qualitative- hard, well, fast,
2)quantitative- too, very, rather, so, greatly, nearly, quietly, utterly,
3)circumstantial: yesterday, tomorrow, before, often, again, once, twice.
(time and place) here, there, upstairs, downstairs, behind, etc.

We have adverbs formed of not adjectives or nouns, but of the participles: confusedly, mockingly, brokenly, etc. There are various opinions on the adverb as a part of speech. Some linguists say that adverbs are not separate parts of speech, they are rather close to the adjectives and therefore have to be treated in the adjectival system. They point out that the main difference between the two parts of speech lies in their combinability with the other words.

adjectives adverbs:
hard nut to work hard

late hour come late
fast train to run fast

"Probably, evidently, possibly" are not adverbs, but modal words. But the adjectives and adverbs are different parts of speech as B.S.Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya point out, because they perform different syntactical functions have different combinability and different form and meaning.

The grammatical category of degree of comparison of adverbs. 1.Degree of comparison of adverbs are formed in 3 ways:

1) synthetic: fast-faster, fastest: He works faster late-later, latest He came eater
2) syntactical (analytical):quickly-more quickly, most quickly
3) suppletive: well-better-best, badly-worse-worst

B.S.Khaimovich and B.I.Rogovskaya distinguish two kinds of adverbs as to the category of the degree of comparison.

1)comparables: soon-sooner-soonest 2) non-comparables: yesterday, always, upstairs etc.

There are certain limits of the adverb class: We often come across such language phenomena as: come in, go out, stand up, put down, being up, etc. Especially in "put up (with) something" and "bring up" there are not any meanings of neither "bring" or "up"-it meaning to educate. The above mentioned group of words have been treated by different scholars in different ways. First fall, it is linked with the argument as to its being a phrase or a word. If it is a phrase, what part of speech are the second elements "up', in, down, on, off"?

Some linguists think that they are adverbs. H. Palmer treats them(up, on, off, down" as "preposition- like-adverbs". So does A.I.Smirnitsky. A.Anitchkov thinks that they are "adverbial postpositions" prof. N.Amosova thinks that "up" is a special kind of form words, called "postpositives". Zhluktenko says that it is a word, second part being a morpheme called "postpositive prefixes" like "upbringing"(bring up),"income(come in)", "up keep)keep up)". Prof. Ilyish thinks that they "up, down, away" are postpositins, so they are special class of pasts of speech. So B.A. Ilyish thinks that they are phrazeological units consisting of the verbs and adverbs and have to be treated in lexicology while learning a chapter devoted to phraseology. But we think that they are prepositions used in the needed cases in postposition**.**

THE NUMERAL

The numeral is one of the notional parts of speech, characterized by 1) its lexico-grammatical meaning of 'number', 2) the category of numerical qualification represented in
opposemes like seven — seventh, nine — ninth, 3) its unilateral combinability with nouns (three children, he third child), 4) such typical stem-building suffixes as -teen, -ty, 5) its functioning as an attribute, less frequently as some other parts of the sentence(subject, object, adverbial modifierwhen proceeded by prepositions, etc.)

As to their structural features numerals may be of the following types:

1. simple – one two three, four five,ten, etc.
2. derived – thirteen, fourteen, twenty, thirty, fouty, fifty, sixty, forth, fifth, seventh, eighth, etc.
3. compound – thirty one, fourty two, sixty five, two hundred, four thousand, etc.
4. composite – three hundred and five, four thousand and ten, two thousand, nine hundred and ninety-five, one billion nine hundred thousand and twenty, etc.

The lexico-grammatical meaning of 'number' is not to be confused with the grammatical meaning of 'number'.

a) The former is the generalization of a multitude of lexi-cal meanings of individual numerals (five, ten, fifty-seven, etc.). The latter is the generalization of only two grammati-cal meanings: "singular" and "plural".

b) The plural number, as in boys, shows indefinite plural-ity, whereas the meanings of numerals, as in twenty, forty are definite plurality. c) Like any grammatical meaning the "plural" of nouns

is relative, dependent and indirect . The lexical "plural" of a numeral like eight is not relative, being as much correlated with the "singular" of one as with the "plural" of seven, or nine., or eighty. The "plural" of eight is independent inas-much as it is the lexical meaning of an independent word. This reflection of reality is direct as that of any lexical meaning.

1 Грамматика русского языка. АН СССР, ч. I, М.—Л., 1953. p. 613.

Numerals are usually divided into two groups —cardinal numerals (one, five, twenty) and ordinal numeral (first fifth, twentieth). The former denote some numerical quantity, the latter — some numerical order. The difference between these groups is sometimes exaggerated to such an extent that they are treated as belonging to different parts of speech. For instance, A. I. Smirnitsky is of the opinion that only cardinal numerals form a separate part of speech, whereas ordinal numerals are adjectives

Language facts do not support such views.

1. Each cardinal numeral has a corresponding ordina one. Cf . seven — seventh, thirty — thirtieth, eighty-four —eighty-fourth, etc.
2. Both cardinals and ordinals qualify substances quantitatively, as distinct from adjectives whose qualification is qualitative.
3. Cardinals often denote numerical order like ordinals Cf . lesson five = the fifth lesson.
4. Only numerals have the suffix -th. Nouns denoting number (gross, score, etc.) cannot be associated with it/

Formations of the type *grossth, *scoreth are impossible

5. If -th were regarded as a stem-building suffix, it would be the only suffix of this kind in the English language embracing all the words of a part of speech (in our case — numerals) minus three (one, two, three).
6. The relation between ten and tenth resembles the relation between boy and boy's. As words of the boy's type are mostly used in the function of attributes, they might also be declared adjectives.

In our opinion, the pair “ten — tenth” forms an opposeme of the *grammatical category of numerical qualification.* The lexical meaning of the two words expressed by the lexical morpheme ten- is the same. They are opposed only grammatically by the opposition of the zero morpheme in ten and the -th morpheme in tenth. This opposition is as regular as that of the zero morpheme of the singular and the-(e)s morpheme of the plural. Even more so, in fact, becausethere are feweexceptions. The meaning of the zero morpheme is that of 'numerical quantity', and the meaning of the morpheme -th is that of 'numerical order'. Like every grammatical meaning the meaning of "numerical order" is relative (always correlated with the meaning of 'numerical quantity') and dependent on'the lexical meaning of the word, i. e. the suffix -th does not express "numerical order" in general, but the order of the number named by the lexical part of the word.

In the opposemes one — first, two — second, three — third the meaning of numerical qualification is expressed by means of suppletivity and sound interchange. The words half, quarter, zero, nought, gross, score, etc. which have no ordinal opposites, but possess plural opposites are nouns, not numerals.

The combinability of numerals is rather limited. As a rule, they form combinations with nouns. Numerals usually precede the nouns they modify, but when a cardinal denotes numerical order it follows the noun. Numerals are, naturally, associated with countable nouns. In cases like he first' love, the first snow instances of the phenomena are meant. The definite article in combinations like the second dance is easily accounted for, as the numeral singles out the object or event by indicating its position in a series. Numerals are, as a rule, not modified by other words. This negative combinability-is also a characteristic feature of the part of speech.

As to their stem structure English numerals fall into a) simple or root numerals, such as one, two, three (up to twelve), b) derivative numerals formed with the help of the suf-fixes -teen (from thirteen to nineteen), -ty (from twenty to ninety), c) compound numerals (from twenty-one to ninety-nine) and d) composite numerals, such as nine hundred and three. It is owing to the remarkable way of forming composite numerals that an unlimited multitude of numbers can be named with the help of a limited number of words. It has been pointed out that numerals have a peculiar manner of building up compound and composite sterns not observed in any other part of speech.

When a numeral of a lower rank follows a higher numeral their numbers are added, as in eighty-one — eighty -f one.

1 See А. И. С м и р н и ц к и й, op. cit., p. 165.

If the order is reverse, the numbers are multiplied E. g. five hundred = five X hundred. In two hundred and nine mul-tiplication and addition are combined.

Numerals are easily substantivized, acquiring noun features.

Let us by way of illustration take the following sentence from a school text-book in arithmetic: "In order to add two numbers add the units of one number to the units of the other, the tens to the tens, the hundreds to the hundreds, etc." Here the numerals tens, hundreds have many features in common with the noun units. They have the lexico-grammatical meaning of 'substance', the 'plural', suffix -s\ they have left-hand connections with articles, prepositions; they are used in the functions of objects. Other instances of the substanti-vization of numerals are: Arrival of Moscow eleven. (The Worker). Two can play at that game. We are s e v e n. Form fours!

The analysis of numeral grammemes in speech presents a picture largely similar to that displayed by adjectival -grammemes. The frequency of their occurrence in the analyzed modern literary texts is as follows:

cardinal grammemes — 84 per cent
ordinal grammemes — 16 per cent,

the unmarked members of the opposeme as less specific (here as elsewhere) constituting the bulk of numerals used in speech flow.

Below are combinability patterns of numeral grammemes arranged in tabular form.

Cardinal Ordinal

Pattern grammeme grammeme (per cent) (per cent) art. -f num. -f - noun 80 98 noun -4 - prepos. + num. 8 link-verb + num. 8 1 other models {page ten, one 4 1 of them, etc.)

English and Russian numerals are similar as to their lexico-grammatical meanings, ways of stem-building, combinability and syntactical functions, but they differ greatly as regards their grammatical categories.

1) Unlike their English counterparts, Russian numerals possess the categories of gender {пятый — пятая — пятое) case (четыре — четырех — четырем, etc.) and number (пер-
вый — первые).

2) There is a great difference between ordinal and-cardinal numerals in Russian as far as their categories are concerned. Ordinal numerals resemble adjectives not only in having the categories of number, gender and case, but in the forms of the grammatical morphemes as well.

Cf . пятый — красный пятого — красного пятому —
пятая — красная пятые — красные красному

Cardinal numerals do not possess the categories of number and gender (with the exception of один, два). The case inflec-tions are also different.

Cf . десять — десяти — десятью
знать — знати — знатью

It is no wonder, therefore, that some linguists separate cardinal and ordinal numerals in Russian and regard the latter as adjectives. But this is certainly no reason why the same should be done in English where conditions are quite different.

In certain cases we see special uses of the numerals in combination with the indefinite article in expressing performance assesments: a two, a three, a four, a five, etc. For example: *I am giving you a five for your answe, or Ihave got a four for my composition.*

Numeral phrases

Combinations of numerals (2.4.13) generally conform to the structure of noun phrases, but they also have special characteristics which make it natural to treat them separately. For example, they may be spoken and written in quite different ways:

225 two hundred and twenty-five
2 + 2 two plus two
$25 twenty-five dollars
22.08 twenty-two point zero eight
1966 nineteen sixty-six (the year)
10 a.m. ten o'clock (in the morning)
2.15 p.m. two fifteen, a quarter past two (in the afternoon)
The conventions vary with the type of numerical expression (2.7.7.2). Numeral phrases have similar syntactic roles to those of noun phrases and determiners.

Complex numbers

Complex cardinal numbers are built up by juxtaposition of simple numerals (2.4.13), except that and is regularly inserted between hundred/thousand/million and numbers below 100. The following are examples of complex numbers from conversation (digit forms are given within < >):
1 A hundred and seventy-two <172> that's quite high isn't it? (CONVJ)
2 That would be three thousand six hundred <3600>. (coNvf)
3 Cost two thousand, nine hundred and ninety-five <2975> pounds. (cONvf)
Before hundred, thousand, and million, the determiner a is usually used instead of one (as in 1 above).

Types of numerical expressions

There are several special types of numerical expression. The following examples are all taken from conversation (with a numerical translation given in brackets).

A.Clock time

Hours are often specified, as in all the examples below, without using the 24-hour clock or indicating overtly a.m. or p.m. The context and shared knowledge of the speaker and hearer normally make it obvious what is meant. For parts of whole hours the number of minutes is specified, using past, to, or neither of these. However, the word minutes is often omitted. There are alternative expressions also used for the 15, 30, and 45 minute points (examples 1, 2, 3, 5).
1 It's a quarter past - fifteen minutes past six (6.15). (CONVJ)
2 So you put it in at what? Quarter to one (12.45)? Ten to one (12.50)? (CONV)
3 A: What time are we leaving, Brenda?
B: Half past nine (9.30) (CONV)
4 Then I pick him up at three thirty(3.30) (CONV)
5 My boys were in bed at half nine (9.30) at fourteen. (BrE CONV)
6 This finishes at six fifty (6.50). So you're gonna have to remember the oven goes out at six fifteen (6.15) (CONV)

B.Dates

The word day is not normally included with the ordinal number identifying it, and the specification of the date is generally as exact as is required in the context. Hence, no year is mentioned in 1, and the century is unspecified in 4.
1 Any time between June and July the ninth <9 July> then, (CONV)
2 On the fourth of July two thousand and nineteen <4 July, 2019> (CONV)
3 In nineteen seventy-nine <1979> an unusual -phenomenon happened. (CONV)
4 A: You ex deserted in October didn't you?
B: October thirty-two <i.e. 1932>. (CONV)

C. Currency

Often the words for the currency units (pounds, pence/p; dollars, cents) are

omitted as predictable. This is especially so when sums of money involving two sizes of unit are being specified: both are absent in 2, 4, and one in 1. Contrast example 3.

1 You can have one player and it costs forty-four pound ninety-nine <£44.99>. (BrE CONVJ)

2 A: It's three ten <£3.10> isn't it, didn't you say?
B: Three fifty <£3.50>. (BrE CONV)

3 And they can be yours for just one hundred and forty nine dollars. <$149.00> (AmE CONV)

4 I told him I wanted five fifty <$5.50> an hour. (AmE CONV)

The singular form pound in 1 is colloquial; pounds would normally be considered standard. Compare also the expression in example 3 in E below.

D. Temperature

Again the words for units and scales of temperature may be absent, when the speaker feels this information is shared already with the hearer—wholly in example 1, partly in 2.

1 The erm wind chill factor is twenty-two <22°> below. (coNvf)

2 It's ten degrees - ten above zero <10°>. (coNvf)

3 The Three Hundred Club is for people who have a, done a South Pole Streak from sauna, two thousand, oh two hundred degrees fahrenheit <2000 .. . 200° F> to outdoors minus one hundred degrees fahrenheit <-100°F>. (CONVJ)

4 So it's twenty-five degrees Celsius <25° C> in January? (CONV) Types of phrase 11 1

E. Decimals, percentages, fractions

Decimals after the point are spoken as a sequence of digits, not a whole number. For example, one will not typically hem four point thirty—cf. 4 and examples in F. Example 3 is special in that the reference is to a sum of money.

1 Point five <.5> of a quart is a pint, (coNvi)

2 It's nought point five <0.5>. (CONV)

3 He's got this other stuff in there, some promotional special offer one point seventy-nine <£1.79> for a litre. (coNvf)

4 Four point three O <4.30>, okay, (CONV)

5 David Jones the chief economist of Nat West Bank expects output to rise by only point six percent <.6%> this year, (CONV)

6 Then it's going down another <.. .> three quarters of a percent <% %>. (cONVf)

F. Mathematical expressions

These may include words for arithmetic operations such as and/plus/add for addition, minus/take away/subtract for subtraction, times/multiplied by for multiplication, over/divided by for division and is, lmakes/equals for equation.

Twenty-two point two eight plus twenty point four eight minus forty-seven point six eight <22.28 + 20.48 - 47.68>. (co Nvt)

Fifteen add fifteen is thirty add one is thirty-one <15 + 15 = 30; 30 + 1 = 31>. (BrE coNvf)

Mine's twelve plus tip, so I'm going to put in fourteen. <$12 + $2 tip = $14> (AmE CONV)

Two point nine eight times four to the power of two <(2.98 x 42) or (2.98 x 4) 2 >. (coNvf)

V equals point two five eight cubed <V = .2583

>. (CONV)

Approximate numbers

Where it is not possible to specify an exact number, an alternative is to use a round number, such as 10, 30, 500 (note the higher frequency of round numbers, 2.4.13.3). Other options are provided by quantifying nouns (4.3.6) and determiners (4.4.4). In addition, there are various ways of qualifying exact numbers.

A The derivational suffix -ish

1 A: Phone later on ah, Ron, later, later on.
B: About elevenish. (CONV)
2 And say he's round about the fortyish - age. (coNvf)
3 A plump, fiftyish woman, she was already efficiently turned out in her white uniform, (FICT)
4 I suppose they'll come about three and we must send for them sixish as usual? (FICT)

The suffix -ish in such examples means 'approximately'.

B Combinations with odd

The expression number + odd refers to a relatively small amount over that specified; e.g. 300 odd means 'slightly over 300':

A hundred and fifty odd meals a day. (CONV)
Is it only a thirty odd hour week? (CONV)
You could have gotten a hundred and some odd dollars for it. (Ficrf)
I drove the twenty-odd miles hack to town and ate lunch, (FICT)
We've got 60-odd officers going out tonight, (NEWS)

Approximating adverbs

Approximating adverbs include about, around, some, and approximately, roughly, and circa.

Every time I got to them they had about twenty odd teachers there. (coNvf)
I spent about two hours in the bar. (Ficrf)
The radial shields are about 1.5-2 times as long as broad. (ACAD|)
Approximately 60% of the community are of Polish and Russian ancestry, and approximately 40% are blacks who were born and raised in this midwestern community, (ACAD)

D. Coordination tags

The tag (and) something means 'a little more than the number stated', while or something/or so mean 'a little more or a little less'.

We've paid four thousand seven hundred and something, (CONVJ)
Oh I think they were hundred and something each maybe more, (CONV)
J think they paid him out - thirty thousand or something like that, (CONV)
A: How many were in?
B: Four hundred or so. (CONV)
In his opinion, only 2,000 or so, or about 30 percent, of the 6,800 "modern standard characters" needed to write contemporary Chinese are free words. (ACADJ)
That must have been in 1964 or so whatever the last year was for the New York World's Fair, (FICT)
Some, including Portland, Oregon, charge $1 or so to recycle a tree, (NEWS)

2.7.7.4 Approximating numeral expressions

Overall, with the exception of some forms (circa, approximately, around, roughly, some, or so), approximating expressions are found much more often in conversation than in the other registers. The frequency of approximating expressions is not

proportional to the number of numerals (4.4.5.1). If it were, we would have expected fewer approximating expressions in conversation than in academic prose and news reportage.

Occurrences with -ish are infrequent and almost exclusively restricted to conversation and fiction. Coordination of phrases . Those containing odd are moderately common in conversation (over 40 per million words), but they also occur occasionally in the written registers (especially in direct speech).

About is the most common approximating adverb, in all registers; approximately is used primarily in academic prose.

While the tag and something is relatively rare and virtually restricted to conversation, expressions with or so are more common and are found in all registers.

Approximating expressions fit in with the communicative purposes of conversation, where complete explicitness may not be necessary, and some degree of vagueness may actually be desirable. See also Chapter 14. We even see such expressions cluster together:

Fish is normally about one twenty odd. (CONVI)

Your total was - about four thir- about four fifty roughly, (CONV)

A: How much did that cost you to do that?

B: About six pound or something, (CONV)

Numerals in diling telephone numbers, in sports and games, dates, weather forecasts, odd numbers, fractions, see Communicative Grammar, etc.

The Adlink.

There is a certain class of words such as “asleep, ablaze, aflame, afraid”, etc, characterized by the:

1)meaning of "state/position”.

2)form the sign of which is "a": aswim, ashiver,etc.

3)function of predicative “he is alone” and sometimes an “attribute” (a fast asleep boy).

4)combinability with link verbs or verbs of sense perception (found him alone etc).

There are different opinions on the nature of the adlinks, hence are different terms to cover it.

B.A.Ilyish calls the very group of "words of category of state or statives".

Rogovskaya and Khaimovich call them by a handier term "adlinks" on the analogy of adverbs or “addlinks of state” to reflect their chief properties (Khaimovich & Rogovskaya, p.200).

L.Barkhudarov considers them to be adjectives. He tries to prove it by the same category of degree of comparison:afraid-more afraid-most afraid. But B.Ilyish says that they are "words of state" or "statives", because as we think they can't be in all the functions the adjectives have in the sentence, and formally speaking they have a marker "a" coming at the beginning of any "adlink".

afar
akin
afraid
ablaze
aflame
ajar etc.

Unlike these words, adjectives have no marker which is common or typical of any adjective under discussion.

We think that the terms "adlink"and "statives" are very suitable ones for the class of words we are speaking about, because they are very convenient to be used and referred to.

The Prepositions

It is common knowledge that prepositions are a most important element of the structure of many languages, particularly those which, like Modern English, have no developed case system in their nominal parts of speech.

We have briefly discussed the problem of the meaning of prepositions but here we shall have to consider it at some length.

It is sometimes said that prepositions express the relations between words in a sentence, and this is taken as a definition "of the meaning of prepositions. If true, this would imply that they do not denote any~relations existing outside the language. However, this is certainly not true, and two or three simple examples will show it. If we compare the two sentences: *The book is lying on the table,* and *The book is lying under the table,* and ask ourselves, what do the prepositions express here, it will at once be obvious that they express relations (in space) between the book (the thing itself) and the table (the thing itself). The difference in the situations described in the two sentences is thus an extralinguistic difference expressed by means of language, namely, by prepositions. It would certainly be quite wrong to say that the prepositions merely express the relations between the word *book* and the word *table,* as the definition quoted above would imply. The same may be said about a number of other sentences. Compare, for instance, the two sentences, *He will come before dinner,* and *He will cqjne after dinner. It* is absolutely clear that the prepositions denote relations between phenomena in the extralinguistic world (time relations between "bis coming" and "dinner"), not merely relations between the word *come* and the word *dinner.*

We must add that there are cases in which a preposition does not express relations between extralinguistic phenomena but merely serves as a link between words. Take, for instance, the sentence *This depends on you.* Here we cannot say that the preposition *on* has any meaning of its own. This is also clear from the fact that no other preposition could be used after the verb *depend* (except the preposition *upon,* which is to all intents and purposes a stylistic variant of *on).* Using modern linguistic' terminology, we can say that the preposition *on* is here predicted by the verb *depend.* The same may be said about the expression *characteristic of him.* If the adjective *characteristic* is to be followed by any prepositional phrase at all the preposition *of* must be used, which means that it is predicted by the word *characteristic.* Returning now to our examples *The book is lying on the table* and *The book is lying under the table,* we must of course say that neither the preposition *on* nor the preposition *under* is predicted by the verb *lie.* If we put the sentence like this: *The book is lying ... the table,* the dots might be replaced by a number of prepositions: *on, in, under, near, beside, above,* etc. The choice of the preposition would of course depend on the actual position of the book in space with reference to the table. Similarly, if we are given the sentence *He will come ... the performance,* the dots may be replaced by the prepositions *before, during, after,* according as things stand. Now, in defining the meaning of a preposition, we must of course start from the cases where the meaning is seen at its fullest, and not from those where it is weakened or lost, just as we define the meaning of a verb as a part of speech according to what it is when used as a full predicate, not as an auxiliary.

We need not go further into the meanings of various prepositions in various contexts, since that is a problem of lexicology rather than grammar. What we needed here was to find a definition based on the real meaning of prepositions.

The next point is, the syntactical functions of prepositions. Here we must distinguish between two levels of language: that of phrases and that of the sentence and its parts. As far as phrases are concerned, the function of prepositions is to connect words with each other.[17] On this level there are patterns like "noun + preposition -f noun", "adjective + preposition + noun", "verb + preposition + noun", etc., which may be exemplified by numerous phrases,[A]such as *a letter from my friend, a novel by Galsworthy, fond of children, true to life, listen to music, wait for an answer,* etc.

See , for instance, Грамматика русского языка, т. I, стр. 41.

[1] This statement will require some modification when we come to the function of prepositions in such cases as *"Under the Greenwood Tree",* etc. (see p. 158).

On the sentence level: a preposition is never a part of a sentence by itself; it enters the part of sentence whose main centre is the following noun, or pronoun, or gerund. We ought not to say that prepositions connect parts of a sentence. They do not do that, as they stand within a part of the sentence, not between two parts.

The connection between the preposition, the word which precedes it, and the word which follows it requires special study. Different cases have to be distinguished here. The question is, what predicts the use of this or that preposition. We have already noted the cases when it is the preceding word which determines it (or predicts it). In these cases the connection between the two is naturally strong. In the cases where the use of a preposition is not predicted by the preceding word the connection between them is looser, and the connection between the preposition and the following word may prove to be the stronger of the two. This difference more or less corresponds to that between objects and adverbial modifiers expressed by prepositional phrases. Thus, in a sentence like *This depends on him* the preposition is predicted by the verb and the phrase *on him* is of course an object, whereas in a sentence like *The book is lying under the table* the preposition is not predicted by the verb and the phrase is an adverbial modifier. However, this criterion does not hold good in all cases.

Sometimes the boundary line between a preposition and another part of speech is not quite clear. Thus, with reference to the words *like* and *near* there may be doubtful cases from this viewpoint. For instance, there certainly is the adjective *near,* used in such phrases as *the near future*. On the other hand, there is the preposition *near,* found in such sentences as *they live near me.*

The adjective has degrees of comparison, and the preposition of course has none. In this connection let us examine the following sentence, which presents us with a whole bundle of problems involving both that of parts of speech and that of subordinate clauses: *When they had finished their dinner, and Emma, her shawl trailing the floor, brought in coffee and set it down before them, Bone drew back the curtains and opened wide the window nearest where they sat.*

The question about the word *nearest* is closely connected with that about the ties between the *where*-clause and the main clause. As to the word *nearest,* there are obviously two ways of interpreting it: it is either an adjective in the superlative degree, or a preposition. Each of the two interpretations has its difficulties. If we take *nearest* as an adjective in the superlative degree, it will follow that this adjective (that is, the adjective *near)* can take an object clause, in the same way as it takes an object within a clause, e. g. *near our house, near midnight,* etc., and this would mean that the subordinate clause *where they sat* is treated very much like a noun. If, on the other hand, we take *nearest* as a preposition, we should have to state that there is a special preposition *nearest* in Modern English: it would obviously not do to say that the preposition *near* has degrees of comparison. There would appear to be no valid reason to prefer the one or the other of the two views, and a third possibility seems to present itself, viz. saying that we have here a borderline case of transition between an adjective in the superlative degree and a preposition.

This is one more example of language phenomena requiring a careful and wholly undogmatic approach: it would be futile to expect that every single language fact would fit easily into one pigeonhole or another prepared for it in advance. Language phenomena have as it were no obligation to fit into any such pigeonholes and it is the scholar's task to approach them with an open mind, to take into account their peculiarities, and to adjust his system as best he can to receive such "unorthodox" facts. Another example of this kind has been considered above: it concerned the status of the words *many*, *much*, *few*, and *little* .

A special case must now be considered. In some phrases, which are not part of a sentence, a preposition does not connect two words because there is no word at all before it, and so its ties are one-sided: they point only forwards, not back.

As characteristic examples we may quote the titles of some poems and novels: *"To a Skylark"* (SHELLEY), *"On a Distant Prospect of Eton College"* (GRAY), *"Of Human Bondage"* (MAUGHAM), *"Under the Greenwood Tree"* (TH. HARDY). The syntactical function of the prepositions in cases of this type is a peculiar one. The preposition either expresses a relation between the thing expressed by the noun and

something not mentioned in the text (as in *"To a Skylark"),* or it gives the characteristic of the place where something not specified takes place *("Under the Greenwood Tree").*

It is evident that in such cases the preposition has only a onesided connection, namely with the noun following it, but we may ask whether it has not also some reference to something not expressed which may be imagined as standing before the preposition.

Let us, for instance, compare the actual title of W. Somerset Maugham's novel, *"Of Human. Bondage"*, with a possible variant *"Human Bondage",* without the preposition. In this way the meaning and function of the preposition becomes clear: the preposition *of* is here used as it is used in the phrases *speak of something, think of something,* etc. In the title as it stands, the preposition implies that the author is going to speak of human bondage, that is, human bondage is going to be discussed.

We shall arrive at a similar conclusion if we compare the actual title of Th. Hardy's novel, *"Under the Greenwood Tree",* with the possible variant *"The Greenwood Tree".* The preposition implies that we shall be reading about something happening under the tree, rather than about the tree itself. So it will probably be right to say that .something is implied (very vaguely, it must be admitted).

We should especially note some peculiar uses of the preposition *about,* namely in such sentences as, *There were about twenty people in the room,* which of course means that the number is given approximately. The preposition here has only a one-sided connection, namely with the numeral, and has no connection at all with the preceding verb. It certainly does not express any relation between *were* and *twenty.* Syntactically, it makes an element of the subject group *(about twenty people).* Indeed we may be inclined to doubt whether the word *about* is a preposition at all in such a case. It rather approaches the status of a particle.

This is still more confirmed by examples in which the group introduced by *about* stands after another preposition, as in the sentence, *This happened at about three o'clock.* The group *about three o'clock* here follows the preposition *at* in quite the same way as the group *three o'clock* would follow it in the sentence *This happened at three o'clock.* The group *about three o'clock* is a designation of a certain time as much as the group *three o'clock,* and to establish its relation with the verb *happened* it also requires the preposition *at* to be used.

We also find two prepositions close to each other in different contexts. Compare, for instance, the following sentence: *He sat until past- midnight in the darkness while grief and sorrow overcame him.* (E. CALDWELL) Here also belongs the phrase *from under* in a sentence like *The cat stretched its paw from under the table.* It seems quite possible to take this in the same way as we took *at about* in the preceding example, and to say that *under the table* denotes a certain place and *from* indicates movement from that place. However, it is also possible to view this case in a somewhat different way, namely to suppose that *from under* is a phrase equivalent to a preposition, and then we should not have two prepositions following one another here. This problem should be further investigated.

Prepositions can sometimes be followed by adverbs, which apparently become partly substantivized when so used. The groups *from there, from where, since then, since when* are too widely known to require illustrative examples. Another case in point is the following: *She is beautiful with that Indian summer renewal of physical charm which comes to a woman who loves and is loved, particularly to one who has not found that love until comparatively late in life.* (O'NEILL)

Prepositions in English are less closely connected with the word or phrase they introduce, than, say, in Russian. It would be impossible in English for a preposition to consist of a consonant only, that is, to be non-syllabic, which is the case with the three Russian prepositions е, к, с. This greater independence of English prepositions manifests itself in various ways.

There is the possibility of inserting, between a preposition and the word or phrase it introduces, another phrase, which can, in its turn, be introduced by a preposition. Here is an example of this kind: *The first of these, "The Fatal Revenge", appeared in 1807, and was followed by, among others, "The Milesian Chief"...* (COUSIN) The two prepositions, *by* and *among,* stand one after the other, but there is certainly no syntactic connection between them, and probably there is a pause, corresponding to the comma of the written text. The connection between *followed* and *by* appears to be closer than that between *by* and the phrase which it introduces, namely, *"The Milesian Chief".* Unless- it were so, the preposition *by* would

come after the inserted phrase *among others*, rather than before it. But that variant, though perhaps not impossible, would certainly be less idiomatic than that in the text.

This way of making one preposition come immediately after another, showing the independence of the first preposition, is also seen in some cases where the status of the second preposition may be doubted, that is, it may be doubted whether the word is really a preposition in that context (compare what has been said on p. 159). The following sentence, which is fairly characteristic of modern usage, will show the essence of the phenomenon: *His industry was marvellous, and its results remain embodied in about 40 books, of which about 25 are commentaries on books of Scripture.* (COUSIN) Of course all this is made possible by the fact that prepositions in English do not require the word they introduce to have a specified case form.

Sometimes even a parenthetical clause comes between the preposition and the noun it introduces, e. g. *Some weeks ago Mr Bles-sington came down to me in, as it seemed to me, a state of considerable agitation.* (CONAN DOYLE)

The looseness of the tie between the preposition and the following noun can be offset by a closer tie between the preposition and the preceding word. This may be seen, for instance, in some passive constructions with the phrase "verb + noun -J- preposition" acting as a kind of transitive unit. Examples of this use are well known. Compare the following sentence: *Their conference was put an end to by the anxious young lover himself, who came to breathe his parting sigh before he set off for Wiltshire.* (J. AUSTEN) The active construction would have been, *The young lover put an end to their conference*, where *an end* would be a non-prepositional, and *to their conference* a prepositional object. It might be argued, however, that *put an end* is something of a phraseological unit and should therefore be treated as the predicate. Be that as it may, the fact remains that the noun *end* is included into the passive form of the verb, and the subject of the passive construction is the noun which, in the active construction, would have been part of the prepositional object.

It should also be noted that a preposition does not necessarily connect the word which immediately precedes it with the one that follows. Cases are frequent enough in which there is no connection at all between the preposition and the preceding word. For instance, in the sentence, *This beauty is a trifle dimmed now by traces of recent illness* , there is no connection between the words *now* and *by*. The preposition *by* is of course connected with the passive participle *dimmed* and the adverb *now* could be left out without affecting the connections and the functions of the preposition: *This beauty is dimmed by traces of recent illness.* The same may be said about the sentence / *get the same tale of woe from every one in our part of the country* (Idem): the preposition *from* is not connected with the noun *woe* which precedes it, it Js connected with the verb *get*, which is separated from it by five other words. Many more examples of this kind might be given. This should warn us against an oversimplified understanding of the syntactical function of a preposition.

Special attention must be given to groups of words whose'meaning and functions in the sentence are the same as those of prepositions. Here belong the groups *out of, as to, as for, instead of, in spite of,* etc. We cannot term these groups prepositions, since a preposition is a word, not a word group, and it is essential to keep up the distinction between words and word groups; neglect of it would bring about a muddle both in grammar and in lexicology. The current haziness in the treatment of such groups and the vague terms "compound preposition" and the like are not conducive to a clear and consistent grammatical theory. Since much the same can be said about phrases equivalent in meaning and function to conjunctions, we will return to this problem after having considered the conjunction

The Conjunction

The conjunctions are also one of the semi-notional parts of speech, characterized by the following criteria:

1) lexico-grammatical meaning of “1. Its lexico grammatical meaning of 'relations between substances, actions, properties, situations, etc.'.

2) Its peculiar combinability. As a rule, a conjunction connects two similar units: words of a similar type or clauses.

3) Its function of a linking word.

Conjunctions are not characterized by any grammatical categories or typical stem-building elements. As to their stem-structure conjunctions are, as usual, divided into simple (and, but, or, that, till, if, etc.), derivative (until, unless, because, provided, etc.), compound (although, whereas, etc.) and composite {as if, in order that, as soon as, either ... or, neither ... nor, etc.).

A variety of composite conjunctions is the group of the so-called correlativeconjunctions which go in pairs: both... and, either ... or, no sooner ... than, etc.

Many conjunctions are homonymous with adverbs' and prepositions (after, since, before), pronouns (that, so, neither), participles (supposing, provided).

The lexico-grammatical meaning of conjunctions is an abstraction from their lexical meanings. The latter are also very general, abstract and rather weak. Therefore conjunctions can be treated as semi-notional words (see § 50), though not as form-words \ since they are not devoid of content.

As regards the nature of the relations they serve to express conjunctions are usually divided into two subclasses: coordinating (and, or, both ... and, etc.) and subordinating (if, that, as soon as, etc.) conjunctions.

1

See M. Ganshina, N. Vasilevskaya, op. cit., p. 252.

2

Taking up the definitio of a conjunction given above in our general survey of parts"of speech, we must first of all, just as we have done with prepositions, consider the question of the meaning of conjunctions. Many authors, in defining a conjunction, limit themselves to indicating that they serve to connect words (or parts of the sentence) and clauses.[1] This would seem to imply that conjunctions have no meaning of their own, that is, that they do not themselves express any phenomena of the extralinguistic world. This is untenable, as may be very easily shown by the simplest examples. Compare, for instance, the two sentences, *He came because it was late,* and *He came though it was late.* The different conjunctions obviously express different real relations between two extralinguistic phenomena: his coming and its being late. The causal connection between them exists outside the language, and so does the concessive relation expressed in the latter of the two sentences. There is no difference whatever in the grammatical structure of the two sentences: the difference lies only in the meanings of the two conjunctions. The same observation can be made on comparing the two sentences, *We will come to see you before he comes back,* and *We will come to see you after he comes back,* and also in a number of other cases. All this goes to prove that every conjunction has its own meaning, expressing some connection or other existing between phenomena in extralinguistic reality.

So far our reasoning and our conclusions have been the same as in the case of prepositions. Now, however, comes a point in which conjunctions are different from prepositions. When discussing prepositions, we noted that in a certain number of cases the use of a given preposition is predicted by the preceding word: thus the verb *depend* can only be followed by the preposition *on* (or *upon),* the adjective *characteristic* only by the preposition *of,* etc. In such cases the preposition has no meaning of its own. Conjunctions in this respect are entirely different. The use of a conjunction is never predicted by any preceding word. We will no longer inquire into the meanings of conjunctions, as this is a question of lexicology rather than grammar.

In studying the syntactical functions of conjunctions, we have, just as with prepositions, to distinguish between two levels — that of phrases and that of sentences.

On the phrase level it must be said that conjunctions connect words and phrases. It is the so-called co-ordinating conjunctions that are found here, and only very rarely subordinating ones.

On the sentence level it must be said that conjunctions connect clauses (of different kinds). Here we find both so-called co-ordinating and so-called subordinating conjunctions.

The division of conjunctions into co-ordinating and subordinating is one that can hardly be dealt with outside syntax: co-ordinating conjunctions imply co-ordination of clauses, and subordinating conjunctions imply subordination of clauses. So we shall have to look again into this question when we come to syntax.[1] Here it will be sufficient to say that there is nothing in the conjunction itself to show

whether it is co-ordinating or subordinating, and even in the structure of the clauses there is no unmistakable sign of this (as is the case, for instance, with word oVder in Modern German).

Conjunctions can sometimes lose their connecting function, as is the case with the conjunction *if* in sentences expressing wish, like the following: *If only she might play the question loud enough to reach the ears of this Paul Steitler.*

Probably we shall have to say that *if* here is no longer a conjunction but a particle. We will consider such cases in Syntax as well.[2]

Prepositions and Conjunctions

In comparing prepositions with co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions we cannot fail to notice that while prepositions have nothing in common with co-ordinating conjunctions, some prepositions are very close in meaning to subordinating conjunctions, and in some cases a preposition anoMi subordinating conjunction sound exactly the same. As examples of similarity in meaning we may give, for instance, such phrases and clauses: *during his illness = while he was ill;* examples of complete identity in meaning and sound are the words *before, after, since.*

All this presents us with intricate problems. On the one hand, it seems doubtful whether we are right in uniting subordinating conjunctions (that is, words like *when, as, after, before, since)* together with co-ordinating conjunctions (that is, words like *and, but, or)* into one part of speech and separating them from prepositions (that is, words like *of, from, after, before, since),* with which they obviously have much more in common. On the other hand, it remains doubtful how we should treat the relations between the preposition *after* and the conjunction *after* (and similarly, *before* and *since).* None of the treatments so far proposed seems satisfactory.

One way is to say, there is the word *after,* which may function both as a preposition and as a conjunction. But then the question arises, what part of speech is *after?* If it can only function as a preposition and as a conjunction, this would mean that it is neither the one nor the other.

Another way is to say that *after* the preposition and *after* the conjunction are homonyms. This will not do either, since homonymy, by definition, supposes complete difference of meaning, as between *saw* 'instrument for sawing' and *saw* 'old saying', whereas the meaning of *after* the preposition and *after* the conjunction is absolutely the same.

These considerations apply as well to the words *before* and *since,* and here the question is further complicated by the fact that they can also be adverbs.[18]

The difficulty with the word *after* would be overcome if we were to unite prepositions and conjunctions into one part of speech (as hinted above, p. 35), which would then have to be given a new name. The difference between what we now call the preposition *after* and the conjunction would then be reduced to different syntactical uses of one word. But the difficulty with the adverbs and preposition-conjunctions *before* and *since* would not be solved by this: it would not do to say that an adverb and a word uniting the qualities of preposition and conjunction are the same word.

A fully convincing solution of this problem has yet to be found.

As to the relation between prepositions, co-ordinating conjunctions, and subordinating conjunctions, it must be said that on the ground of the peculiarities which have been pointed out a completely different treatment of the three types of words is possible. An idea to this effect was put forward by the French scholar L. Tesniere in a book on general principles of syntax. Tesniere classes what are usually called co-ordinating conjunctions as a type for itself: he calls them "jonctifs" (that is, junctives), whereas prepositions and what we call subordinating conjunctions come together under the name of "translatifs" (translatives) and are distinguished from each other as subclasses of this large class: prepositions are called "translatifs, premier degre" (translatives, first degree) and subordinating

[18] *After* is also an adverb in the phrase *ever after*

conjunctions, "translatifs, second degre" (second degree).[19] This is quite natural in a book on syntax, in which things are looked at from a syntactical angle and words classified according to their functions in the sentence.

It should also be noted that the difference between prepositions and conjunctions is much less pronounced in Modern English than in Russian, where prepositions are closely connected with cases, while conjunctions have nothing whatever to do with them. In English, with its almost complete absence of cases, this difference between prepositions and conjuctions is very much obliterated. While in Russian the substitution of a conjunction for a preposition makes it necessary to change the case of the following noun, in English no such change is necessary or, indeed, possible. So the distinction between preposition and conjunction is based here only on semantic criteria and, also, on the use of these words in other contexts, where they are not interchangeable.

In discussing prepositions, we noted that there are in English, as well as in Russian and in other languages, certain phrases which cannot be termed prepositions, since they are not words, but which are similar to prepositions in meaning and in syntactical function. The same is true of conjunctions. A certain number of phrases (consisting of two or three words) are similar in meaning and in function to conjunctions. Among them we can quote such phrases as *in order that, as soon as, as long as, notwithstanding that,* etc. Just as prepositional phrases, these will be analysed in a special chapter in Syntax (see p. 185 ff.).

The Particle

To include a word in the class of particles we must find out whether it has the characteristic features of particles which we have described in our general survey of parts of speech, and we should not apply any other criteria. We shall not inquire whether the word has one syllable, or two, or many; this phonetic quality of a word is irrelevant to its grammatical status: just as, for example, a preposition may have one syllable *(of, to)* or four *(notwithstanding),* a particle may have one syllable *(just)* or four *(exclusively).* Thus the diminutive suffix *-icle* should not be taken to refer to the length of the word.

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

1. Limiting particles: *only, just, but, alone, solely, merely, barely,* etc.

I only wanted to make you speak. *(Shaw)*

Just one question, Mrs. Dartie. Are you still fond of your husband? *(Galsworthy)*

Soames was but following in the footsteps of his father. *(Galsworthy)*

Her name alone was almost enough for one who was terribly susceptible to the charm of words. *(Galsworthy)*

He had taken up with it solely because he was starving. *(London)*

She (Ruth) thought she was merely interested in him (Martin) as an unusual type possessing various potential excellences, and she even felt philanthropic about it. *(London)* They were spreading not merely on the surface, but within. *(Galsworthy)*

He barely acknowledged the young fellow's salute. *(Galsworthy)*

2. Intensifying particles: *simply, still, just, yet, all, but, only, quite, even,* etc.

He made plans to renew this time in places still more delightful. *(Galsworthy)*

He just did dislike him. *(Galsworthy)*

They did not even know that he was married. *(Galsworthy)*

If Jo were only with him! *(Galsworthy)*

But out there he'll simply get bored to death. *(Galsworthy)*

3. Connecting particles: *too, also.*

Higgins comes in. He takes off the hat and overcoat.

Pickering comes in. He also takes off his hat and overcoat. *(Shaw)*

He (James) was silent. Soames, too, was silent. *(Galsworthy)*

4. Negative particles: *not, never.*

[19] L. Tesniere, *Elements de Syntaxe Structurale,* 1959, pp. 386—387.

1. No, he was not afraid of that. *(Galsworthy)* She looked round her. Nothing — not a thing, no tiniest disturbance of her hall, nor of the dining room. *(Galsworthy)* 1 never spoke to him except to ask him to buy a flower off me. *(Shaw)*

Some of the particles are polysemantic, for instance *just, only.*

That's just his way of talking. (LIMITING PARTICLE)

Why, I think, that's a terrible price to ask for it, just awful. *(Dreiser)* (INTENSIFYING PARTICLE)

French people only come to England to make money. *(Galsworthy)* (LIMITING PARTICLE)

If only there were a joyful future to look forward to! *(Galsworthy)* (INTENSIFYING PARTICLE)

Most of the particles are homonymous with other parts of speech, with adverbs *(simply),* but also with conjunctions *(but),* pronouns *(all),* ives *(only).* The particles *else;, solely, merely* have no homonyms.

In dealing with particles, we will limit ourselves to the grammatical side of the matter. We will not discuss either their meanings, which belong to the sphere of lexicology, nor the morphemes making them up, which should be considered in the theory of word-building.

When speaking of particles in our review of parts of speech we have noted already that they usually refer to the word (or, sometimes, phrase) immediately following and give special prominence to the notion expressed by this word (or phrase), or single it out in some other way, depending on the meaning of the particle.

This usage, which is by far the most common one, can be illustrated by a variety of examples. We will give a few:

One just does what is reasonable, and everything is bound to go all right.

She could feel anger stir, even at this late date, as she thought of that night, but she subdued it and tossed her head until the earrings danced.

Sometimes a particle occupies a different position in the sentence. This question will be dealt with in the chapter on word order.

The question of the place of a particle in sentence structure remains unsolved. It would appear that the following three solutions are possible: (1) a particle is a separate secondary member of the sentence, which should be given a special name; (2) a particle is an element in the part of the sentence which is formed by the word (or phrase) to which the particle refers (thus the particle may be an element of the 'subject, predicate, object, etc.); (3) a particle neither makes up a special part of the sentence, nor is it an element in any part of the sentence; it stands outside the structure of the sentence and must be neglected when analysis of a sentence is given.

Each of these three views entails some difficulties and none of them can be proved to be the correct one, so that the decision remains arbitrary.

The view that a particle is a part of the sentence by itself makes it necessary to state what part of the sentence it is. Since it obviously cannot be brought under the headings either of object, or attribute, or adverbial modifier, we should have to introduce a special -part of the sentence which ought then to be given a special name.

The second view would be plausible if the particle always stood immediately before (or immediately after) the word or phrase to which it belongs. But the fact that it can occasionally stand at a distance from it (for example, within the predicate, while referring to an adverbial modifier) makes this view impossible of realization; compare, for instance, / *have only met him twice.*

The last view, according to which a particle stands, as it were, outside the sentence, seems rather odd. Since it is within the sentence, and is essential to its meaning, so that omission of the particle could involve a material change in the meaning, it is hard to understand how it can be discounted in analysing the structure of the sentence.

Since, then, the second view proves to be impossible and the third unconvincing, we shall have to adhere to the first view and to state that a particle is a separate secondary part of the sentence which ought to be given a special name.

The Particle Not

The particle *not* deserves special attention. It can, as is well known, be used in two different ways. On the one hand, it may stand outside the predicate, as in the following sentence: *Not till Magnus had actually landed in Orkney did he consider the many difficulties that confronted him.*

It also stands outside the predicate in a type of so-called short answers, in which the negative is expressed by the particle *not,* if it is accompanied by a modal word like *certainly, perhaps,* or a phrase equivalent to a modal word, e. g. *of coarse: Certainly not. Perhaps not. Of course not*[20]. Compare also: */ am afraid not, I think not,* etc. In these cases the particle *not* appears to be the main part of the sentence.

Another use of the particle *not* is that within the predicate. In these cases it is customary to treat it as part of the verb itself. The usual way of putting it is this. The negative form of the present indicative, e. g., of the verb *be,* is: *(I) am not, (he) is not,* etc., or, the negative form of the present indicative, e. g., of the verb *sing* is, *(I) do not sing, (he) does not sing,* etc. The particle *not* is thus treated as an auxiliary element making part of the verb form. This of course appears to be especially necessary with verbs whose negative form includes the auxiliary verb *do,* i. e. with the vast majority of Modern English verbs. Here the particle has obviously no syntactic function of its own, and is an auxiliary element within the morphology of the verb.[2]

The particle *not* undergoes further fusion with forms of the verb in the following cases, where indeed it is no longer a word at all but a morpheme within a verb for/n. The first step in this direction is clearly seen in the form *cannot,* where it preserves its vowel sound, and the next step in the contracted forms *isn't, aren't* (also the subliterary *ain't), wasn't, weren't, haven't, hasn't, hadn't, shan't, won't, shouldn't, wouldn't, don't, doesn't, didn't, mayn't, mightn't, mustn't, oughtn't, can't,* and occasionally also *usen't* for *used not.* Here the two elements have quite coalesced into a unit, and some of these forms (e. g. *shan't, won't,* and *don't)* cannot now even be divided into morphemes.

Adverbial particles

Adverbial particles are a small group of short invariable forms with a core meaning of motion and result. The most important are: about, across, along, around, aside, away, back, by, down, forth, home, in, off, on, out, over, past, round, through, under, up.

While prepositions have a special relationship to nouns, adverbial particles are closely linked to verbs: most typically, prepositions precede noun phrases, and adverbial particles are added to verbs. Adverbial particles are used in two main ways: to build multi-word verbs (5.3): bring up, look down on, take in, etc.; to build extended prepositional phrases (2.7.5.1): e.g. back to the roots, down in the middle, up in the mountains. This use has led to the development of complex prepositions such as on to, and up to (cf. 2.4.5.2).

The relationship between the two uses can be seen in examples such as:

I'm taking it down to him tomorrow, (CONV)

We were going back to the hotel when it happened, (NEWS)

In examples of this kind, the particle faces both ways. On the one hand, it is closely related to the verb (go back, take down). On the other hand, it serves as a specification of the following prepositional phrase {back to ..., down to ...).

Adverbial particles should be distinguished from adverbs (2.4.6.1) and from prepositions (2.4.6.2).

Adverbial particles v. adverbs

Adverbial particles differ from adverbs in a number of ways. They are shorter and less complex than most adverbs. Their core meaning is quite restricted, while the meanings of adverbs may vary widely. Above all, they have particular characteristics of distribution:

Bring in the stool from the bathroom.

[20] But the use of these modal words and phrases with the sentence-word *no* is impossible.

cf. *Bring here the stool from the bathroom.
It swallowed up the two men. (FICT)
cf. *It swallowed completely the two men.

The adverbial particles in these examples, but not the adverbs here and completely, may precede a simple definite noun phrase as direct object. This is evidence of the close connection between the two parts of the complex verb. (Regarding the placement of adverbial particles),

Adverbial particles v. prepositions

The forms which are used as adverbial particles can also be used as prepositions, with a few exceptions: aside, away, back, forth, home, out. Note, however, that these forms can be part of complex prepositions or extended prepositional phrases: aside from, (go) away from, (come) back to/from, (go) forth to, (come) home to/from, out of, etc.

The close connection between adverbial particles and prepositions is shown in examples such as:
They staggered up the last steep of the mountain. (Ficrf)
cf They staggered up. Survey of function words 79
He walked slowly up the steps on to the platform. (Ficrf)
cf. He walked slowly up.

These pairs contain closely analogous examples, one with a preposition and the other with an adverbial particle. By these means, we can choose between specifying direction only or direction + path/goal.

Adverbial particles and prepositions further overlap before here, there, now, and then. Adverbial particles in this context have the meaning and distribution of adverbs; they can be glossed as 'in/to this/that place', 'at this/that moment/time', and they can be omitted without seriously injuring the meaning:
That lady I worked for in Kentucky gave them to me when I got married.
What they called married back there and back then, (FICT)

In contrast, prepositions in the same context are obligatory elements:
From there they were resettled within Japan or in a third country, (NEWS)
Many forms can function as either an adverbial particle or a preposition in this context:
1 I knew that there was a man (in) there, (NEWS J) (can be omitted)
2 In there(the room) I feel skinnier than ever, (FICT) (can't be omitted)

In 1, in can be omitted with little change in meaning. In other words, it is used much like an adverbial particle in an extended prepositional phrase. In 2, though, in is less freely omissible and therefore behaves more like a preposition (cf. 2.7.5). Regarding the borderline between adverbial particles and prepositions, see also the account of phrasal and prepositional verbs in 5.3

Doubtful Words

There are some words which may be classed either as particles or as adverbs, since the criteria which we apply to distinguish between these two parts of speech do not appear to yield a clear result here.

Among these we should cite the words *almost* and *nearly,* which are close to each other in meaning. Taking a sentence like *The boat almost overturned,* we can say that it is a matter for discussion whether the word *almost* does or does not denote the manner in which the action of the verb was conducted. Again, taking the sentence *He is nearly thirty years old now,* we can also doubt whether the word *nearly* does or does not modify the word *thirty* (or, perhaps, the phrase *thirty years).* It would rather seem that it does not, but any judgement on this issue is bound to be subjective to a considerable extent, since, as we pointed out above, objective criteria do not yield any clear results. Accordingly, the syntactical function of the words *almost* and *nearly* will also remain doubtful and a matter for subjective opinion.

In weighing different considerations that may be put forward in favour of including the word *nearly* into one or other morphological category, it is essential to bear in mind a phenomenon which quite definitely speaks against including this word in the class of particles. The word *nearly* may occasionally have the adverb *very* standing before it and modifying it, as in the sentence: *The time is very nearly seven fifteen.* In the sentence *The time is nearly seven fifteen* we might bring forward certain arguments to prove that *nearly* is a particle. However, the possibility of its being modified by the adverb *very* is a powerful argument against that view: a particle cannot be modified by an adverb, or by any other kind of word, for that matter. Since the status of the word *nearly* was doubtful anyway, the phrase *very nearly* casts a definite weight against its being a particle and in favour of its being an adverb.

We may also note that there is a difference here between the word *nearly* and the word *almost,* close as they are in meaning: *almost* cannot be modified by any word, and the phrase *very almost* is certainly impossible. Whether this is sufficient reason to put them into different parts of speech is another matter.

Words not included into any classes

Academician Scerba's idea is fully confirmed by some facts of Modern English. If, for instance, we take the word *please,* used in polite requests, we shall be at a loss to say to what part of speech it belongs. Traditionally, it was described as an adverb, but there appears to be no reasonable ground for this, either in the meaning of the word or in its syntactical function. (The morphological criterion of course yields nothing -here, as the word is invariable like many words belonging to various parts of speech.) Rather than "squeezing" the word into some part of speech at whatever cost, we had better put up with the fact that it does not fit into any of them, and leave it outside the system.

Another case in point are the words *yes* and *no.* These were also traditionally treated as adverbs, though this was far less justified than even in the case of *please.* These two words can form sentences without any other word being joined on to them. It might be possible, after all, to take this as their basic feature, and to say that they form a special part of speech, namely, sentence words.

However, such a procedure is extremely doubtful, both because that feature seems hardly sufficient for constituting a part of speech, and because the number of words involved is so small. It seems therefore preferable to leave these two words, like the word *please,* outside the system of parts of speech. Other words deserving similar treatment may be found, and the possibility of being left outside the system of parts of speech should be left open to them.

Modal Words

The distinction between modal words and adverbs is, as we saw in our general survey of parts of speech, based on two criteria: (1) their meaning: modal words express the speaker's view concerning the reality, of the action expressed in the sentence, (2) their syntactical function: they are not adverbial modifiers but parentheses, whether we take a parenthesis to be a special part of the sentence or whether we say that it stands outside its structure. The latter problem is one that we will discuss in Syntax.

We must emphasize that this view is far from being the only one possible: one might argue that the meaning of an adverb as a part of speech might be described in such a way as to include what we call modal words, and to mention the function of parenthesis among the syntactical functions of adverbs. Where clear objective morphological criteria fail there will always be room for different interpretations. We will not argue this point any further but start on the assumption that modal words do constitute a separate part of speech.

Modal words have been variously classified into groups according to their meaning: those expressing certainty, such as *certainly, surely, undoubtedly;* those expressing doubt, such as *perhaps, maybe, possibly,* etc. The number of types varies greatly with different authors. We need not go into this question here, as this is a lexicological, rather than a grammatical, problem. From the grammatical

viewpoint it is sufficient to state that all modal words express some kind of attitude of the speaker concerning the reality of the action expressed in the sentence.

In the vast majority of cases the modal word indicates the speaker's attitude towards the whole thought expressed in the sentence (or clause), e. g. *Look, there are those doves again. The one is really quite a bright red, isnt it?* (R. WEST) *She is a delicate little thing, perhaps nobody but me knows how delicate.* (LAWRENCE)

If the modal word in each of the sentences is eliminated the whole thought will lose the modal colouring imparted to it by the modal word, and will appear to be stated as a fact, without any specific mention of the speaker's attitude.

However, occasionally a modal word may refer to some one word or phrase only, and have no connection with the rest of the sentence. It may, for example, refer to a secondary part of the sentence, as in the following example: *No one expected his arrival, except Bose presumably.* (LINKLATER)

The use of modal words depends to a great extent on the type of the sentence. This will be discussed later.

A modal word can also make up a sentence by itself. This happens when it is used to answer a general question, that is, a question admitting of a *yes*- or reo-answer. *Certainly, perhaps, maybe,* etc. may be used in this way. In these cases, then, modal words are the main part of the sentence. This brings them close together with the sentence words *yes* and *no.* However, they differ from the sentence words in that the modal words can also be used as parentheses in a sentence. Thus, the question, *Are you coming?* may equally be answered, *Certainly I am,* or *Certainly.* The sentence words *yes* and *no* cannot be used as parentheses. Whether the answer is *Yes,* or *Yes, I am,* the *yes* is a sentence in both variants.

It might be possible to argue that if the answer to the question *Are you coming?* is *Certainly,* the word *certainly* is a parenthesis, and the rest of the answer, / *am,* is "understood". While such a view cannot be disproved, it seems unnatural and far-fetched, and we will prefer the view that *Certainly* in this case is a sentence.

The problem of modal words is connected with the very difficult problem of modality as a whole. This has been treated repeatedly by various scholars both with reference to English and to Russian and in a wider context of general linguistics as well.[2] We" will not investigate here all the aspects of the problem. We will only mention that there are various means of expressing modality — modal words, modal verbs *(can, must,* etc.) and the category of mood. Since two of them or even all three may be used simultaneously, it is evident that there may be several layers of modality in a sentence. A great variety of combinations is possible here.

The interjection.

Interjections have for a long time been an object of controversy. There has been some doubt whether they are words of a definite language in the same sense that nouns, verbs, etc. are, and whether they are not rather involuntary outcries, provoked by violent feelings of pain, joy, surprise, etc., not restricted to any given language but common to all human beings as biological phenomena are.

In our days this controversy is outdated. We can now safely say that interjections are part of the word stock of a language as much as other types of words are. Interjections belonging to a certain language may contain sounds foreign to other languages. Thus, for instance, the English interjection *alas* contains the vowel phoneme [aɔ], which is not found either in the Russian or in the German language; the Russian interjection *ax* contains the consonant phoneme [x], which is not found in English, etc.

The characteristic features which distinguish interjections from practically all other words lie in a different sphere. The interjections, as distinct from nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc., are not names of anything, but expressions of emotions. Thus, the emotion expressed by the interjection *alas* may be named despondency, or despair, etc., but of course it cannot be named *alas.* Another characteristic feature of the meaning of interjections is, that while some of them express quite definite meanings (for instance, *alas* can never express the feeling of joy), other interjections seem to express merely feeling in general,

without being attached to some particular feeling. The interjection *oh*, for example, may be used both when the speaker feels surprised and when he feels joyous, or disappointed, or frightened, etc. The meaning of the interjection itself is thus very vague. We will not enter more deeply into this, as it is a question of lexicology rather than of grammar.

Interjections (as Inserts H.G.) Longman

The term interjection is applied here to inserts which have an exclamatory function, expressive of the speaker's emotion. In what follows, we illustrate interjections in approximate order of frequency, while grouping together interjections of similar function. (The frequency distribution of interjections, as well as other inserts, is presented in Tables 14.9 and 14.10.) We also comment briefly on their meaning—that is, their pragmatic function. *Oh* is by far the most common interjection. Its routine use to introduce utterances or to respond to the utterances of others often gives it the character of a discourse marker. *Oh* also frequently combines with other inserts; some of the most common combinations are: *Oh yeah, Oh yes, Oh no, Oh aye* (regional BrE), *Oh well, Oh God, Oh I see, Oh right.* Although the use of *oh* is highly conventionalized, its core function appears to be to convey some degree of surprise, unexpectedness, or emotive arousal. Hence it is suitable for introducing

The grammatical problems involved in the study of interjections are to be considered on the usual two levels: that of phrases and that of the sentence.

On the phrase level the problem is whether an interjection can be part of any phrase, and if so, what types of words can be connected with it.

In the vast majority of cases an interjection does not make part of any phrase but stands (in this sense) isolated. However, that does not mean that it is impossible for an interjection to make part of a phrase.

For instance, the interjection *alas* can be connected with the group "preposition -f- noun", naming the person or thing which causes the feeling expressed by the interjection: *Alas for my friends!*

The interjection *oh* can be followed by the adjective *dear* to form a phrase which itself is the equivalent of an interjection: *Oh dear!*

However, on the whole the possibility of an interjection being part of a phrase is very limited indeed. As far as we can see, an interjection can only be the first component of a phrase and never occupies the second or any other place within it.

On the sentence level the function of interjections is a controversial matter. How, for example, are we to interpret the syntactical function of the interjection in a sentence like this: *Oh! she used awful grammar but I could see she was trying hard to be elegant, poor thing* (M. Mitchell)? The usual interpretation is that the interjection stands outside the structure of the sentence. * Another view is that it is syntactically a kind of parenthesis at least in some cases.[2] The controversy cannot be decided by objective investigation and the answer only depends on what we mean by sentence structure on the one hand, and by some element or other being outside the sentence structure, on the other.

We will start on the assumption that no element belonging to a sentence can be outside its structure, and we will treat the syntactical functions of interjections accordingly.[3]

An interjection, then, is, syntactically, a part of the sentence loosely connected with the rest of it, and approaching a parenthesis in its character.

However, an interjection can also stand quite apart and form a sentence by itself, as in the following passage: *"He refused to marry her the next day!" "Oh!" said Scarlett, her hopes dashed.* (M. Mitchell)

Phrases consisting of two or more words and equivalent to interjections, such as *Dear me! Goodness gracious! Well I never!* etc., will be discussed in the chapter on phrases.

After having considered in some detail the morphological and syntactical peculiarities of different types of words described as parts of speech, we will now turn to certain words which have not been included in our classification.

The possibility, and even probability of such words existing in a language has been convincingly shown by Academician L. Scerba in his paper on parts of speech in Russian, published in 1928. He pointed out that there may be words in a language which are not included under any category, and then, as he aptly put it, they would belong nowhere. It would indeed be no more than a prejudice to suppose

that every word of a language "must" belong to some part of speech. There is nothing in language structure to warrant that assumption.