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Qualification paper

The theme: "Grammatical categories and their formation in different periods of English language history"

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INTRODUCTION

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders – mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from Englaland and their language was called Englisc – from which the words England and English are derived. Germanic invaders entered Britain on the east and south coasts in the 5th century. The English language once had an extensive declension system similar to Latin, modern German and Icelandic. Old English distinguished between the nominative, accusative, dative, and genitive cas es, and for strongly declined adjectives and some pronouns also a separate instrumental case (which otherwise and later completely coincided with the dative). In addition, the dual number was distinguished from the singular and plural. Declension was greatly simplified during the Middle English period, when the accusative anddative cases of the pronouns merged into a single oblique case that also replaced the genitive case after prepositions. Nouns in Modern English no longer decline for case, except for the genitive.The general notions of grammar which determine the structure of language and find their expression in inflection and other devices are generally called grammatical categories. As is known, a grammatical category is generally represented by at least two grammatical forms, otherwise it cannot exist. A simple case of oppositions in pairs of grammatical forms will be found, for instance, between the Singular and the Plural in nouns, or between Active and Passive in verbs. A grammatical category is a unit of grammar based on a morphological opposition of grammatical meanings presented in grammatical forms.

The principle parts of speech in English (the noun, the verb, the adjective and the adverb) have each a number of grammatical forms of the same word opposed to

each other: different numbers and cases of nouns, different tenses, aspects, voices or moods of verbs, different degrees of comparison of adjectives and adverbs. It is on the basis of such oppositions that grammatical categories appear. The term category was introduced more than two thousand years ago by Aristotle. V.N. Yartsevagives the following definition: the grammatical category is a generalized abstract meaning systematically expressed in the language by the opposition of definite forms of the same word.

Note: The ancient theory of categories is somewhat overused and abused in modern grammar. Everything is labeled a category: parts of speech are lexico-grammatical categories; such features of parts of speech as number or tense are also categories and opposemes in these features, singular or the past tense are categories, too. To bring some order here we shall regard parts of speech (noun, verb, preposition, etc.) as word classes, such features as number or tense – as general grammatical categories and their subdivisions – singular, plural, past – as particular grammatical categories.

Examples of grammatical categories: *boy / boys, table / tables, lab / labs*, etc. (singular / plural). The plural forms express plurality or 'more-than-oneness' as opposed to oneness or indifference to quantity in the singular form. This difference in meaning regularly corresponds to the formal opposition of no ending (zero-ending) and the ending *-(e)s* /z/. This correspondence of form and meaning (content) constitutes the grammatical category 'the number of nouns'.

The **aim** of this research is a detailed study of grammatical categories and their formation in different periods of English language history. According to this general aim the following particular **tasks** are put forward:

1. To give definition to term «Grammatical Category».

2. Second task is to describe main features of Grammatical Categories in Old, Middle and Modern English.

3. To analyze the historical development of linguistic units.

4. To contemplate the essential features of teaching grammar.

The **structure** of the given qualification paper consists of an introduction, three chapters, a conclusion and a bibliography. Introduction tells us about the brief plot of the paper and structure of the work. The main part of the work includes three chapters in itself.

The **material** includes different literature like monographs, dissertations, articles on the problems discussed, magazines and journals containing articles on teaching technologies and the internet websites.

CHAPTER I

SURVEY OF THE LINGUISTIC LITERATURE ON THE PROBLEMS OF THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LINGUISTIC UNITS

§1.1 THE PROBLEMS OF INVESTIGATION THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

English is a Germanic Language of the Indo-European Family. It is the second most spoken language in the world. It is estimated that there are 300 million native speakers and 300 million who use English as a second language and a further 100 million use it as a foreign language. It is the language of science, aviation, computing, diplomacy, and tourism. It is listed as the official or co-official language of over 45 countries and is spoken extensively in other countries where it has no official status. This compares to 27 for French, 20 for Spanish and 17 for Arabic. This domination is unique in history. Speakers of languages like French, Spanish and Arabic may disagree, but English is on its way to becoming the world's unofficial international language. Mandarin[1] is spoken by more people, but English is now the most widespread of the world's languages. Half of all business deals are conducted in English. Two thirds of all scientific papers are written in English. Over 70% of all post / mail is written and addressed in English. Most international tourism, aviation and diplomacy is conducted in English. The history of the language can be traced back to the arrival of three Germanic tribes to the British Isles during the 5th Century AD. Angles, Saxons and Jutes crossed the North Sea from what is the present day Denmark and northern Germany. The inhabitants of Britain previously spoke a Celtic language. This was quickly displaced. Most of the Celtic speakers were pushed into Wales, Cornwall and Scotland. One group migrated to the Brittany Coast of France where their descendants still speak the Celtic Language of Breton today. The Angles were

[1] Chinese language

named from Engle, their land of origin. Their language was called Englisc from which the word, English derives. An Anglo-Saxon inscription dated between 450 and 480AD is the oldest sample of the English language. During the next few centuries four dialects of English developed:

Northumbrian in Northumbria, north of the Humber; Mercian in the Kingdom of Mercia; West Saxon in the Kingdom of Wessex; Kentish in Kent. During the 7th and 8thCenturies, Northumbria's culture and language dominated Britain. The Viking invasions of the 9th Century brought this dominatin to an end (along with the destruction of Mercia). Only Wessex remained as an inde pendent kingdom. By the 10th Century, the West Saxon dialect became the official language of Britain. Written Old English is mainly known from this period. It was written in an alphabet called Runic, derived from the Scandinavian languages. The Latin Alphabetwas brought over from Ireland by Christian missionaries. This has remained the writing system of English. At this time, the vocabulary of Old English consisted of an Anglo Saxon base with borrowed words from the Scandinavian languages (Danish and Norse) and Latin. Latin gave English words like street, kitchen, kettle, cup, cheese, wine, angel, bishop, martyr, candle. The Vikings added many Norse words: sky, egg, cake, skin, leg, window (wind eye), husband, fellow, skill, anger, flat, odd, ugly, get, give, take, raise, call, die, they, their, them. Celtic words also survived mainly in place and river names (Devon, Dover, Kent, Trent, Severn, Avon, Thames).

Many pairs of English and Norse words coexisted giving us two words with the same or slightly differing meanings.It's never easy to pinpoint exactly when a specific language began, but in the case of English we can at least say that there is little sense in speaking of the English language as a separate entity before the Anglo-Saxons came to Britain. Little is known of this period with any certainty, but we do know that Germanic invaders came and settled in Britain from the north-western coastline of continental Europe in the fifth and sixth centuries.

The invaders all spoke a language that was Germanic (related to what emerged as

Dutch, Frisian, German and the Scandinavian languages, and to Gothic), but we'll probably never know how different their speech was from that of their continental neighbours. However it is fairly certain that many of the settlers would have spoken in exactly the same way as some of their north European neighbours, and that not all of the settlers would have spoken in the same way. The reason that we know so little about the linguistic situation in this period is because we do not have much in the way of written records from any of the Germanic languages of north-western Europe until several centuries later. When Old English writings begin to appear in the seventh, eighth and ninth centuries there is a good deal of regional variation, but not substantially more than that found in later periods. This was the language that Alfred the Great referred to as `English' in the ninth century. The Celts were already resident in Britain when the Anglo-Saxons arrived, but there are few obvious traces of their language in English today. Some scholars have suggested that the Celtic tongue might have had an underlying influence on the grammatical development of English, particularly in some parts of the country, but this is highly speculative. The number of loanwords known for certain to have entered Old English from this source is very small. Those that survive in modern English include brock (badger), and coomb a type of valley, alongside many place names. The next invaders were the Norsemen. From the middle of the ninth century large numbers of Norse invaders settled in Britain, particularly in northern and eastern areas, and in the eleventh century the whole of England had a Danish king, Canute. The distinct North Germanic speech of the Norsemen had great influence on English, most obviously seen in the words that English has borrowed from this source. These include some very basic words such as take and even grammatical words such as they. The common Germanic base of the two languages meant that there were still many similarities between Old English and the language of the invaders. Some words, for example give perhaps show a kind of hybridization with some spellings going back to Old English and others being Norse in origin. However, the resemblances between the two languages are so great that in many cases it is impossible to be sure of the exact ancestry of a

particular word or spelling. However, much of the influence of Norse, including the vast majority of the loanwords, does not appear in written English until after the next great historical and cultural upheaval, the Norman Conquest. The centuries after the Norman Conquest witnessed enormous changes in the English language. In the course of what is called the Middle English period, the fairly rich inflectional system of Old English broke down. It was replaced by what is broadly speaking, the same system English has today, which unlike Old English makes very little use of distinctive word endings in the grammar of the language. The vocabulary of English also changed enormously, with tremendous numbers of borrowings from French and Latin, in addition to the Scandinavian loanwords already mentioned, which were slowly starting to appear in the written language. Old English, like German today, showed a tendency to find native equivalents for foreign words and phrases (although both Old English and modern German show plenty of loanwords), whereas Middle English acquired the habit that modern English retains today of readily accommodating foreign words. Trilingualism in English, French, and Latin was common in the worlds of business and the professions, with words crossing over from one language to another with ease. One only has to flick through the etymologies of any English dictionary to get an impression of the huge number of words entering English from French and Latin during the later medieval period. This trend was set to continue into the early modern period with the explosion of interest in the writings of the ancient world. The late medieval and early modern periods saw a fairly steady process of standardization in English south of the Scottish border. The written and spoken language of London continued to evolve and gradually began to have a greater influence in the country at large. For most of the Middle English period a dialect was simply what was spoken in a particular area, which would normally be more or less represented in writing - although where and from whom the writer had learnt how to write were also important. It was only when the broadly London standard began to dominate, especially through the new technology of printing, that the other regional varieties of the language began to be seen as different in

kind. As the London standard became used more widely, especially in more formal contexts and particularly amongst the more elevated members of society, the other regional varieties came to be stigmatized, as lacking social prestige and indicating a lack of education. In the same period a series of changes also occurred in English pronunciation (though not uniformly in all dialects), which go under the collective name of the Great Vowel Shift. These were purely linguistic `sound changes' which occur in every language in every period of history. The changes in pronunciation weren't the result of specific social or historical factors, but social and historical factors would have helped to spread the results of the changes. As a result the so-called `pure' vowel sounds which still characterise many continental languages were lost to English. The phonetic pairings of most long and short vowel sounds were also lost, which gave rise to many of the oddities of English pronunciation, and which now obscure the relationships between many English words and their foreign counterparts. During the medieval and early modern periods the influence of English spread throughout the British Isles, and from the early seventeenth century onwards its influence began to be felt throughout the world. The complex processes of exploration, colonization and overseas trade that characterized Britain's external relations for several centuries became agents for change in the English language. This wasn't simply through the acquisition of loanwords deriving from languages from every corner of the world, which in many cases only entered English via the languages of other trading and imperial nations such as Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands, but through the gradual development of new varieties of English, each with their own nuances of vocabulary and grammar and their own distinct pronunciations. More recently still, English has become a lingua franca, a global language, regularly used and understood by many nations for whom English is not their first language. The eventual effects on the English language of both of these developments can only be guessed at today, but there can be little doubt that they will be as important as anything that has happened to English in the past sixteen hundred years.

§1.2 ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

Old English was a variant of West Germanic language and was spoken by Germanic peoples — Angles, Saxons, and Jutes who lived in present-day southern Denmark and northern Germany. They invaded Britain in the 5th century AD. The Jutes were the first to arrive, in 449. They all settled in Britain.The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words be, strong and water, for example, derive from Old English. From the point of view of the political and social characteristics the OE period was the period of the tribal system. That is the people lived in large clans headed by the leaders. It was the period when they only began to learn to cultivate land. From the point of view of the linguistic characteristics of the period there was no uniform language. When we speak of the OE language we mean the community of related tongues spoken by the OE tribes. If we consider the language system of the OE period we find that the language of that time was typically synthetic: like all old languages. Each notional part of speech had a great number of grammatical markers (affixes): thus, the noun had nine declensions; the verb had several conjugations. Word order in the sentence was much more free than it is now. Old English was an inflected language having strong and weak verbs. It had two different declensions of adjectives, four declensions of nouns, and grammatical distinctions of gender. These inflections meant that word order was much freer than in the language today. There were two tenses in Old English: present-future and past.Old English was rich in word-building possibilities but it was poor in vocabulary. Scholars believe that ten common nouns in Old English are of Celtic origin; among these are bannock, cart, down, and mattock. The

number of Latin words introduced during the Old English period has been estimated as 140. Many of them were derived from the Greek. Typical of these words are altar, mass, priest, psalm, temple, kitchen, palm, and pear. A few were probably introduced through the Celtic; others were brought to Britain by the Germanic invaders, who previously had come into contact with Roman culture. By far the largest number of Latin words was introduced as a result of the spread of Christianity. Such words included not only church terms but also many others of less significance.Norsemen or Vikings, who invaded Britain periodically from the late 8th century on, introduced about 40 Scandinavian (Old Norse) words into Old English. First were Introduced words pertaining to the sea and battle.

There were 5 nominal grammatical categories in Old English: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison and the category of definiteness/indefiniteness.

The Noun

The OE noun had two grammatical categories: number and case. Also, nouns distinguished three genders, but gender was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting for the division of nouns into morphological classes. The category of number consisted of two members: singular and plural. It's interesting to know that sometimes male beings need not necessarily be denoted by nouns of the masculine gender. The same applies to nouns denoting female beings.Old English word wĪf is Neuter and wĪfman is Masculine.Sometimes a word could be in two genders. Very often however Old English gender corresponds to natural sex division. In late Old English the gender of nouns tended to adjust in most cases: for example, wĪfman began to be treaded as Feminine instead of Masculine.The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative.*The Nominative* can be defined as the case of the active agent, for it was the case of the subject mainly used with verbs denoting activity; the Nominative could also indicate the subject characterized by a certain quality or state; could serve as a predicative and as the case of address. The Nominative case is the case of an active agent.*The Genitive* case was primarily the case of nouns

and pronouns serving as attributes to other nouns. The meanings of the Genitive case were very complex and can only be grouped under the headings “Subjective” and “Objective” Genitive Subjective Genitive is associated with the possessive meaning and the meaning of origin. Objective Genitive is associated with what is termed “partitive meaning” as in*sumhundscipa* ‘a hundred of ships’. Nouns in the Genitive case served as attributes to other nouns.*Dative* was the chief case used with prepositions, e.g. on *morȝenne* ‘in the morning’. Dative could convey an instrumental meaning, indicated the means and manner of the action.*The Accusative* case was the form that indicated a relationship to a verb. Being the direct object it denoted the recipient of an action, the result of the action and other meanings. The Accusative case was used with nouns as direct object denoting the recipient of an action.The category of number consisted of 2 members: singular and plural, which were well distinguished in all declensions with very few homonymous forms.Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables. In the first place, the morphological classification of OE nouns rested upon the most ancient IE grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes. Stem-suffixes could consist of vowels (vocalic stems, e.g. *a*-stems, *i*- stems), of consonants (consonantal stems, e.g. *n*-stems), of sound sequences, e.g. *-ja*-stems, *-nd*-stems. Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a “zero-suffix”; they are usually termed “root-stems” and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, e.g. OE *man, bōc* (NE man, book). Another reason which accounts for the division of nouns into numerous declensions is their grouping according to gender. OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masc., Fem. and Neut. Sometimes a derivational suffix referred a noun to a certain gender and placed it into a certain semantic group, e.g. abstract nouns built with the help of the suffix *–þu* were Fem. – OE *lenȝþu* (NE *length*), nominaagentis with the suffix *–ere* were Masc. – OE *fiscere* (NE fisher ‘learned man’). The division into genders was in a certain way connected with the division into stems, though there was no direct

correspondence between them: some stems were represented by nouns of one particular gender, e.g. *ō*-stems were always Fem., others embraced nouns of two or three genders. Other reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic: monosyllabic nouns had certain peculiarities as compared to polysyllabic; monosyllables with a long root-syllable differed in some forms from nouns with a short syllable. The majority of OE nouns belonged to the *a-stems, ō*-stems and *n*-stems.

The Pronoun

OE pronouns fell under the same main classes as modern pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for the other groups – relative, possessive and reflexive – they were as yet not fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes.

*Personal pronouns.*In OE, while nouns consistently distinguished between four cases, personal pronouns began to lose some of their case distinctions: the forms of the Dative case of the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. were frequently used instead of the Accusative. It is important to note that the Genetive case of personal pronouns had two main applications: like other oblique cases of noun-pronouns it could be an object, but far more frequently it was used as an attribute or a noun determiner, like a possessive pronoun, e.g. *sunumīn*.

*Demonstrative pronouns.*There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of NE *that*, which distinguished three genders in the sg. And had one form for all the genders in the plural and the prototype of *this*. They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system: Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., and Instr. Demonstrative pronouns were frequently used as noun determiners and through agreement with the noun indicated its number, gender and case.

Interrogative pronouns – hwā, Masc. and Fem., and *hwæt*, Neut., - had a four-case paradigm (NE *who*, *what*). The Instr. case of*hwæt* was used as a separate

interrogative word *hwў* (NE *why*). Some interrogative pronouns were used as adjective pronouns, e.g.*hwelc*.

Indefinite pronouns were a numerous class embracing several simple pronouns and a large number of compounds: *ān* and its derivative *ǽniȝ* (NE *one*, *any*); *nān*, made up of *ān* and the negative particle *ne* (NE *none*); *nānþinȝ*, made up of the preceding and the noun *þinȝ* (NE *nothing*).

The Adjective

The adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Those were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun it modified or with the subject of the sentence – if the adjective was a predicative. Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instr. It was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dative case expressing an instrumental meaning.Most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The formal differences between declensions, as well as their origin, were similar to those of the noun declensions. The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in PG: vocalic *a*-, *ō*-, *ū*- and *i*- and consonantal *n*-. Accordingly, there developed sets of endings of the strong declension mainly coinciding with the endings of *a*-stems of nouns for adjectives in the Masc. and Neut. and of *ō*-stems – in the Fem., with some differences between long- and short-stemmed adjectives and some remnants of other stems. Some endings in the strong declension of adjectives have no parallels in the noun paradigms; they are similar to the endings of pronouns: -*um* for Dat. sg., -*ne* for Acc. sg Masc., [r] in some Fem. and pl endings. The difference between the strong and weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain type of declension. Most adjectives could be declined in both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of

the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners. The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Genetive case of personal pronouns. Some adjectives, however, did not conform with these rules: a few adjectives were always declined strong, e.g. *eall, maniз, ōþer* (NE *all, many, other*), while several others were always weak: adjectives in the superlative and comparative degrees, ordinal numerals, the adjective *ilca* 'same'. Most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive were the suffixes *–ra* and *–est/-ost*. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel.

The Finite Verb

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: sg and pl. The category of Person was made up of three forms: the 1st, the 2nd and the 3rd. The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorical forms, Present and Past. The use of Subj. forms conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. In addition to its use in conditional sentences and other volitional, conjectural and hypothetical contexts Subj. was common in other types of construction: in clauses of time, clauses of result and in clauses presenting reported speech. The meanings of the tense forms were also very general, as compared with later ages and with present-day English. The forms of the Present tense were used to indicate present and future actions. The Past tense was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past. In addition to Mood and Tense we must mention Aspect and Voice. Until recently it was believed that in OE the category of aspect was expressed by the regular contrast of verbs with and without

the prefix *ȝe-*; verbs with the prefix had a perfective meaning while the same verbs without the prefix indicated a non-completed action, e.g. *feohtan – ȝefeohtan* 'fight' – 'gain by fighting'. In some recent explorations, however, it has been shown that the prefix *ȝe-* in OE can hardly be regarded as a marker of aspect, it could change the aspective meaning of the verb by making it perfective, but it could also change its lexical meaning, e.g. *beran – ȝeberan* 'carry' – 'bear a child'. It follows that the prefix *ȝe-* should rather be regarded as an element of word-building, a derivational prefix of vague general meaning, though its ties with certain shades of aspective meaning are obvious. It is important to note that in OE texts there were also other means of expressing aspective meanings: the Past or Present Participle. The phrases with Participle I were used to describe a prolonged state or action, the phrases with Participle II indicated a state resulting from a previous, completed action. The category of voice in OE is another debatable issue. The passive meaning was frequently indicated with the help of Participle II of transitive verbs used as predicatives with the verbs *beōn* 'be' and *weorðan* 'becom e'.

Verbals

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. The Infinitive had no verbal grammatical categories. Being a verbal noun by origin, it had a sort of reduced case-system: two forms which roughly corresponded to the Nominative and the Dative cases of nouns –

beran – uninflected Infinitive ("Nom." case)

tōberenne or *tōberanne* – inflected Infinitive ("Dat." case)

Like the Dative case of nouns the inflected Infinitive with the preposition *tō* could be used to indicate the direction or purpose of an action. The uninflected Infinitive was used in verb phrases with modal verbs or other verbs of incomplete predication. The Participle was a kind of verbal adjective which was characterized not only by nominal but also by certain verbal features. Participle I (Present

Participle) was opposed to Participle II (Past Participle) through voice and tense distinctions: it was active and expressed present or simultaneous processes and qualities, while Participle II expressed states and qualities resulting from past action and was contrasted to Participle I as passive to active, if the verb was transitive. Participle II of intransitive verbs had an active meaning; it indicated a past action and was opposed to Participle I only through tense. Participles were employed predicatively and attributively like adjectives and shared their grammatical categories: they were declined as weak and strong and agreed with nouns in number, gender and case.

§1.3 ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

The Scandinavian Conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. Scandinavian inroads into England had began as early as the 8th century. The Anglo-Saxons offered the invaders a stubborn resistance, which is seen in the narrations of Chronicle. In the late 9th century the Scandinavian had occupied the whole of English territory north of Thames. In 878 king Alfred made peace with the invaders. The territory occupied by the Scandinavian was to remain in their power. The northern and eastern parts of England were most thickly settled by Scandinavians. In the late 10th century war in England was resumed, and in 1013 the whole country fell to the invaders. England became part of a vast Scandinavian empire in Northern Europe. The Scandinavian conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English language. The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders belonged to the North Germanic languages and their phonetic and grammatical structure was similar to that of OE. They had the same morphological categories, strong and weak declension of substantives, of adjectives, of verbs. Close relationship between English and Scandinavian dialects made mutual understanding without translation quite possible.The Norman conquest of England began in 1066. It proved to be the turning-point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe. In 9th century they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine estuary. Mixing with the local population and adopting the French language and in the mid-11 century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French feudal culture and of the French language. In 1066 king Edward the Confessor died. William, Duke of Normandy, who had long claimed the English throne, assembled an army with the help of Norman barons, landed in England, and rooted the English troops. William confiscated the estates

of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and distributed them among the Norman barons. All posts in the church, from abbots upwards, were giving to persons of French culture. Frenchmen arrived in England in great numbers. During the reign of William the Conqueror about 200 000 Frenchmen settled in England. During several centuries the ruling language in England was French. It was the language of the court, the Government, the courts of laws, the English language was reduced to a lower social sphere. The relation between French and English was different from that between Scandinavian and English: French was the language of the ruling class. Under the circumstances, with two languages spoken in the country, they were bound to struggle with each other, and also influenced each other. This process lasted for three centuries the 12^{th} – 14^{th}. Its results were twofold: the struggle for supremacy between French and English ended in favour of English, but its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words. As to the ME period socially and politically it began as the period of the decay of the tribal system and the formation of feudalism. On the one hand it was progressive for the country but on the other hand it resulted in isolation of different parts of the country which in its turn resulted in the formation of the local dialects. From the point of view of the development of the language the ME period is characterized as a period of transition from the synthetic structure to the analytical structure which the Modern English language has now. There are two most important processes which effected the language and which are responsible for its change; they are:

- the phonetic process of reduction – unstressed vowels came to be reduced; it was one of the main reasons for dropping of endings;

- the grammatical process of leveling on analogy – the use of different forms according to the same productivity models.

In the early period of Middle English, a number of utilitarian words came into the language from Old Norse, such as egg, sky, sister, window, and get. The Normans brought other additions to the vocabulary. Before 1250 about 900 new words had

appeared in English, mainly words, such as baron, noble, and feast, that the Anglo-Saxon lower classes required in their dealings with the Norman-French nobility. Finally, the Norman nobility and clergy introduced the French words pertaining to the government, the church, the army, and the fashions of the court, arts, scholarship, and medicine. Norman scribes write Old English y as u and u as ou. Cw was changed to qu, hw to wh, and ht to ght.

The historical changes in the grammatical structure of the English language from the OE period to the present time are no less striking than the changes in the sounds. Since the OE period the grammatical type of the language has changed: from what could be termed a largely synthetic or inflected language into a language of the analytical type, with analytical means of word connection prevailing over the synthetic ones. The syntax of the word group and of the sentence came to play a more important role in the language than the morphology of the word.The devision of the words into parts of speech, being a most general characteristic of the language, has in the main remained the same. The only new part of speech was the article, which split from the numerals and the pronouns in Early ME.

The *nominal and the verbal systems* developed in widely different ways. The morphology of the noun, the adjective and the pronoun has on the whole become simpler: many grammatical categories were lost (e.g. gender in adjectives and nouns, case in adjectives); the number of forms within the surviving grammatical categories diminished (e.g. the number of cases); the morphological division into stems or types of declension disappeared.

The **nouns** in OE had the grammatical categories of gender, number and case, and were grouped into an elaborate system of declensions based on an earlier division into stems and correlated with gender. In the Early ME period the noun lost the grammatical category of *gender*. The OE *Gender*, being a classifying feature, disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension

system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems. In the 11th and 12th c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support – the weakened and leveled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females. The two other categories of the noun, *case* and *number*, were preserved in a modified shape. The grammatical category of *Case* was preserved but underwent profound changes.The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four to two in Late ME. Even in OE the forms of the Nom. and Acc. were not distinguished in the pl, and in some classes they coincided in the sg. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers. In the strong declension the Dat. was sometimes marked by *-e* in the Southern dialects; the form without the ending soon prevailed in all areas, and three OE cases, Nom., Acc. and Dat. fell together. Henceforth they are called the Common case in present-day English. The Gen. case was kept separate from the other forms, with more explicit formal distinctions in the singular than in the plural. In the 14th c. the ending *-es* of the Gen. sg had become almost universal, there being only several exceptions – nouns which were preferably used in the uninflected form (some proper names, names of relationship). In the pl the Gen. case had no special marker – it was not distinguished from the Comm. case pl or from the Gen. sg. Several nouns with a weak plural form in *-en* or with a vowel interchange, such as *oxen* or *men*, added the marker of the Gen. case *-es* to these forms: *oxenes, mennes*. In the 17th and 18th c. a new graphic marker of the Gen. case came into use: the apostrophe.

The other grammatical category of the noun, *Number* proved to be the most stable of the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. In Late ME the ending –es was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl. It underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables:

1) after a voiced consonant or a vowel, e.g. ME *stones* [ˊsto:nəs] > [ˊstounəz] > [ˊstounz], NE *stones*;

2) after a voiceless consonant, e.g. ME *bookes* [ˊbo:kəs] > [bu:ks] > [buks], NE *books*;

3) after sibilants and affricates [s, z, ʃ, tʃ, dʒ] ME *dishes* [ˊdiʃəs] > [ˊdiʃiz], NE *dishes*.

The ME pl ending –en, used as a variant marker with some nouns lost its former productivity, so that in Standard Mod E it is found only in *oxen*, *brethren*, and *children*. The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number has been further reduced to three exceptions in Mod E: *deer*, *sheep*, and *swine*. The group of former root-stems has survived also only as exceptions: *man*,*tooth* and the like.

In the OE period *personal pronouns* had three genders (in the 3-rd person), four cases like nouns, but unlike nouns, had three numbers in the 1-st and 2-nd persons.There developed one more class of pronouns, *reflexive*. (myself, themselves)The other classes of pronouns, Interrogative, relative, indefinite and *demonstrative pronouns*, displayed great changes too.

The other direction in the development of the OE *demonstrative pronounse*, *seo*, pet “that” led to the formation of the definite article *the* pronounced as [Oэ] in ME).

Of all the parts of speech the adjective has undergone the most profound grammatical changes. In the course of time it has lost all its grammatical categories except the degrees of comparison.In OE the adjective was declined to show the gender, number and case of the noun it modified: it had a five-case system and two types of declension, weak and strong, often serving, together with the preceding pronoun or alone, to present a thing as “definite” or “indefinite”.The agreement of the adjective with the noun became looser and in the course of the 12th century it was almost lost.The degrees of comparison are the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all the historical periods. In OE the comparative

and the superlative degree, like all the grammatical forms, were synthetic: they were built by adding the suffixes – ra and est/ost to the form of the positive degree. In ME the suffex had been weakened to –erans –estand the alternation of the root-vowel became far less frequent than before.The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison.

As to the *verbal system*, its grammatical evolution was less uniform and cannot be described in terms of one general trend: alongside many simplifying changes in the verb conjugation, such as the loss of some person and number distinctions or the loss of the declension of participles, many developments testify to the enrichment of the morphological system and the growth of new grammatical distinctions. The number of grammatical categories grew, as did the number of categorial forms within the existing categories (e.g. a new category of aspect, or the future tense forms within the category of tense). The changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle developed verbal features; the gerund, which arose in the Late ME period as a new type of verbal, has also developed verbal distinctions: passive and perfect forms.

CHAPTER II

ANALYSIS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN LATER PERIODS OF THEIR HISTORY

§2.1 CHANGES IN THE SPHERE OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN EARLY NEW ENGLISH

Early Modern English period (1500-1650) of the development of the English nation as a nation from the political point of view and the period of the formation of the uniform literary language and the establishing of the literary norm. Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. As the process of the standardization (unification) of the English language was taking place, there were numerous discussions among scholars, writers about the ways of the further English language development. There were three main groups of opinions:

1. The language can borrow as many words from other languages as possible

because it will enrich the language;

2. English should remain a monosyllabic language and not borrow words from other languages;

3. The language should develop by itself.

The process of the English language standardization was achieved not by itself but due to the activity of many people. As to the spelling, they were trying to work out certain general fixed rules of spelling, but at the beginning of the Modern English

period the spelling still varied from writer to writer. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common (uniform) language in print. The first printer was William Caxton. He founded the first printing house. Caxton printed his first book in 1476 in the London dialect which strengthened it. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary "Table Alphabeticall" was published.

Nouns and adjectives

As in modern English, the only regular noun inflection was the -s ending of the genitive and plural: irregular plurals were mostly the same as those that have survived into recent English. The use of an apostrophe in the genitive singular was optional in the sixteenth century; it was frequent in the seventeenth, but only became established around 1700. In the genitive plural the apostrophe was not used in this period.An alternative form of the genitive singular throughout the period was the so-called 'possessive dative'. This was most commonly used after nouns ending in -s referring to masculines, perhaps because it was practically identical in sound with the regular genitive ending in -(e)s. A parallel use with *her*, e.g. 'The Excellency of our Church *her* burial office', and with *their*, also occurred.In Middle English the group genitive (i.e. the genitive of a complex noun phrase like the king of England) was a split construction, e.g. '*the kingeswyf of England*': this construction was still found in early modern English but was replaced by the familiar constructions seen in '*the wife of the king of England*' or '*the king of England's wife*'.

Adjective gradation. All three alternatives *easier*, *more easy*, and *more easier*, were acceptable in this period. In standard English, the rule by which *-er* and *-est* are preferred in monosyllabic words and*more* and *most* are used in polysyllabic ones, with variation in disyllabic words, was established by the late seventeenth

century. In regional dialects -er continued to be preferred in all words, however long. The double comparative was generally used for emphasis (and was praised by the dramatist Ben Jonson).

Pronouns and determiners

Personal pronouns. In the second person, by 1600 *ye* was a rare alternative to *you*; no case distinction remained[2]. The use of*you* as a 'polite' form of address to a single person progressively encroached on *thou* (originally the singular pronoun) until by 1600 *thou* (and its objective case *thee*) was restricted to 'affective' (both positive and negative) uses (i.e. so as to be intimate or disparaging). By the late seventeenth century*you* had become normal in almost all contexts and *thou* and *thee* were limited to the Bible and religious use, the Quakers, and regional dialects.In the third person, the possessive of *it* was *his* until around 1600. Various alternatives arose, including *it* and *thereof* ; *its* first appeared in print in the 1590s and was rapidly accepted into the standard language.

Reflexive pronouns. The earlier use of the simple objective pronouns *me*, *thee*, *us*, and so on, became restricted largely to poetic use during the period, as in this example from Milton's *Paradise Lost*: 'Take to *thee* from among the Cherubim *Thy* choice of flaming Warriours'. Forms in -*self* (which early had been restricted to emphatic use) now became the usual ones; plurals—with -*selves*(replacing -*self*) after plural pronouns—made their appearance in the early sixteenth century.

Relative pronouns. The relative pronoun *that* remained common (as it still is), but a number of alternatives existed during the period. *the which* was inherited from Middle English but became rare by the mid-seventeenth century. *which* could be used for both persons and things but became rare for persons after 1611. *who* as a relative pronoun was rare in the fifteenth century and gradually became commoner

[2] in earlier English, *ye* was the subjective case and *you* the objective

in the period. The use of the so-called ‘zero relative’ (i.e. no pronoun at all) arose in Middle English but was rare in the sixteenth century. In the early modern period it could be used where the relative was the subject of its clause as well as object (now largely non-standard or poetic), e.g. ‘Life it self..is a burden [*zero relative*] cannot be born under the lasting..pressure of such an uneasiness’.

The co-occurrence rules for determiners were somewhat different from those in later modern English. Notably common was the sequence of demonstrative + possessive + noun (‘this your son’).

Verbs

The present tense. The second person singular inflection -*est* naturally declined in importance as the use of *thou* declined, giving rise to the current arrangement whereby in the present tense only the third singular is marked and all other persons take the base form.

At the start of the period, the normal third person singular ending in standard southern English was -*eth*. The form -(*e*)s, originally from Northern dialect, replaced -*eth* in most kinds of use during the seventeenth century. A few common short forms, chiefly *doth*, *hath*, continued often to be written, but it seems likely that these were merely graphic conventions.

Forming the past tense and past participle. The class of ‘strong’ verbs (those which indicate tense by a vowel change and do not have a dental segment added) included a number of verbs which are now only ‘weak’

Examples include: creep: crope, cropen; delve: dolve, dolven; help: holp, holpen; melt: molt, molten; seethe: sod, sodden.

A few ‘weak’ verbs moved into the strong class during the period, including *dig*, *spit*, and *stick*.

The formation of the past tense and past participle of strong verbs showed more variation in early modern English than today. There were a number of changes

which began in Middle English and whose results have now been fossilized in present English but which produced a variety of forms in this period.

These were:

1. patterning the past tense on the past participle (as in tore after torn);

2. adapting the past tense or past participle to verbs with a different pattern (as in slung after sung, etc.);

3. patterning the past participle on the past tense (as in sat)

4. dropping the –en suffix of the past participle (as in sung as opposed to ridden).

For example, *write* had the regular past tense *wrote*, but also found were *writ* (with the vowel of the past participle) and *wrate* (patterned on *gave* or *brake*); the participle was *written* or *writ* (with loss of -*en*) and *wrote* (based on the past tense) was also found. Verbs like *bear*, *break*, *speak*, etc., regularly formed their past tenses with a (*bare*, *brake*, *spake*) and this pattern was even extended to other verbs (*wrate*, *drave*). Owing to the Great Vowel Shift these past forms lost their distinctiveness from the present stem (since in a widespread variety of pronunciation, the long a of the past became identical with the long open *e* of the present) and after 1600 forms with *o* from the past participle (*bore*, *broke*, *spoke*) became normal.

Regular 'weak' verbs in Middle English formed their past tense and past participles in -*ed*, pronounced as a separate syllable, as it still is in a few fossilized forms such as *belovèd*, *blessèd*. During the sixteenth century the vowel was lost in this ending except where the preceding consonant was *t* or *d* (e.g. in *hated*) and the *d* of the ending was devoiced to [*t*] after a voiceless consonant (e.g. in *locked* as opposed to *logged*). Present English spelling does not regularly show these three variants [*id*], [*d*], [*t*] but in early modern English 'phonetic' spellings ('*d*, *d*, '*t*, *t*) are quite often found. (This can lead to the obscuration of other distinctions; for example, it is sometimes unclear whether*rap't* represents *rapped* or *raped*.)

There was an inherited class of verbs which end in a dental and do not add a dental ending to show the past (e.g. *cast*, *set*). This class was temporarily enlarged by the borrowing of Latin participles ending in *–t* used initially as participles and past tenses, e.g. 'Mosteplaynly those thyngessem to be euydent, whiche of offyce and good maner be gyue and *precept* of them'[3], 'That the pain should be *mitigate*'. These were subsequently used in other forms of the verb and developed regular past forms in *-ed*.

[3] Robert Whittinton, 1534

§2.2 GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF VERBS AND NOUNS IN MODERN ENGLISH

The Verb

As the majority of new grammatical categories were already formed in Middle English, in Early New English they become more specialized in meaning, though it was not until the period when prescriptive grammars set the rules of their use there is much variation as far as their forms and peculiarities of use are concerned.Formally, the state of things in the grammar of Early New English was as follows.The he loss of endings greatly simplified the verbal paradigm. There were no longer endings marking the 1st person singular, plural present indicative, tin infinitival suffix -an —> en —> e was also lost. Personal ending of the third person singular in the present tense *–th* is replaced by *-s*; *hath —> has*; *thinketh> thinks*. However, the old ending may still be found in Shakespeare's works, and there is practically no difference between two forms (probably to some extent the old form makes the speech more elevated and official)**.** It is to be noted that the verbs do and have are the most persistent in keeping this old ending, at least they are used with it more frequently than the others, especially in the function of an auxiliary.The use of the second person singular ending is limited in so much as the pronoun falls out of use. Still, if the pronoun is used, the predicate verb agrees with it. Notably, in Old and Middle English this ending in the past tense was found only with the weak verbs, now strong verbs also take it.The traditional classification of strong and weak verbs gives way to division into regular and irregular, with a pronounced tendency within the classes of the strong verbs to turn into weak ones, regular or irregular, but nevertheless forming their past tense and Participle II by a dental suffix -d or -t. Somewhat apart are treated modal verbs, formerly preterite-present, that are stripped of their paradigmatic forms and are later referred to as defective.

The number of basic forms of the former strong is reduced to three: that of the infinitive, past tense and Participle II. Class VI and VII in older times had this pattern already from the times of Old English - in other classes past singular and past plural had different root vowels. This change lacked regularity - some of the verbs preserved the first, the second and the fourth forms with the participle suffix *-en (write - wrote - written),* some lost the suffix *(ride - rode - rid),* the past form and the participle of still other were identical and the second or the third form was used as the basis *(bind -bound - bound).* We may find instances when Participle II has no suffix, whereas adjectivized participle has it *(drink - drank - drunk,* but *drunken),* or when a verb and its derivative differ in the formation of Participle II *(get -got - got,* but *forget - forgot - forgotten,* the American variant preserves the suffix with both). In early New English there is still much uncertainty in many verbs.

The non-finite forms of the verb - the infinitive, the participle and the gerund developed the set of forms and can hardly be called now the nominal parts of speech. Passive and perfect infinitives, passive and perfect gerund, W lent participle in the passive voice and perfect participle in the active and the passive voice fully represent new verbal grammatical categories.

The gerund that originated and was occasionally used in Middle English becomes quite common, the use of this form does not differ from the present-day practice.

The categories of the Early New English remain basically the same: tense, voice, time correlation (perfect), mood.The categories of number and person are less distinct and expressed in the personal ending of the 3rd person singular in the present tense active voice and in the passive voice, as the vei I to be retains its 1st person singular and two number forms in the past.

All forms of the perfect tenses are abundantly used in Early New English. Occasionally the perfect tenses of the intransitive verbs are formed with the auxiliary to be but the forms with the auxiliary have are also found.

The moods of the Early New English period are the same as they were in the Middle English - the Indicative, the Imperative and Subjunctive. The newly arisen analytical forms of the Subjunctive (now in some grammars they are called the Conditional, the Suppositional and Subjunctive II Past) have not yet the present-day differentiation as to the rules of the structural limitation of their use. We may find any combination of the moods in the sentences of unreal condition. There is another difference in the use of the former Present tense of the Subjunctive Mood (which now is commonly called Subjunctive I). It is widely used in the texts, in sentences expressing wishes. Subjunctive I is also widespread in other types of clauses, where in present-day English we have Suppositional Mood (should + Infinitive) and in American variant the older archaic form is preserved: Notably, the sentences of what we call now those of real condition prevalently have Subjunctive I in the subordinate clause.

Verbs convey a lot about the actions they describe. Grammatical concepts such as person, number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice are all ways of categorizing this information.While many languages convey this through distinct verb forms, English often does not. Native English speakers need to add these concepts to their vocabulary if they want to understand and discuss complex grammatical points.

Person: Who or What is the Subject of the Verb?

Person refers to the relationship between the subject of the verb and whomever is speaking. There are three types of grammatical person:

1. First Person: The person(s) who is the subject of the verb is the same one who is speaking ("I know," "We understand").
2. Second Person: The person speaking is referring to another person(s), assumed to be present, who is the subject of the verb ("You are right," "Thou art a fool").
3. Third Person: The subject of the verb is not directly related to the speaker; the subject is not assumed to be present as "part of the conversation" ("He says," "She feels," "It goes," "They run").

Number: How Many Persons are the Subject?

Grammatical number refers to how many persons are the subject of a verb. In English, this is represented by either singular ("He sees") or plural ("They see") verb forms. Some languages have other rare number forms. Verbs in Ancient Greek, for example, have a dual form which only applies when there are two persons that are the subject.

Tense: When is the Verb's Action Occurring?

Tense is the time in which a verb takes place. Languages distinguish between past, present, and future, but subdivide these three major categories in different ways. Tense can also be used to subordinate actions in a sentence. For instance, the pluperfect tense is used for actions completed before a primary verb when the primary verb is itself a completed past (or perfect) tense: "After I had gone (pluperfect) to the store, I went (perfect) home."

While such constructions are more precise, it has become common in English not to subordinate: "After I went (perfect) to the store, I went (perfect) home."

Aspect: Is the Verbal Action Complete or Ongoing?

Aspect refers to the duration of a verb's action. It is usually simple (a completed action) or progressive (continuing action). Aspect is related to tense, and many languages distinguish tenses by their aspect. For instance, the perfect tense is a simple past tense (I went), whereas the imperfect is a progressive past tense (I was going). As with tense, English tolerates less precision regarding aspect than other languages.

Mood: What is the Verb's Expression of Fact?

Grammatical mood refers to the type of expression a verb is making. It comes in three main categories in English, though others exist (especially in other languages).

1. Indicative: verbs in the indicative mood express matters of fact ("You are going away now," "I was well"). Thisisthemostcommongrammaticalmood.
2. Subjunctive: this mood can express an indirect command, wish, or contrary-to-fact situation ("You may go away now," "If I were well ..."). English has many ways of expressing the subjunctive, although it is often done imprecisely. Auxiliary verbs such as may, might, should, could, and ought are often part of subjunctive verb forms.
3. Imperative: this mood expresses a direct command ("Go away now, you!" "Be well!"). It is by definition addressed to a second person.

Voice: Is the Subject Performing the Verbal Action?

Voice describes the relationship between the action or state described by a verb and the verb's subject. When the action is being performed by the subject, the verb is in the active voice. When something else is performing the action upon the subject of the verb, it is in the passive voice. For instance, in the sentence "I drive the car," the verb to drive is in the active voice. In the sentence "The car is driven by me," the verb to drive is in the passive voice.

Like most languages, English has an active and a passive voice. Some other languages, such as Ancient Greek and Old Icelandic, also have a middle voice, in which the subject both performs the action, and has the action performed upon it. An echo of this occurs in Latin, which has deponent verbs that are passive in form but active in meaning. Without an understanding of verbal forms that indicate person, number, tense, aspect, mood, and voice, it is very difficult to explain how verbs work or to discuss grammatical problems. Such an understanding is important for native speakers of English, since it expresses verbal forms through context more often than through morphology or the use of auxiliary verbs.

The Noun

The word «noun» comes from the Latin nomen meaning «name». Word classes like nouns were first described by Sanskrit grammarian Panini and ancient Greeks

like Dionysius Thorax, and defined in terms of their morphological properties. For example, in Ancient Greece, nouns can be inflected for grammatical case, such as dative or accusative. Verbs, on the other hand, can be inflected for tenses, such as past, present or future, while nouns cannot.

In traditional school grammars, one often encounters the definition of nouns that they are all and only those expressions that refer to a person, place, thing, event, substance, quality, or idea, etc. This is a semantic definition. It has been criticized by contemporary linguists as being quite uninformative. Part of the problem is that the definition makes use of relatively general nouns («thing», «phenomenon», «event») to define what nouns are. The existence of such general nouns shows us that nouns are organized in taxonomic hierarchies. But other kinds of expressions are also organized in hierarchies. For example all of the verbs «stroll», «saunter,» «stride,» and «tread» are more specific words than the more general «walk.» The latter is more specific than the verb «move»/ But it is unlikely that such hierarchies can be used to define nouns and verbs. Furthermore, an influential theory has it that verbs like «kill» or «die» refer to events, and so they fall under the definition. Similarly, adjectives like «yellow» or «difficult» might be thought to refer to qualities, and adverbs like «outside» or «upstairs» seem to refer to places. Worse still, a trip into the woods can be referred to by the verbs «stroll» or «walk»/ But verbs, adjectives and adverbs are not nouns, and nouns aren't verbs. So the definition is not particularly helpful in distinguishing nouns from other parts of speech.

Another semantic definition of nouns is that they are prototypically referential. That definition is also not very helpful in distinguishing actual nouns from verbs. But it may still correctly identify a core property of nounhood. For example, we will tend to use nouns like «fool» and «car» when we wish to refer to fools and cars, respectively. The notion that this is prototypical reflects the fact that such nouns can be used, even though nothing with the corresponding property is referred to:

John is no fool.

If I had a car, I'd go to Marrakech.

The first sentence above doesn't refer to any fools, nor does the second one refer to any particular car.

In most cases in treating English nouns we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians. The noun is classified into a separate word – group because:

1. they all have the same lexical – grammatical meaning:

substance / thing

2. according to their form – they've two grammatical categories:

number and case

3. they all have typical stem-building elements:

– er, – ist, – ship, – ment, – hood….

4. typical combinability with other words:

most often left-hand combinability.

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

From the grammatical point of view most important is the division of nouns into countable and un-countable with regard to the category of number and into declinable and indeclinable with regard to the category of case.
*SemanticalCharacteristics.*Nouns fall under two classes: (A) proper nouns; (B) common nouns.

a) Proper nouns are individual, names given to separate persons or things. As regards their meaning proper nouns may be personal names (Mary, Peter, Shakespeare), geographical names (Moscow, London, the Caucasus), the names of the months and of the days of the week (February, Monday), names of ships, hotels, clubs, etc. A large number of nouns now proper were originally common nouns (Brown, Smith, Mason). Proper nouns may change their meaning and become common nouns: George went over to the table and took a sandwich and a glass of champagne. (Aldington)

b) Common nouns are names that can be applied to any individual of ad ass of persons or things (e.g. man, dog, book), collections of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit (e. g. peasantry, family), materials (e. g. snow, iron, cotton) or abstract notions (e.g. kindness, development). Thus there are different groups of common nouns: class nouns, collective nouns, nouns of material and abstract nouns.

1. Class nouns denote persons or things belonging to a class. They are countable and have two. numbers: singular and plural. They are generally used with an article.

«Well, sir», said Mrs. Parker, «I wasn't in the shop above a great deal.» (Mansfield)

2. Collective nouns denote a number or collection of similar individuals or things as a single unit. Collective nouns fall under the following groups:

(a) nouns used only in the singular and denoting-a number of things collected together and regarded as a single object: foliage, machinery.

It was not restful, that green foliage. (London)

Machinery new to the industry in Australia was introduced for preparing land. (Agricultural Gazette)

(b) nouns which are singular in form though plural in meaning: police, poultry, cattle, people, gentry They are usually called nouns of multitude. When the subject of the sentence is a noun of multitude the verb used as predicate is in the plural:

I had no idea the police were so devilishly prudent. (Shaw)

The weather was warm and the people were sitting at their doors. (Dickens)

(c) nouns that may be both singular and plural: family, crowd, fleet, nation. We can think of a number of crowds, fleets or different nations as well as of a single *crowd, fleet, etc.*

A small crowd is lined up to see the guests arrive. (Shaw)

Accordingly they were soon afoot, and walking in the direction of the scene of action, towards which crowds of people were already pouring from a variety of quarters. (Dickens)

3. Nouns of material denote material: iron, gold, paper, tea, water. They are uncountable and are generally used without any article.

There was a scent of honey from the lime-trees in flower. (Galsworthy)

There was coffee still in the urn. (Wells)

Nouns of material are used in the plural to denote different sorts of a given material.

… that his senior counted upon him in this enterprise, and had consigned a quantity of select wines to him… (Thackeray)

Nouns of material may turn into class nouns (thus becoming countable) when they come to express an individual object of definite shape.

Compare:

– To the left were clean panes of glass. (Ch. Bronte)

«He came in here,» said the waiter looking at the light through the tumbler, «ordered a glass of this ale.» (Dickens)

But the person in the glass made a face at her, and Miss Moss went out. (Mansfield).

4. Abstract nouns denote some quality, state, action or idea: kindness, sadness, fight. They are usually uncountable, though some of them may be countable.

Accustomed to John Reed's abuse – I never had an idea of plying it. (Ch. Bronte)

It's these people with fixed ideas. (Galsworthy)

Abstract nouns may change their meaning and become class nouns. This change is marked by the use of the article and of the plural number:

beauty a beauty beauties

sight a sight sights

He was responsive to beauty and here was cause to respond. (London)

She was a beauty. (Dickens)

The category of case of nouns is the system of opposites (such as girl–girl's in English, дом – дома – дому – дом – домом – (о) доме in Russian) showing the relations of the noun to other words in speech. Case relations reflect the relations of the substances the nouns name to other substances, actions, states, etc. in the world of reality. In the sentence ‘I took John's hat by mistake’ the case of the noun ‘John's’ shows its relation to the noun hat, which is some reflection of the relations between John and his hat in reality.Case is one of those categories which show the close connection:

(a) between language and speech,

(b) between morphology and syntax.

All case opposites are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings, of 'common' case and 'possessive' case, united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'case'. There is not much variety in the form of case opposites either, which distinguishes English from Russian.

The category of number of English nouns is the system of opposites (such as girl – girls, foot – feet, etc.) showing whether the noun stands for one object or more than one, in other words, whether its grammatical meaning is 'oneness' or 'more-than-oneness' of objects.The connection of the category with the world of material reality, though indirect, is quite transparent. Its meanings reflect the existence of individual objects and groups of objects in the material world.All number opposites are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings of 'singular' and 'plural' united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'number'. But there is a considerable variety of form in number opposites, though it is not so great as in the Russian language.An English noun lexeme can contain two number opposites at most (toy – boys, boy's – boys'). Many lexemes have but one oppose me (table – tables) and many others have no opposites at all (ink, news).In the opposite boy – boys 'singularity' is expressed by a zero morpheme and 'plurality' is marked by the positive morpheme /-z/, in spelling – .s. In other words, the 'singular' member of the opposite is not marked, and the 'plural' member is marked.In the opposite boy's – boys' both members have positive morphemes –‘s, – s’, but these morphemes can be distinguished only in writing. In the spoken language their forms do not differ, so with regard to each other they are unmarked. They can be distinguished only by their combinability (cf. a boy's head, boys' heads).In a few noun lexemes of foreign origin both members of a number opposite are marked, e.g. symposium – symposia, genus – genera, phenomenon– phenomena, etc. But in the process of assimilation this peculiarity of foreign nouns

gets gradually lost, and instead of medium – media a new opposite develops, medium – mediums; instead of formula – formulae, the usual form now is formula – formulas. In this process, as we see, the foreign grammatical morphemes are neglected as such. The ‘plural’ morpheme is dropped altogether. The 'singular' morpheme becomes part of the stem. Finally, the regular – s ending is added to form the 'plural' opposite. As a result the 'singular' becomes unmarked, as typical of English, and the 'plural' gets its usual mark, the suffix – s.Since the 'singular' member of a number opposite is not marked, the form of the opposite is, as a rule, determined by the form of the 'plural' morpheme, which, in its turn, depends upon the stem of the lexeme.In the overwhelming majority of cases the form of the 'plural' morpheme is /-s/, /-z/, or /-z/, in spelling – (e) s, e. g, books, boys, matches.With the stem ox – the form of the 'plural' morpheme is – en /-n/.In the opposite man–men the form of the 'plural' morpheme is the vowel change /ж> e/. In woman – women ii is /u >i/, in foot – feet it is /u – i:/, etc.In child – children the form of the 'plural' morpheme is complicated. It consists of the vowel change /ai>i/ and the suffix – ren.In sheep – sheep the 'plural' is not marked, thus coinciding in form with the 'singular'. They can be distinguished only by their combinability: ‘one sheep’, ‘five sheep’, ‘a sheep was…’, ‘sheep were…’, ‘this sheep’, ‘these sheep’. The 'plural' coincides in form with the 'singular' also in ‘deer, fish, carp, perch, trout, cod, salmon’, etc.All the 'plural' forms enumerated here are forms of the same morpheme. This can be proved, as we know, by the identity of the 'plural' meaning, and the complementary distribution of these forms, i.e. the fact that different forms are used with different stems.As already mentioned , with regard to the category of number English nouns fall into two subclasses: countable and uncountable. The former have number opposites, the latter have not. Uncountable nouns are again subdivided into those having no plural opposites and those having no singular opposites.Nouns like milk, geometry, self-possession having no plural opposites are usually called by a Latin name – singulariatantum. Nouns like outskirts, clothes, goods having no singular opposites are known as pluraliatantum.As a matter of fact, those nouns which have no number opposites

are outside the grammatical category of number. But on the analogy of the bulk of English nouns they acquire oblique (or lexicon-grammatical) meanings of number. Therefore singulariatantum are often treated as singulars and pluraliatantum as plurals.This is justified both by their forms and by their combinability.

Cf. This (table, book, milk, love) is…

These (tables, books, clothes, goods) are…

When combinability and form contradict each other, combinability is decisive, which accounts for the fact that ‘police’ or ‘cattle’ are regarded as plurals, and ‘measles’, ‘mathematics as singulars. The lexicon-grammatical meaning of a class (or of a subclass) of words is, as we know, an abstraction from the lexical meanings of the words of the class, and depends to a certain extent on those lexical meanings. Therefore singulariatantum usually include nouns of certain lexical meanings. They are mostly material, abstract and collective nouns, such as sugar, gold, butter, brilliance, constancy, selfishness, humanity, soldiery, peasantry.

Yet it is not every material, abstract or collective noun that belongs to the group of singulariatantum (e. g. a plastic, a feeling, a crowd) and, what is more important, not in all of its meanings does a noun belong to this group.As we have already seen, variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses of a part of speech. In most of their meanings the words joy and sorrow as abstract nouns are singulariatantum.

E.g. He has been a good friend both in joy and in sorɾow. (Horney).

But when concrete manifestations are meant, these nouns are countable and have plural opposites, e. g. the joys and sorrows of life. Likewise, the words copper, tin, hair as material nouns are usually singulariatantum, but when they denote concrete objects, they become countable and get plural opposites: a copper – coppers, a tin –

tins, a hair – hairs. Similarly, when the nouns wine, steel, salt denote some sort or variety of the substance, they become countable.

E.g. an expensive wine – expensive wines.

All such cases are not a peculiarity of the English language alone. They are found in other languages as well. Cf. дерево – деревья and дерево.is a material noun, платье – платья and платье as a collective noun. ‘Joy’ and ‘a joy’, ‘beauty’ and ‘a beauty’, ‘copper’ and ‘a copper’, ‘hair’ and ‘a hair’ and many other pairs of this kind are not homonyms, as suggested by some grammarians, but variants of lexemes related by internal conversion. If all such cases were regarded as homonyms, the number of homonyms in the English language would be practically limitless. If only some of them were treated as homonyms, that would give rise to uncontrolled subjectivity. The group of pluraliatantum is mostly composed of nouns denoting objects consisting of two or more parts, complex phenomena or ceremonies, e. g. tongs, pincers, trousers, nuptials, obsequies. Here also belong some nouns with a distinct collective or material meaning, e.g. clothes, eaves, sweets.Since in these words the – s suffix does not function as a grammatical morpheme, it gets lexicalized and develops into an inseparable part of the stem. This, probably, underlies the fact that such nouns as mathematics, optics, linguistics, mumps, measles are treated as singulariatantum. Nouns like police, militia, cattle, poultry are pluraliatantum, judging by their combinability, though not by form.People in the meaning of «народ» is a countable noun. In the meaning of «люди» it belongs to the pluraliatantum. Family in the sense of «a group of people who are related» is a countable noun. In the meaning of «individual members of this group» it belongs to the pluraliatantum. Thus, the lexeme family has two variants:

Sg/ Pl

1) family families

2) – family

E. g. Almost every family in the village has sent a man to the army. (Horney).

Those were the oldest families in Jorkshire. (Black).

Her family were of a delicate constitution. (Bronte).

Similar variants are observed in the lexemes committee, government, board, crew, etc.

Colour in the meaning «red, green, blue, etc». is a countable noun. In the meaning «appearance of reality or truth» (e. g. His torn clothes gave colour to his story that lie had been attacked by robbers. A. Horney.) it has no plural opposite and belongs to the singulariatantum. Colours in the sense of «materials used by painters and artists» has no singular opposite and belongs to the pluraliatantum.

Thus, the lexeme has three variants:

Sg/ Pl

1) colourcolours

2) colour –

3) – colours.

When grammarians write that the lexical meanings of some plurals differ from those of their singular opposites 24, they simply compare different variants of a lexeme. Sometimes variants of a lexeme may belong to the same lexico-grammatical subclass and yet have different forms of number opposemes.

Cf. brother (son of same parents) – brothers

brother (fellow member) – brethren

fish – fish (e.g. I caught five fish yesterday.)

fish – fishes ('different species', e. g. ocean fishes).

A collective noun is a word that designates a group of objects or beings regarded as a whole, such as «flock», «team», or «corporation». Although many languages treat collective nouns as singular, in others they may be interpreted as plural. In British English, phrases such as the committee are meeting are common (the so-called agreement in sensu «in meaning», that is, with the meaning of a noun, rather than with its form). The use of this type of construction varies with dialect and level of formality. All languages are able to specify the quantity of referents. They may do so by lexical means with words such as English a few, some, one, two, five hundred. However, not every language has a grammatical category of number. Grammatical number is expressed by morphological and/or syntactic means. That is, it is indicated by certain grammatical elements, such as through affixes or number words. Grammatical number may be thought of as the indication of semantic number through grammar.Languages that express quantity only by lexical means lack a grammatical category of number. For instance, in Khmer, neither nouns nor verbs carry any grammatical information concerning number: such information can only be conveyed by lexical items such as khlah 'some', pii-bey 'a few', and so on. Most languages of the world have formal means to express differences of number. The most widespread distinction, as found in English and many other languages, involves a simple two-way number contrast between singular and plural (car / cars; child / children, etc.). Other more elaborate systems of number are described below.

§2.3THE MAIN TENDENCIES IN DEVELOPMENT OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES IN ENGLISH

The category of number consisted of two numbers: singular and plural. They were well distinguished formally in all declensions. The Noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. They were not distinguished formally in all the cases. In most declensions 2 or even 3 forms were homonymous. The most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their elaborate system of declensions. The total number of them exceeded 25. There were only 10 distinct endings and a few relevant root-vowel interchanges used in the noun paradigms. OE system of declension was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, (1) the gender of nouns, (2) the phonetic structure of a word, phonetic changes in the final syllables. OE pronouns fell roughly the same main classes as modern pronoun: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, and negative. As for relative possessive and reflexive pronouns they were not fully developed in OE. The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to nouns or adjectives.The adjective in OE had grammatical categories of number, gender, and case. These were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun if modified or with the subject of the sentence - if the adjective was a predicative.Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns; in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case; Instrumental, it was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dative case, expressing an instrumental meaning.The division of words into parts of speech has proved to be one of the most permanent characteristics of the language. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronouns in Early ME (provided that the article is treated as an independent part of speech).The OE noun had the grammatical;

categories of Number and Case which were formally distinguished in an elaborate system of declensions. However, homonymous forms in the OE noun paradigms neutralised some of the grammatical oppositions; similar endings employed in different declensions — as well as the influence of some types upon other types — disrupted the grouping of nouns into morphological classes.Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree.The OE Gender, being a classifying feature (and not a grammatical category proper) disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. (Division into genders played a certain role in the decay of the OE declension system: in Late OE and Early ME nouns were grouped into classes or types of declension according to gender instead of stems. In the 11th and 12th c. the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support — the weakened and levelled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally superseded by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.The grammatical category of Case was preserved but under- went profound changes in Early ME.The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four (distinguished in OE) to two in Late ME. The syncretism of cases was a slow process which went on step by step.The history of the Gen. Case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the case is used only attributively, to modify a noun, but even in this function it has a rival — prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition of. The practice to express genitival relations by the of-phrase goes back to OE.The other grammatical category of the noun, Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the plural

spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus strengthened the formal differentiation of number.Since personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, it might have been expected that their evolution would repeat the evolution of nouns; in reality it was in many respects different. The development of the same grammatical categories in nouns and pronouns was not alike. It differed in the rate and extent of changes, in the dates and geographical directions, I though the morphology of pronouns, like the morphology of nouns, was simplified.In Early ME the OE Fern, pronoun of the 3rd p. sgheo (related to all the other pronouns of the 3rd p. — he, hit, hie) was replaced by a group of variants — he, ho, see, sho, she: one of them — she - finally prevailed over the others. The new Fern, pronoun, Late ME she, is believed to have developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun of the Fem, gender — seo. It was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and gradually extended to other areas.One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date — in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the) 1 forms of the 2nd p. — ye, you, your — were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pi. forms of the 2nd s were widely used as equivalents of thou, thee, thine. Later thou became obsolete in Standard English. (Nowadays thou is found only in poetry, in religious discourse and in some dialects.) Cf. the free interchange of ~u and thou in Shakespeare's sonnets.The category of Case underwent profound alterations. The forms of the Dat. and the Ace.cases began to merge in OE, especially in the West Saxon dialect. The syncretism of the Dat. and Ace.took a long time: it began in Early OE in the 1st and 2nd p. pi; in Late OE it extended to the 1st and 2nd p. sg; in Early ME it spread to the 3rd p.; it was completed in Late ME.In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the degrees of comparison.The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs ma, bet, betst, — 'more', 'better', 'to a greater degree' with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in ME, when the phrases with ME more and most became more

and more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words.It appears that in the course of history the adjective has lost all the dependent grammatical categories but has preserved the only specifically adjectival category — the comparison. The adjective is the onlynominal part of speech which makes use of the new, analytical, way of form-building.OE verb had few grammatical categories, but its paradigm had a very complicated structure. All the forms of the verb were synthetic; the analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense in OE consisted of two forms, Present and Past. The category of person was made up of three forms the 1st, the 2nd, and the 3d. Finite verbs were distinguished between two numbers: singular and plural. In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. In many respects they were closer to the nouns and adjectives than to the finite verbs: their nominal features were far more obvious than their verbal features. The verbal nature of the Infinitive and the Participle was revealed in some of their functions and in their combinability. Like finite forms of the verb they could take direct, objects and be modified by adverbs. The majority of OE verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. The main difference between them lays in the means of forming the principle forms, or the stems of the verbs. All the forms of the verb, finite as well as non-finite, were derived from a set of ‘stems’: Present Tense stem (or Infinitive), Past Tense stem, Participle II. In addition there were minor groups of verbs: preterit-presents, supletive (anomalous, irregular). All the verbs with the exception of the strong verbs and minor groups, which make a total of about 315-320 units, were weak verbs. They formed their Past and Participle II by means of the dental suffix -d, -t. The weak verbs were subdivided into 3 classes differing in the ending if the Infin., the sonority of the suffix, and the sound preceding the suffix.

In ME and NE verb paradigm expanded, owing to addition of new grammatical forms and to the formation of new grammatical forms and to the formation of new grammatical categories. According to the Modern English grammars it has 5 categories: Mood, Tense, Aspect, Time-Correlation and Voice. The growth of analytical forms from free verb phrases was a long and complicated process, which is dated in Late OE. Thepropertiesoftheanalyticalverbareasfollows:

1) it must consist of an auxiliary verb which served as a grammatical marker;

2) and a non-finite form - Inf. or Part., which serves as a grammatical marker and expresses the lexical meaning of the form;

3) it should be idiomatic, its meaning is not equivalent to the sum of meanings of the component parts.

In the OE verb system there was no category of aspect. Verbal prefix - e, which could express an aspective meaning of perfectivity, was primarily word-building prefix. The development of Aspect is linked up with the growth of the Continues forms. Verb phrases consisting of ‘beon' + Part. I denoted a quality or a lasting state. It was not until the 18 c. that the Continues forms acquired a specific meaning of their own: of incomplete process of limited duration. Only at that stage the Cont. and non-Cont. made up a new grammatical category - Aspect. For many hundred years the Continues forms were not used in the Passive Voice. It aroused the protest of many scholars. But inspite of all these protests the Passive Voice of Continues aspect continued to be used and eventually was recognized as correct.The analytical forms of Participle I began to develop later than the forms of the Infinitive In the 17 thc. it was already used in all four forms which it can built today. Participle II remained outside this system correlating to the forms of Participle I through formal differences and semantic opposition. Analytical forms of the Gerund were the last to appear. The formal pattern set by the Participle I was repeated in the new forms of Gerund. The forms of Infinitive, Participle I and Gerund made up grammatical categories similar to these of the Finite verb: Voice, Time-correlation and Aspect.

CHAPTER III

ESSENTIAL FEATURES OF TEACHING GRAMMAR TO B1 LEVEL STUDENTS

§ 3.1 METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING GRAMMAR TO EFL LEARNERS

How to teach English as a second or foreign language has been heatedly debated as long as the subject has been taught. One of the many issues regarding the teaching of English as a second or foreign language is the issue of whether or not to teach grammar, and if we teach it, how should we go about it?

The role and type of grammar instruction in foreign language learning with particular reference to EFL has been the subject of SLA research and discussion for decades. In recent times, however, grammar instruction has been recognized as an essential and unavoidable component of language learning and use[4]. It is seen as valuable, if not indispensable, within the context of EFL teaching and learning.

Previous studies on students' and teachers' attitudes and perceptions of grammar instruction in the context of language learning suggest a disparity between students and teachers[5]. While students favour formal and explicit grammar instruction and error correction, teachers favour communicative activities with less conscious focus on grammar.

Fox (1995) showed how the attitudes teachers take into their classroom can affect instruction and, in his two case studies of ESL teachers, Borg (2001) found that teachers' perceptions of their own knowledge of grammar affected their teaching practices (both cited in McClure, 2006).

[4] Doughty & Williams 1998; Thornbury 1997, 1998).
[5] e.g., Brindley 1984; Kumaravadivelu 1991; Leki 1995; Schultz 1996, 2001; Spratt 1999

The term „grammar□ has been defined in a number of ways by language teachers and grammarians which have influenced and been influenced by different approaches to teaching grammar[6]. For many L2 learners, learning grammar often means learning the rules of grammar and having an intellectual knowledge of grammar. Teachers often believe that this will provide the generative basis on which learners can build their knowledge and will be able to use the language eventually. For them, prescribed rules give a kind of security.

Different approaches to looking at language, from syntactic descriptions to attempts to show the semantic and pragmatic dimensions of grammar, are reflected in the different ways grammar has been taught. In EFL/ESL teaching, grammar has been viewed in three different ways: grammar as rules, grammar as form, and grammar as resource. In some cases, grammar instruction has meant learning the rules; in others, practising the form; and in others understanding how grammar helps to convey the meaning and intention of the message. The best approach is perhaps to see grammar as one of many resources that we have in language which helps us to communicate. We should see how grammar relates to what we want to say or write, and how we expect others to interpret our language use and its focus.

The teaching of second-language grammar in higher education is a topic of widespread concern to both teachers and students alike. Sometimes, very strong positions are taken, for example, "At any time, at any stage and in any circumstances, grammar teaching cannot be diluted. It ought to be an important part in foreign language teaching in China"[7].

Many students and teachers tend to view grammar as a set of restrictions on what is allowed and disallowed in language use – „a linguistic straitjacket□ in Larsen-Freeman□swords , but some consider grammar as something that liberates rather than represses: " ... grammar is not a constraining imposition but a liberating force: it frees us from a dependency on context and a purely lexical categorization of

[6]Ellis, 2006; Purpura, 2004
[7]Wang, 1999, p. 80

reality"[8]. The implications of this statement for our understanding of the nature of grammar and the role it plays in communication are explored, and how this understanding might inform approaches to teaching grammar in second language classrooms is discussed.

Besides the place/role of grammar in language teaching, the factors involved in the teaching and learning of grammar and specific practices in the grammar classroom and some current research on grammar structureshave added to the discussion on how best to teach grammar in ESL/EFL contexts. Many books claim that they carry/include cognitive, affective and drama activities and games for EFL students that are directed towards stimulating their imagination and creativity[9].

The hard fact that most teachers face is that learners often find it difficult to make flexible use of the rules of grammar taught in the classroom. They may know the rules perfectly but are incapable of applying them during language use.

The importance of grammar within the FL/SL syllabus has been under discussion for many years. Until the Communicative Approach in the 1970s, it was at the core of learning and teaching. The syllabus, a structural syllabus, was organized around the grammar to be taught. “The theoretical model that underlies the [cognitive] approach is that a language consists of a “set of rules” with an associated lexicon. It follows logically from the model that foreign language students must learn rules of grammar. The suggested sequence is: study a rule (usually with instructor explanation), practice a rule (in grammar exercises), and then apply the rule in meaningful interactions in the target language”.

Since the 1970s, however, attention has shifted from ways of teaching grammar to ways of getting learners to communicate, and grammar has been seen to be a powerful undermining and demotivating force among L2 learners. In terms of motivation and learner success with languages, grammar has been seen to be a

[8]Widdowson, 1990, p. 86

[9] e.g., Gerngross, Puchta&Thornbury 2007; Rinvolucri, 1984

problem and to stand in the way of helping learners to communicate fluently. As a result, teaching grammar has become unfashionable.

Statements such as ". . . the study of grammar as such is neither necessary nor sufficient for learning to use a language"[10] and definitions of communicative competence became widely quoted and accepted.Newmark, however, was only talking of grammar rules rather than grammar in language use. What was being questioned was the content of „grammar teaching based on certain behaviorist approaches[11]. The need for a shift in focus in teaching from language form to language in use was expressed, placing grammar within context and with content. It was felt that by concentrating on communication and communicative language practice, students would naturally „acquire the language.

Models of communicative competence, with particular reference to FL/SL speakers, include grammatical competence as one of the core dimensions of communicative competence. Such proposals led to the questioning of the importance of the role of grammar in a language learning syllabus. The syllabus must guide the learner in moving from knowledge of form to grammatical competence within the total communicative competence. It was suggested that "communication can generally be achieved most efficiently by means of a grammatical sentence or by a series of such sentences logically related"[12] and that grammar was an essential resource in using language communicatively.

The discussion of learning and acquisition was led by Krashen, who proposed a model of second language acquisition in which the processing of input, rather than grammar instruction, plays the pivotal role. Krashen and Terrell (1983) claim that if language input is provided over a wide variety of topics with communicative goals, the input would automatically include the necessary grammatical structures. Carter points out that „acquisition is a natural and unconscious process that takes

[10]Newmark, 1963
[11]Newmark&Reibel, 1968
[12]Close, 1981, p. 14

place as the result of meaningful exposure to language that occurs naturally and using it for the purpose of meaningful communication. This natural process of 'acquisition' is in contrast to the conscious process of language learning, which occurs when explicit knowledge about language forms is provided regularly. An explicit knowledge of grammar by adults is said to be useful in only one way – as a "monitor" for self-correction under certain circumstances.

In relation to FL/SL learners, a grammar pie was suggested showing the proportion of form, meaning and use. Teachers could alter the portions of the pie as appropriate for the lesson and for the students. A syllabus attempting to move beyond form to grammar in use in communication was proposed by Yalden (1983).

It was, however, observed that, despite the impact of the communicative approach on language teaching methodology (i.e., adopting learner-centred and task-based teaching methods), the majority of ESL and EFL learners had continued to learn from materials organized and presented in terms of grammatical items. The approach continued to be mostly one of presenting and explaining grammar points followed by controlled production practice.

Grammar instruction has thus been on the pendulum of language teaching methodologies swinging back and forth one extreme of grammar-driven methods to the other one of communicative methodologies. The thinking seems to be that learners attention should be focused on form within content-based curricula. These changes in methodologies are thus summed up: "The research on teaching methodology was focused on the relationship between language knowledge and practice and went through a U-shaped course – [it] first stressed, then unstressed, and finally re-stressed the language knowledge"[13].

Two methods have been suggested for teaching grammar within an EFL/ESL context: Implicit/Inductive and Explicit/Deductive. 'Inductive' suggests a 'bottom up' approach, in which students discover grammar rules while working through

[13]Liao, 1996, p. 6

exercises/tasks, while 'Deductive' suggests a 'top down' approach, which is the standard teaching approach that has a teacher explaining rules to the students. There is still, however, controversy over the relative effectiveness of explicit and implicit grammar teaching. The complex relationship between teaching and learning, and the fact that how something is taught is not directly related to how it is learned could be the reasons for this controversy.

On the one hand, there are researchers like Krashen who have persistently denied the importance of any explicit grammar instruction in second language acquisition. Other researchers have objected to traditional grammar teaching methodology in which the teacher presents grammatical structures explicitly in a de-contextualized manner. In traditional methodology, the assumption has been that learners will develop the knowledge they need for communicative language use through conscious presentation and manipulation of forms through drills and practice. An inductive approach to grammatical rules and principles is encouraged rather than an exclusive reliance on the presentation-practice-production approach of many traditional grammar books.

Explicit (or deductive) grammar instruction, which draws learners attention to linguistic form and structure, is characterized by two conflicting approaches: interventionist and non-interventionist. Supporters of the interventionist approach state that "given the low number of input/interaction hours in a typical foreign language college (70-150 hours) or high school (100-300 hours) instruction, explicit grammar instruction can serve to speed up parts of the acquisition process". The non-interventionist approach supports the idea that explicit grammar instruction need not be given if enough comprehensible input is provided in a low anxiety environment. It is also argued that "the ability to demonstrate grammatical knowledge on a discrete-point grammar exam does not guarantee the ability to use that knowledge in ordinary conversation, be it spontaneous or monitored"[14]

[14]Terrell, 1991, p. 54

The language acquisition process can be affected by explicit grammar instruction in three ways:

1. “as an „advanced organiser to aid in comprehending and segmenting the input;

2. as a meaning-form focuser that aids the learner in establishing a meaning-form relationship for morphologically complex forms; and

3. as a means for monitoring, which in turn, will be available for acquisition in the output.”

Grammatical knowledge is viewed by many researchers[15] as a significant component in second language acquisition. Most agree that a certain degree of grammar instruction is necessary to develop learners language proficiency. No current research or theory, however, seems to advocate a return to traditional methods of teaching grammar or to a focus on grammatical features for their own sake.

Based on the results of an empirical study focusing on the ways in which explicit grammar teaching can facilitate L2 acquisition, Scheffler and Cinciata (2011) recommend that EFL/ESL teachers “should invest some classroom time in explicit grammar instruction”, as “at least some grammatical phenomena can be successfully taught as simple rules”. They refer to two kinds of benefit. First, simple descriptions of rules may lead to learners noticing the input structures exemplified by the rules, which may in turn lead to increased comprehension. Such conscious noticing of L2 features is necessary for implicit language development, according to many SLA researchers. Simple grammar rules help learners understand their own output and contribute to the learning process in general by increasing the learners sense of confidence, security and achievement. Thus the implicit-versus-explicit debate has been raging for over a century, the positions varying from an outright rejection of grammar instruction in a strongly

[15] e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Doughty, 1991; Harley, 1998; Long, 1983, 1988; Long & Robinson, 1998; Schneider, 1993; Terrell, 1991

communicative approach to a return to explicit, discrete-point grammar along a continuum. Many materials meant for classroom use encourage an inductive approach, probably because teachers are there to guide the learning process, while those meant for self-study usually adopt a deductive approach.

Though there are many approaches to teaching methodology , two teaching methods are most commonly taught. Methodology taught in certification and training programs is generally either “PPP” (present, practice and production) or “ESA” (engage, study and activate). That doesn’t mean they are the best approaches. They are just the most well known approaches and more likely to be requested by employers or Directors of Studies (DOS). Thus we are going to concentrate on those two approaches.

“PPP” Presentation, Practice and Production

“Presentation” involves presenting the target language (the language to be taught to the students) to the students generally through eliciting and cueing of the students to see if they know it and then providing the language if no one does.

The target language is usually put on the board either in structure (grammar-type) charts or in dialogs. Presentation features more “teacher talk” than the other stages of the lesson, generally as much as 65-90% of the time. This portion of the total lesson can take as much as 20-40% of the lesson time.

Next comes “Practice” where the students practice the target language in one to three activities that progress from very structured (students are given activities that provide little possibility for error) to less-structured (as they master the material).

These activities should include as much “student talk” as possible and not focus on written activities, though written activities can provide a structure for the verbal practices. Practice should have the “student talk time” range from 60-80 percent of the time with teacher talk time being the balance of that time. This portion of the total lesson can take from 30-50% of the lesson time.

“Production” is the stage of the lesson where the students take the target language and use it in conversations that they structure (ideally) and use it to talk about

themselves or their daily lives or situations. Production should involve student talk at as much as 90% of the time and this component of the lesson can/should take as much as 20-30% of the lesson time.

As you can see the general structure of a PPP lesson is flexible but an important feature is the movement from controlled and structured speech to less-controlled and more freely used and created speech. Another important feature of PPP (and other methods too) is the rapid reduction of teacher talk time and the increase in student talk time as you move through the lesson.

One of the most common errors untrained teachers make is that they talk too much. EFL students get very little chance to actually use the language they learn and the EFL classroom must be structured to create that opportunity. See the paragraph on *Pairwork and Small Groups* below.

"ESA" Engage, Study and Activate

Roughly equivalent to PPP, ESA is slightly different in that it is designed to allow movement back and forth between the stages. However, each stage is similar to the PPP stages in the same order. Proponents of this method stress its flexibility compared to PPP and the method, as defined by Jeremy Harmer (its major advocate), uses more elicitation and stresses the "Engagement" of students in the early stages of the lesson.

ESA is superior method to PPP when both are looked at from a rigid point of view. But, EFL is not rigid and you should not adhere to any one viewpoint or method. PPP is often an easier method for teacher-trainees to get a handle on but probably more programs teach ESA than PPP these days, especially those that teach only one of the approaches.

Pairwork and Working in Small Groups

Most speaking practice in the classroom should be done in pairs and small groups with students talking to each other. It is a common mistake of the untrained teacher to think that students must or need to talk to the teacher.

While talking to the teacher is certainly useful, each student in a small class of only 15 will get at most 3 minutes of talking time in a 45-minute class if conversation is

teacher-centered. In pairs, those same students could be directly involved in conversation as much as 22 minutes.

See the difference? That is a seven-fold increase in the amount of time a student can practice speaking, listening and interacting in English. One of the biggest problems EFL students have is the very limited amount of time they actually get to practice speaking and listening in direct interaction. Often their *only*opportunity is in your classroom.

The teacher's role during pairwork and small group time is to rotate around the classroom encouraging students and helping them focus on the target language/concepts of the lesson. Including pairwork and small-group work in your PPP/ESA lesson is critical to the success and improvement of your students' language skills.

§ 3.2 THE SYSTEM OF EXERCISES AND ACTIVITIES IN TEACHING GRAMMAR TO B1 STUDENTS

Teaching grammar is an essential part of school education or adult learning. Without good grammar, spoken or written words lose much of their meaning and most of their value. Grammar is a very important thing to get right, and teachers should take extra care to impart proper grammar to all their students. Sadly, grammar is often seen as a difficult and boring subject and one popular method of teaching is to just repeat the correct grammar for a certain situation over and over until it is memorised and able to be repeated, like a parrot. This is dull for both teachers and students, and often only results in the students being able to repeat what they have learned, rather than resulting in a complete understanding that can be applied to all situations. English grammar is very complex, and all its intricacies cannot truly be learned by rote, they must be really understood – and understanding is most easily achieved when students are engaged, interested and having fun during a lesson.

Teach Grammar in Context. One of the most important things to do if you are looking for more interesting ways to teach grammar is to teach it in context. For example, let's say you are introducing conditional sentences to your students. You couldstart your lesson by writing a big title on the board: "Conditional Sentences", followed by an example: "If I don't study for a test, I get a bad grade," followed by a lengthy explanation: "This type of conditional sentence means that every time the first thing happens, the second thing happens, too. So, every time I don't study for a test…" Are you falling asleep yet? On the other hand, you can start your lesson by tossing out some sentences for the students to finish: "If Jerry falls asleep in class, he…" "If I don't study for a test, I…" "If I eat too much, I feel…" You might need to coax the answers out of them at first, but usually there will be one or two students who will catch on right away, even if they've never heard that particular sentence structure. The other students, after hearing a few

answers, will get the gist pretty quickly, too. Let some zany answers come up, and have fun with it. Once they've seen the grammar in context, take a few moments to clarify and point out the structure and usage. Make sure everyone understands, knows what it's called, and can identify and give examples of this particular sentence structure. Return to the game or activitybriefly after the lesson, too. It will take on a new meaning and drive the grammar point home now that they have a solid understanding. When students see grammar in context first – through a game, a story, an activity, or just frequently hearing it used – it lets their brains work a little bit to intuit the meaning before you formally explain it. That's how we naturally learn a language: by being exposed to it and picking up on the meaning. It's more engaging, it develops an understanding that's grounded in context, and it also develops their critical thinking and comprehension skills.

*Don't Over-Explain.*Even though it's useful to have a quick lesson where you explain the formal name of the grammar pattern and go over its structure and usage, don't over explain. The less you can possibly talk about grammar and the more you can actually use and practice that grammar, the better.

Often, your students' textbooks will have explanations of new grammar points. If it's a very complex or advanced point, reading through that explanation and answering any questions can be helpful. But, for the most part, grammar explanations are very, very confusing, and trying too hard to explain a grammar point is just going to confuse you and the students. A few concrete examples are almost always better.

Incorporate Grammar into Other Activities. Grammar is something that runs through just about every aspect of language. Even the simplest sentences have grammar. Your curriculum may require you to teach stand-alone grammar lessons, and it's important to introduce various grammar points and topics so that the students have a richer understanding of the mechanisms of language. But don't let that be the only time you think about grammar in the classroom.Games and activities are the perfect time to revisit and emphasize grammar points with very

little effort on your part and a lot of fun for the students. For example, mad libs are a perfect way to revisit the difference between nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives, without feeling like a dry review. Stories are amazing teaching tools, too. After reading a story, challenge students to identify examples of grammar points that you have recently taught, or to pick out sentence structure and patterns that are used frequently throughout the story.

The most important thing to remember when you are coming up with ways to teach grammar creatively is that grammar doesn't have to be dry and boring. If you teach it in context and incorporate grammar into stories, games, and other fun activities, your students will pick up on grammar usage and structure relatively painlessly – and they will probably even have a lot of fun doing it.

Activity: *Word puzzle*

Objective: Encourage students to identify and understand various parts of a sentence

Preparation: To prepare special cards before lesson with different words on them

Procedure: The teacher gives cards to the students and they should make a sentence with them in correct form

Word puzzles are a useful and interactive method whereby students can learn all sorts of important parts of English grammar. They can be used to encourage students to identify and understand various parts of a sentence; grammatical concepts like synonyms, tenses and conjugations; or incorrectly used grammar. Word puzzles such as crosswords are easily modified to suit all age and skill levels and introduce an element of fun competition into the learning process, so they can be invaluable in forging a full and lasting understanding of English grammar.

Activity: *Hide and seek*

Objective: To develop student's speaking and listening skills

Preparation: Teacher should prepare interesting pictures, which he will use for the activity

Procedure: Teacher shows picture to pupils. One pupil hides behind of some objects in the picture abstractly. The task of other pupils is to guess where the pupil is hidden. Questions are asked like: "Are you near/ behind/ under the table?"

Activity: *What was yesterday?*

Objective: To train the listening and speaking skills using Past Indefinite Tense

Preparation: You needn't to prepare something beforehand

Procedure: Teacher asks questions to pupils what did they do yesterday. Pupils also can ask each other these questions.

Activity: *Be quick*

Objective: The game develop student's speaking skills and vocabulary

Preparation: Without any preparation

Procedure: Teacher device class into several small teams. The task of each team is to give the word on the last of letter of previous word, which was given by another team. For example: Dog-game-exam. The teams should give words as quick as possible.

Another game-based method of teaching grammar that you could use in teaching your students is Bingo. The game of Bingo is based on people marking off spaces on their card until they fill in a row or column fully. In normal Bingo these are numbers, drawn at random from a pool. In grammar lesson Bingo, they could be

pronouns, verbs, nouns, sentence structure, antonyms, and so on – students could use the daily newspaper and attempt to find correct examples of these grammatical concepts faster than each other, thereby "winning" the game – and learning in the process! Short and fun grammar exercises like this can be included on a regular basis during your lessons to keep correct grammar usage fresh your students' minds and improve their recall of the topics at hand.

In lessons where you are not incorporating some sort of game, it is beneficial to consider inductive teaching. This is a method where you lead the students to the correct conclusion, rather than feeding them the information straight away. Getting the students to think about what the correct answer might be and figure it out for themselves will leave a longer lasting impression in their brain and result in better retention. It is worth getting your students to speak using the grammar that you are attempting to teach, in sentences that relate to themselves. They will have to process the knowledge you have given them in a way that is relevant to them, and in doing so they will forge a clearer understanding of the context and a memory of how to use the grammar you have taught in the future. You should also encourage your students to write down the important sentences and grammatical concepts that you teach them, so that they have something to refer back to if they need to, but also because writing something out improves contextual memory One particularly useful lesson could be spent on highlighting common mistakes that people make, and incidences of grammar not fitting the expected pattern. By teaching your students what is incorrect in this way, you can help them to avoid making these common mistakes. Turning it into a funny or amusing session of picking out subtle mistakes or ways that poor grammar has led a normal sentence to become ambiguous, funny or wrong can really help make your lesson very memorable, and one lesson of showing students what is wrong can often be more valuable than several lessons of trying to teach what is right.

Teaching English as a second language is a more involved process than teaching native English speakers, as ESL/EFL students have in-depth knowledge of their

own language's grammar rules, most of which are completely different than English. You may need to focus more deeply on sentence structure, pronouns, descriptors and tenses to help them become fluent in English grammar because of this innate difference between English and their native language.

In summation, all education depends on a foundation of good grammar. If students cannot understand grammar, they will struggle to read, write or speak clearly in any other area of education, from maths and science to history or geography. Good language is the base on which all other education has to stand. Teachers can use a variety of ways to make their grammar lessons memorable and enjoyable for students. Students who enjoy their lessons will pay closer attention, and you will then have an easier time while teaching. This is why great lessons are important for everyone involved, and why you should take the time to ensure you are teaching grammar in the best and most engaging way for the skill level and requirements of your individual students.

CONCLUSION

The things and the situations that language is about and the utterance contexts in which language occurs can be seen in terms of a small set of very general, abstract properties. For example, things are either objects or masses or they are abstractions which can be seen as more like objects or more like masses. Situations have a time when they were, are, or will be true. And utterance contexts involve various kinds of possible social relationships between the hearer and the speaker. Each language directly represents some of these abstract properties using words such as *the*, *some*, and *was* or meaningful parts of words, called morphemes, such as *-s*, *-ed*, and *-ing*. Each such form represents a grammatical category, a way of grouping things or situations or contexts on the basis of one of the abstract properties. These forms behave in a different way from the nouns, verbs, and adjectives we have looked at in previous chapters.

First, languages differ a lot in which grammatical categories they make use of. A natural translation of the English sentence *I saw a movie* into Japanese, *eiga o mimashita*, has no part that corresponds to either the English word *I* or the English word *a*. But the Japanese sentence does have a morpheme that tells the role of the movie in the seeing and a morpheme that conveys something about the social distance between the Speaker and Hearer. Neither of these is present in the English sentence. Second, grammatical categories are in a sense forced on the speakers of a language. In English, we need the *-s* on *pencils* in the phrase *three pencils* whether we like it or not;*three pencil* is ungrammatical even though it is perfectly understandable. Third, the linguistic forms that convey grammatical categories tend to look different than nouns, verbs, and adjectives. For example, some, such as the *-s* in *pencils*, can not even be pronounced in isolation. In this chapter we'll look at how grammatical categories "slice up" the world by dividing it into a set of very abstract semantic categories; what form they take in language; and how they vary across languages. In the process we'll be looking inside words again, this time

not at phonological units but at the meaningful units that make up many words, for example, the *pencil* and *-s* in *pencils*.

The ultimate goal of teaching grammar is to provide the students with knowledge of the way language is constructed so that when they listen, speak, read and write, they have no trouble applying the language that they are learning. Language teachers are, therefore, challenged to use creative and innovative attempts to teach grammar so that such a goal can successfully be achieved. In other words, whatever exercises are given, the most crucial thing is that the teacher provides the students with an opportunity to be able to produce the grammatical item making use of syntactically and semantically correct examples of sentences comprised of appropriate and relevant vocabulary.

Generally speaking, in teachers' perceptions, both teachers and studentsinvariably face serious difficulties with regard to EFL grammar instruction,students facing them to a greater extent than teachers. It is obvious that EFLteachers consider these difficulties quite serious, which suggests that seriousattention needs to be paid to them.

There may be generally recommended ways of teaching EFL grammar (forexample, the implicit method), but it would not be proper to adopt themuniversally without looking at the possible difficulties that might go with thosemethods suggested. While a less favoured method might pose fewer problemsand hence be more effective, a more favoured method might be less effectiveowing to greater difficulties or problems in implementing it. The difficultiesmay also be influenced by the context in which a particular method is used.It is, therefore, necessary to make a detailed study of such difficulties faced byteachers and students in specific contexts, take appropriate steps to overcomethem, and adapt the method to suit the actual teaching and learning environment. This is not to suggest 'diluting' a sound approach or method, butonly to plan mediating or supplementary tasks to help learners tide over thedifficulties.

The findings of the present study point to the following implications:

1. EFL Curriculum and material developers should show an understanding of learners' and teachers' difficulties, and provide sufficient guidance and help in the curriculum document and the teachers' book showing how the potential difficulties could be addressed in planning their classroom activities. Teachers may be given examples of mediating tasks, which would mitigate the difficulties.

2. Students need to be taught grammar through various methodologies and approaches to cater to their individual styles of learning, and educators should consider students' attitudes and perceptions when making decisions about how to teach grammar.

3. EFL teachers would do well to understand and address their learners' concerns in planning their lessons and classroom activities, and use supplementary materials, if necessary, to help learners cope with the difficulties.

4. Both in-service and pre-service training programmes should be planned in such a way that student-teachers and practising teachers articulate the potential and actual difficulties and discuss ways of overcoming or at least coping with them.

The database relating to teaching English as a foreign language, including the difficulties of learners and teachers with regard to grammar instruction, should be enriched by more detailed research and analysis.

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