THE UZBEK STATE UNIVERSITY OF WORLD LANGUAGES
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Mahbubov Azizkhon

Analysis of the semantic peculiarities poly semantic words in teaching vocabulary to ESP learners

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QUALIFICATION PAPER

"THE QUALIFICATION PAPER IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE"

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_____M.Chutpulatov

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SCIENTIFIC ADVISORS:

_____Djabbarova Q

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Introduction

Language is a means of forming and storing ideas as reflections of reality and exchanging them in the process of human intercourse. Language is social by nature; it is inseparably connected with the people who are its creator and user; it grows and develops together with the development of society. [1]

For the past 20 years of independence in our republic there was done great number of changes in all spheres of our life. In the sphere of education here we can mention building and reconstruction of secondary schools, lyceums, and colleges in all parts of Uzbekistan. In the years 2011-2013 the same work will be done in the institutions and universities of your republic.

Due to our president's task for linguists, we decided to work with one of the most interesting topics such as semantic aspects and teaching the active voice in Daniel Defoe's novels. The present qualification paper deals with the study of the semantic aspect and teaching the declarative sentences which presents a certain interest both of the theoretical investigation and for the practical language.

The actually of the investigation is explained on the hand by the profound interest to the function of semantic aspects and the methods of teaching active voice, methods of teaching the active voice forms, structural and translation points of view.

The novelty of the Qualification Paper is defined by concrete result of the investigation, special emphasis is laid on various types of rendering the structure, semantic aspect and methods of teaching the contextual semantic characteristic and methods of teaching the active voice forms used in Daniel Defoe Robinson Crusoe.

The aim of this Qualification Paper is to define the specific features of semantic aspects and methods of teaching active voice used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

[1] I.A. Karimov - tadqiqot faoliyatini takomillashtirish to'grisida // "Xalq so'zi" gazetasi.2002 yil 15 mart

The following tasks are put forward according to the general aim of this research:

1. to define the notion of sentence in present day English
2. to reveal specific structural peculiarities of the contextual semantic characteristic and methods of teaching the active voice forms used in Daniel Defoe.
3. to study the methods of teaching active voice used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

The methods of investigation used in this research are follows: methodology, semantic, structural and translation.

The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given Qualification Paper can serve as the, material for theoretical courses of grammar, methodology, lexicology, translation, comparative typology and can be used for practical lessons in translation, home reading, conversational practice and current events.

The object of this research are the declarative sentence used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

The material includes:

1. different types of dictionaries;
2. scientific literature and theoretical grammar, translation, methodology; lexicology;
3. the practical books of English, American author's especially E. Hemingway's Robinson Crusoe.

The theoretical importance of the Qualification Paper is determined by the necessity of detailed and comprehensive analysis of the Contextual semantic characteristic and methods of teaching the active voice which form a big layer of the English grammar and are used in literature fulfilling various semantic or pragmatic functions.

The structure of work – the given Qualification Paper consists of introduction, three chapters and a conclusion which are followed by the lists of

literature used in the course of the research. Introduction tells about the aim of the research, methods used on the course of it, explains its actuality novelty, object, practical and scientific value. The first chapter discusses essential problems of the English Syntax. In the second chapter the structural semantic and functional properties of declarative sentences are discussed. Conclusion presents the results of the investigations produced in the Qualification Paper. The list of used literature names all the books used in the course of this research.

Chapter I. Review of the linguistic literature on the problems of the functional properties of verb forms.

1.1.The structural semantic features of the verb as a notional part of speech

Semantics the branch of linguistics that studies the meanings of linguistic units. Semantics can also be defined as an aspect of the study of signs in semiotics or as the meaning of linguistic units. [This article will discuss linguistic semantics, that is, semantics as first defined above.] The term “semasiology” is historically a synonym for “semantics.”

In linguistic semantics, the elementary object of study consists of the three elements of the linguistic sign—especially the word—considered in their unity: the signifier, the denotatum, and the signified. The signifier is the external element, the sequence of sounds or graphic signs. It is linked with the denotatum (a signified object or phenomenon of reality) and with the referent (an object or phenomenon signified by a given linguistic unit within an utterance or by an utterance as a whole). It is also linked with the signified, which is the reflection of that object or phenomenon in human consciousness. The signified is the result of the social understanding of reality and is usually identical to a concept or mental representation. The three-way link of signifier-denotatum-signified constitutes the category of meaning and the basic unit of semantics.

These tripartite units enter into regular and systemic relationships with one another. One unit may be compared to another on the basis of one of the three elements: the signified (in the case of synonyms), the signifier (in the case of homonyms), and the denotatum and referent (in the case of a special form of synonymy known as transformation or periphrasis). Synonymy, homonymy, periphrasis (transformation), and polysemy form the basis of the systemic quality in semantics. The systemic quality is manifested most clearly in relatively small

groups of words that are similar in one respect (in which they are synonyms) and opposed in another (in which they are antonyms). Such groupings, which differ depending on the language, constitute structural oppositions. For example, the Russian words *ekhat* ("to go [by vehicle]"), *idti* ("to go [on foot]") *plyt'* ("to swim," "to go [by boat]"), and *letet*' ("to fly") have a common feature of "human locomotion" but are opposed as regards the feature of "means of locomotion." Such features within groups are studied and described as components of meaning or semantic factors.

Elementary word groups may be combined in a relationship of content, forming thematic groups and semantic and lexical "fields." For example, all the means of expressing the concept of joy in a given language constitute the lexical-semantic field "joy." Linguistic semantics seeks to provide a complete description of the semantic system of a given language in the form of a thesaurus. The thesaurus vividly demonstrates that semantics preserves what results from the reflection and comprehension of the objective world in human social practice. For example, the concepts "to be," "to have," "time," "form," and "content," which were developed in European culture, may be represented differently or not at all in other cultures. In the language of the Hopi Indians, there are no nouns of the type "spring," "winter," "present," and "future"; corresponding—but not identical—concepts are expressed adverbially (for example, "when warm"). "Rain" is named as an object (substance) in Indo-European languages but as a process (feature) in the American Indian language of the Hupa (literally, "it comes down"). On the other hand, the opposition of substance ("object") and feature ("process," "action," and so forth) is objective and universal: every language maintains the opposition through its own means and within the framework of its own system as an opposition between noun and verb. Semantics seeks to discover and study these universal semantic categories.

The polysemant is a most important object of semantic study and one of the key points in the interrelationships between system and speech (or text). It

represents a complex of lexical-semantic variants, related to one another in the system as specific lexical meanings and behaving in speech as the concrete realization of these meanings.

In speech or text, words also enter into elementary relationships of another type. The relationships are determined by the ability of words to combine with one another. The combinations permitted by the system of a language determine the distribution of each word relative to others. For example, the distribution will vary for the Russian words *krichat' (vo vsiu moch'*) ("to shout [with all one's might]"), *bezhat'(vo vse lopatki*) ("to run [as fast as one *can]"), pozdravliat' (ot vsego serdtsa*) ("to congratulate [with all one's heart]"), and *naedat'sia (do otvala*) ("to eat [until one can eat no more]"). The distributive analysis of meanings is a special task of semantics.

The word combinations *vo vsiu moch', vo vse lopatki, ot vsego serdtsa*, and *do otvala* have the common meaning of "to the highest degree," but the specific form used to express this meaning depends on the combining word; thus, *vo vsiu moch'* is combined with *krichat', vo vse lopatki*with *bezhat'*, and so forth. The form of expression is therefore a function of the combination. Semantics seeks to discover and study such functions—known as lexical parameters—which allow extensive groups of words, word combinations, and sentences to be represented as systemic periphrases (transformations) of one another. The creation of a thesaurus of functions is a long-range task of semantics.

When transformations are studied, the distinction between lexical semantics (the meaning of root morphemes, words, and word combinations) and grammatical semantics (the study of the meanings of grammatical forms) recedes into the background, and traditional semasiology becomes simply a part of semantics. On the other hand, the distinction between the denotatum and the referent becomes essential. Thought correspondence to the denotatum is called meaning, and thought correspondence to the referent and the reflection in consciousness of a whole

situation is often called sense. Thus, the content of the term “semantics” expands and semantics acquires a new task: to study the system of such “senses.” The study is known as syntactic semantics.

Semantics also studies characteristic changes in meaning that occur in the history of a language and seeks to discover semantic laws. The conceptual fund of a language is divided into that which is the common property of all members of a given society and that which is the property of science. The former includes the everyday, “naïve,” or linguistic, concepts (the “immediate” meanings of words), whereas the latter includes scientific concepts and terms (the “more distant” meanings of words). An example of the difference is seen in the colloquial use of the Russian word *kapital* to mean a large sum of money and the specialized use of the term in political economy to mean capital. One general semantic law is that everyday words having features in common with scientific concepts constantly strive to merge their parameters of content with those of the scientific terms. Key cultural terms, which differ for each era, occupy a special place between everyday and scientific concepts. Such key terms include “civilization,” “revolution,” “democracy,” “science,” “technology,” “individual,” “love,” and “machine.” The meanings of a language’s everyday words and the dominant ideas of society are combined in the semantic content of these terms. In studying the development of key cultural terms and concepts of different types, the tasks of semantics coincide with those of cultural history and semiotics.

The problem of parts of speech is one that causes great controversies both in general linguistic theory and in the analysis of separate languages. We shall have to examine here briefly a few general questions concerning parts of speech which are of some importance for Modern English.

The term "parts of speech" (as well as the corresponding terms in Russian, German, French, and other languages), though firmly established, is not a very happy one. What is meant by a "part of speech" is a type of word

differing from other types in some grammatical point or points. To take the clearest example of all, the verb is a type of word different from all other types in that it alone has the grammatical category of tense. Thus, while it is perfectly reasonable to ask, "What is the past tense of the word *live?"* (the answer of course is, *lived),* it would make no sense to ask, "What is the past tense of the word *city?"* or "What is the past tense of the word *big?"* Those words just have not got any past tense, or any tense whatever, for that matter: the notion of tense cannot be applied to them. Tense is one of the distinctive features characterising the verb as against every other type of word. However, the question is much less simple with reference to some other types of words, and a general definition of the principles on which the classification of parts of speech is based becomes absolutely necessary.

We cannot here go into the controversy over these principles that has lasted a considerable time now, and we will limit ourselves to stating the principles of our classification and pointing out some difficulties inherent in it.

The principles on which the classification is based are three in number, viz. (1) meaning, (2) form, (3) function. Each of these requires some additional explanations.

(1) By **meaning** we do not mean the individual meaning of each separate word (its lexical meaning) but the meaning common to all the words of the given class and constituting its. essence. Thus, the meaning of the substantive (noun) is "thingness". This applies equally to all and every noun and constitutes the structural meaning of the noun as a type of word. Similarly, the meaning of the verb as a type of word is that of "process", whatever the individual meaning of a separate verb may happen to be. We shall have to dwell on this later in considering every part of speech in detail.

(2) By **form** we mean the morphological characteristics of a type of word. Thus, the noun is characterised by the category of number (singular and

plural), the verb by tense, mood, etc. Several types of words (prepositions, conjunctions, and others) are characterised by invariability.

(3) By **function** we mean the syntactical properties of a typo of word. These are subdivided into two, viz. (a) its method of combining with other words, (b) its function in the sentence; (a) has to deal with phrases, (b) with sentence structure. Taking, as we did previously, the verb as a specimen, we can state that, for example, a verb combines with a following noun *(write letters)* and also with a following adverb *(write quickly).* As to (b), i. e. the syntactical function of a verb in a sentence, it is that of a predicate.[1]

Two additional remarks are necessary before we proceed to the analysis of parts of speech in detail.

In the first place, there is the question about the mutual relation of the criteria. We cannot be sure in advance that all three criteria will always point the same way. Then, again, in some cases, one of them may fail (this especially applies to the criterion of form). Under such circumstances, it may prove necessary to choose between them, i. e. to attach to one of them greater value than to another. We may say, provisionally, that we shall treat them in the order in which they have been enumerated, viz. meaning shall come first, form next, and function last.

It will also be seen that the theory of parts of speech, though considered by most scholars to be a part of morphology,[2] cannot do without touching on some syntactical problems, namely on phrases and on syntactical functions of words (point 3 in our list of criteria). We shall regard the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

SYSTEM OF PARTS OF SPEECH

1. Proceeding in the usual order, we start with the **noun,** or substantive.[3]

Its characteristic features are the following.

(1) Meaning: thingness. Thus, nouns include not only *chair* and *iron,* etc., but also *beauty, peace, necessity, journey,* and everything else presented as a thing, or object.[2]

(2) Form. Nouns have the category of number (singular and plural), though some individual nouns may lack either a singular or a plural form. They also, in the accepted view, have the category of case (common and genitive); see, however, p. 42 ff.

(3) Function. (a) Combining with words to form phrases. A noun combines with a preceding adjective *(large* room), or occasionally with a following adjective *(times immemorial),* with a preceding noun in either the common case *(iron bar)* or the genitive case *(father's room),* with a verb following it *(children play)* or preceding it *(play games).* Occasionally a noun may combine with a following or a preceding adverb *(the man there; the then president).* It also combines with prepositions *(in a house; house of rest).* It is typical of a noun to be preceded by the definite or indefinite article *(the room, a room).* (b) Function in the sentence. A noun may be the subject or the predicative of a sentence, or an object, an attribute, and an adverbial modifier. It can also make part of each of these when preceded by a preposition.

2. Next, we come to the adjective.

(1) Meaning. The adjective expresses property.[1]

(2) Form. Adjectives in Modern English are invariable. Some adjectives form degrees of comparison *(long, longer, longest).*

(3) Function. (a) Adjectives combine with nouns both preceding and

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[2] We do not consider here the functions of the infinitive, participle, and gerund.

[3] Some scholars took a different view of the problem. Thus, Academician A. Shakhmatov held that parts of speech should be treated in Syntax. (See А. А. Шахматов, *Синтаксис русского языка,* 1941.)

[4] In the prevailing Modern English terminology the terms "noun" and "substantive" are used as synonyms. According to an earlier view, the term "noun" was understood to cover all nominal parts of speech, including substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and numerals, thus corresponding to the Russian term имя.

(occasionally) following them *(large room, times immemorial).* They also combine with a preceding adverb *(very large).* Adjectives can be followed by the phrase "preposition + noun" *(free from danger).* Occasionally they combine with a preceding verb *(married young).* (b) In the sentence, an adjective can be either an attribute *(large room)* or a predicative *(is large).* It can also be an objective predicative *(painted the door green).*

The pronoun.

(1) The meaning of the pronoun as a separate part of speech is somewhat difficult to define. In fact, some pronouns share essential peculiarities of nouns (e.g. *he),* while others have much in common with adjectives (e. g. *which).* This made some scholars think that pronouns were not a separate part of speech at all and should be distributed between nouns and adjectives. However, this view proved untenable and entailed insurmountable difficulties. Hence it has proved necessary to find a definition of the specific meaning of pronouns, distinguishing them from both nouns and adjectives. From this angle the meaning of pronouns as a part of speech can be stated as follows: pronouns point to the things and properties without naming them. Thus, for example, the pronoun *it* points to a thing[3] without being the name of any particular class of things. The pronoun *its* points to the property of a thing by referring it to another thing. The pronoun *what* can point both to a thing and a property.

(2) Form. As far as form goes pronouns fall into different types. Some of them have the category of number (singular and plural), e. g. *this,* while others have no such category, e. g. *somebody.* Again, some pronouns have the category of case *(he — him, somebody — somebody's),* while others have none *(something).*

(3) Function. (a) Some pronouns combine with verbs *(he speaks, find him),* while others can also combine with a following noun *(this room).* (b) In the

sentence, some pronouns may be the subject *(he, what)* or the object, while others are the attribute *(my).* Pronouns can be predicatives.

(1) 4. Numerals. The treatment of numerals presents some difficulties, too. The so-called cardinal numerals *(one, two)* are somewhat different from the so-called ordinal numerals *(first, second).*

(2) Meaning. Numerals denote either number or place in a series.

(3) Form. Numerals are invariable.

(4) Function. (a) As far as phrases go, both cardinal and ordinal numerals combine with a following noun *(three rooms, third room);* occasionally a numeral follows a noun *(soldiers three, George the Third).* (b) In a sentence, a numeral most usually is an attribute *(three rooms, the third room),* but it can also be subject, predicative, and object: *Three of them came in time; "We Are Seven"* (the title of a poem by Wordsworth); *I found only four.*

5. The stative. The next item in our list of parts of speech is a controversial one. Such words as *asleep, ablaze, afraid,* etc. have been often named adjectives, though they cannot (apart from a few special cases) be attributes in a sentence, and though their meaning does not seem to be that of property. In spite of protracted discussion that has been going on for some time now, views on this point are as far apart as ever. We will expound here the view that words of the *asleep* type constitute a separate part of speech, and we will consider the various arguments for and against this view in Chapter IX. As for the term "stative", it may be used to denote these words, on the analogy of such terms as "substantive" and "adjective".[1]

(1) Meaning. The meaning of the words of this type is that of a passing state a person or thing happens to be in.

(2) Form. Statives are invariable.

(3) Function. (a) Statives most usually follow a link verb *(was asleep, fell asleep).* Occasionally they can follow a noun *(man olive).* They can also sometimes be preceded by an adverb *(fast asleep).* (b) In the sentence, a

stative is most usually a predicative *(he fell asleep).* They can also be objective predicatives *(I found him asleep)* and attributes, almost always following the noun they modify *(a man asleep in his chair).*

6. The verb.

(1) Meaning. The verb as a part of speech expresses a process.

(2) Form. The verb is characterised by an elaborate system of morphological categories, some of which are, however, controversial.[1] These are: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person, and number.

(3) Function. (a) Verbs are connected with a preceding noun *(children play)* and with a following noun *(play games).* They are also connected with adverbs *(write quickly).* Occasionally a verb may combine with an adjective *(married young). (*b) In a sentence a verb (in its finite forms) is always the predicate or part of it (link verb). The functions of the verbals (infinitive, participle, and gerund) must be dealt with separately.

The adverb.

(1) The meaning of the adverb as a part of speech is hard to define. Indeed, some adverbs indicate time or place of an action *(yesterday, here),* while others indicate its property *(quickly)* and others again the degree of a property *(very).* As, however, we should look for one central meaning characterising the part of speech as a whole, it seems best to formulate the meaning of the adverb as "property of an action or of a property".

(2) Form. Adverbs are invariable. Some of them, however, have degrees of comparison *(fast, faster, fastest).*

(3) Function. (a) An adverb combines with a verb *(run quickly),* with an adjective *(very long),* occasionally with a noun *(the then president)* and with a phrase (so *out of things). (b)* An adverb can sometimes follow a preposition *(from there). (c)* In a sentence an adverb is almost always an adverbial modifier, or part of it *(from there),* but it may occasionally be an attribute.

8. Prepositions. The problem of prepositions has caused very heated discussions, especially in the last few years. Both the meaning and the

syntactical functions of prepositions have been the subject of controversy. We will treat of this matter at some length in Chapter XVIII, and here we will limit ourselves to a brief statement of our general view on the subject.

(1) Meaning. The meaning of prepositions is obviously that of relations between things and phenomena.

(2) Form. Prepositions are invariable.

(3) Function. (a) Prepositions enter into phrases in which they are preceded by a noun, adjective, numeral, stative, verb or adverb, and followed by a noun, adjective, numeral or pronoun. (b) In a sentence a preposition never is a separate part of it. It goes together with the following word to form an object, adverbial modifier, predicative or attribute, and in extremely rare cases a subject *(There were about a hundred people in the hall).*

The problem of conjunctions is of the same order as that of prepositions, but it has attracted less attention. We will reserve full discussion of the matter to Chapter XIX and we will only state here the main points.

(1) Meaning. Conjunctions express connections between things and phenomena.

(2) Form. Conjunctions are invariable.

(3) Function. (a) They connect any two words, phrases or clauses. (b) In a sentence, conjunctions are never a special part of it. They either connect homogeneous parts of a sentence or homogeneous clauses (the so-called co-ordinating conjunctions), or they join a subordinate clause to its head clause (the so-called subordinating conjunctions).

A further remark is necessary here. We have said that prepositions express relations between phenomena, and conjunctions express connections between them. It must be acknowledged that the two notions, relations and connections, are somewhat hard to distinguish. This is confirmed by the well-known fact that phrases of one and the other kind may be more or less synonymous: cf., e. g., *an old man and his son* and *an old man with his son.* It is also confirmed by

the fact that in some cases a preposition and a conjunction may be identical in sound and have the same meaning (e. g. *before* introducing a noun and *before* introducing a subordinate clause; the same about *after).* Since it is hard to distinguish between prepositions and conjunctions as far as meaning goes, and morphologically they are both invariable, the only palpable difference between them appears to be their syntactical function. It may be reasonably doubted whether this is a sufficient basis for considering them to be separate parts of speech. It might be argued that prepositions and conjunctions make up a single part of speech, with subdivisions based on the difference of syntactical functions. Such a view would go some way toward solving the awkward problem of homonymy with reference to such words as *before, after, since,* and the like. However, since this is an issue for further consideration, we will, for the time being, stick to the traditional view of prepositions and conjunctions as separate parts of speech.

10. Particles. By particles we mean such word as *only, solely, exclusively, even (even old people came), just (just turn the handle),* etc. These were traditionally classed with adverbs, from which they, however, differ in more than one respect.

(1) Meaning. The meaning of particles is very hard to define. We might say, approximately, that they denote subjective shades of meaning introduced by the speaker or writer and serving to emphasise or limit some point in what he says.

(2) Form. Particles are invariable.

(3) Function. (a) Particles may combine with practically every part of speech, more usually preceding it *(only three),* but occasionally following it *(for advanced students only). (*b) Particles never are a separate part of a sentence. They enter the part of the sentence formed by the word (or phrase) to which they refer. (It might also be argued that particles do not belong to any part of a sentence.)

11. Modal words. Modal words have only recently been separated from

adverbs, with which they were traditionally taken together. By modal words we mean such words as *perhaps, possibly, certainly.*

(1) Meaning. Modal words express the speaker's evaluation of the relation between an action and reality.

(2) Form. Modal words are invariable.

(3) Function. (a) Modal words usually do not enter any phrases but stand outside them. In a few cases, however, they may enter into a phrase with a noun, adjective, etc. *(he will arrive soon, possibly to-night). (*b) The function of modal words in a sentence is a matter of controversy. We will discuss this question at some length in Chapter XXI and meanwhile we will assume that modal words perform the function of a parenthesis. Modal words may also be a sentence in themselves.

(1) Meaning. Interjections express feelings *(ah, alas).* They are not names of feelings but the immediate expression of them. Some interjections represent noises, etc., with a strong emotional colouring *(bang!).*

(2) Form. Interjections are invariable.

(3) Function. (a) Interjections usually do not enter into phrases. Only in a few cases do they combine with a preposition and noun or pronoun, e.g. *alas for him!* (b) In a sentence an interjection forms a kind of parenthesis. An interjection may also be a sentence in itself, e. g. *Alas!* as an answer to a question.

So far we have been considering parts of speech as they are usually termed and treated in grammatical tradition: we have been considering nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc. Some modern linguists prefer to avoid this traditional grouping and terminology and to establish a classification of types of words based entirely on their morphological characteristics and on their ability (or inability) to enter into phrases with other words of different types. Thus, for instance the words *and* and *or* will fall under one class while the words *because* and *whether* will fall under another class.

These classes are not denoted by special terms, such as "noun" or

"adjective"; instead they are given numbers; thus, the words *concert* and *necessity* would belong to class 1, the words *seem and feel* to class 2, etc. Without even going into details, it is easy to see that the number of such classes is bound to be greater than that of the usual parts of speech. For instance, in the classification proposed by C. C. Fries [1] there are no less than 19 classes of words.

It must be recognised that classifications based on these principles yield more exact results than the traditional ones, but the system thus obtained proves to be unwieldy and certainly unfit for practical language teaching. Whether it can be so modified as to be exact and easily grasped at the same time remains to be seen.

1.2. Grammatical categories of verbs in English

According to the scientist B.A. Ilyish (15) identifies six grammatical categories in present-day English verb: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number.

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling distinguish only the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, and mood. Further they note, that the finite forms of the verb have special means expressing person, number and tense. (4)

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (4): out of the eight grammatical categories of the verb, some are found not only in the finites, but in the verbids as well.

Two of them-voice (ask - be asked), order (ask - have asked) are found in all the verbids, and the third aspect (ask - to be asking) – only in the infinitive.
They distinguish the following grammatical categories: voice, order, aspect, mood, posteriority, person, number.

By the category of voice we mean different grammatical ways of expressing the relation between a transitive verb and its subject and object.

The majority of authors of English theoretical grammars seem to recognize only two voices in English: the active and the passive.

H. Sweet (42), O. Curme (26) recognize two voices. There are such terms, as inverted object, inverted subject and retained object in Sweet's grammar.

The Inverted object is the subject of the passive construction. The Inverted subject is the object of the passive constructions.

The rat was killed by the dog. O. Jespersen (34) calls it "converted subject".

But in the active construction like: "*The examiner asked me three questions*" either of the object words may be the subject of the passive sentence.

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner.

Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words *me* and *three questions* are called retained objects.

H. Poutsma (39) besides the two voices mentioned above finds one more voice – reflexive. He writes: "It has been observed that the meaning of the Greek medium is normally expressed in English by means of reflexive or, less frequently, by reciprocal pronouns". It is because of this H. Poutsma distinguishes in Modern English the third voice. He transfers the system of the Greek grammar into the system of English. He gives the following examples:

He got to bed, covered himself up warm and fell asleep. (E. Hemingway)

The Austrian army was created to give Napoleon victories; any Napoleon. (E. Hemingway)

This grammarian the traditional terms indirect and direct objects replaced by inner and outer complements (words of position 3 and 4) consequently. The passive voice from his point of view is the motion of the words of position 3 and 4 to position one. The verb is transformed into a word-group introduced by parts of *be, become, get* and the original subject is hooked into the end of the sentence by means of the preposition by.

The most of them recognize the existence of the category of voice in present-day English. To this group of scientists we refer A.I. Smirnitsky (20), L. Barkhudarov, L. Steling (14), Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's (22) according to

their opinion there are two active and passive voices. But some others maintain that there are three voices in English. Besides the two mentioned they consider the reflexive voice which is expressed by the help of semantically weakened self-pronouns as in the sentence:

He cut himself while shaving.

B.A. Ilyish (15) besides the three voices mentioned distinguishes two more: the reciprocal voice expressed with the help of each-other, one another and the neuter (“middle”) voice in such sentences as: *The door opened. The college was filling up*.

The conception reminds us Poutsma's view. (39) He writes: "A passive meaning may also not seldom be observed in verbs that have thrown off the reflexive pronoun and have, consequently, become intransitive. Thus, we find it more or less distinctly in the verbs used in: *Her eyes filled with tears* ..."

We cannot but agree with arguments against these theories expressed by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: "These theories do not carry much conviction, because:

1) in cases like he washed himself it is not the verb that is reflexive but that pronoun himself used as a direct object;

2) washed and himself are words belonging to different lexemes. They have different lexical and grammatical meanings;

3) if we regard washed himself as an analytical word, it is necessary to admit that the verb has the categories of gender, person, non-person (washed himself-washed itself), that the categories of number and person are expressed twice in the word-group washed himself;

4) similar objection can be raised against regarding washed each-other, washed one another as analytical forms of the reciprocal voice. The difference between "each other" and "one another" would become a grammatical category of the verb;

5) A number of verbs express the reflexive meanings without the corresponding pronouns: *He always washes in cold water. Kiss and be friends*.

The grammatical categories of voice is formed by the opposition of covert and overt morphemes. The active voice is formed by a zero marker: while the passive voice is formed by (be-ed). So the active voice is the unmarked one and the passive-marked.

To ask- to be asked

The morpheme of the marked form we may call a discontinuous morpheme.

From the point of view of some grammarians O. Jespersen (33), O. Curme (26), G. Vorontsova (11) verbs get / become к Participle II are passive constructions. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) seem to be right when they say that in such constructions get / become always retain lexical meanings.

Different opinions are observed as to the P II.

G. V. Vorontsova (11), L. Barkhudarov and D. Steling (4) the combination be к PII in all cases treat as a passive voice if PII is not adjectivized (if particles very, too and adverbs of degree more (most) do not precede PII on the ground that PII first and foremost, a verb, the idea of state not being an evident to this structure but resulting from the lexical meaning of the verb and the context it occurs in).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) arguing against this conception write that in such cases as: His duty is fulfilled we deal with a link verb кPII since:

1) it does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action:

2) The sentence correspond rather *He has fulfilled his duty*, as the perfective meaning of Participle II is particularly prominent.

The problem of the category of mood i.e., the distinction, between the real and unreal expressed by the corresponding forms of the verb is one of the most controversial problems of English theoretical grammar. The main theoretical difficulty is due:

1) to the coexistence in Modern English of both synthetical and analytical forms of the verb with the same grammatical meaning of unreality and

2) to the fact that there are verbal forms homonymous with the Past Indefinite and Past Perfect of the Indicative Mood which are employed to express unreality. Another difficulty consists in distinguishing the analytical forms of the subjunctive with the auxiliaries should would, may (might) which are devoid of any lexical meaning.

Opinions differ in the establishment of the number of moods in English.

Below we'll consider views of some grammarians on the problem.

H. Sweet (42): "By the moods of a verb we understand grammatical forms expressing different relations between subject and predicate".

1. There are two moods in English which oppose to each other

Thought -form fact mood

The thought- form is divided into 3 moods:

1. conditional mood-the combination of should and would with the infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.

2. permissive mood-the combination of may/might with the infinitive.

3. compulsive mood-the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine. If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do.

G.O. Curme (26): “Moods are the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker”.

He distinguishes three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.

2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.

3. The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present

subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopeless, likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality;

I wished we had a Napoleon, but instead we had Ii Generale Cadorna, fat and prosperous and Vittorio Emmanuele, the tiny man with the long thin neck and the goat beard. (E. Hemingway)

I would eat quickly and go and see Catherine Barkley. (E. Hemingway)

I fear he may come too late. (E. Hemingway)

"It would have only be worse if we had stopped fighting." (E. Hemingway)

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action expressed by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive are found in almost all the grammars of Russian grammarians. We say «almost» because Barkhudarov and Steling (4) consider only the first and third.

- in the indicative mood the speaker presents the action as taking place in reality;
- in the imperative mood the speaker urges the listener to perform some action.
- in subjunctive mood the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

As to the number of mood we do not find common opinion: Smirnitsky and some others speak of six moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive I, subjunctive II, conditional and suppositional).

B. Ilyish and Ivanova (14) find three (Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive) B.A. Ilyish divides the latter into two forms-the conditional and the subjunctive and so on.

The indicative mood is the basic mood of the verb. Morphologically it is the most developed category of the verb.

According to Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) the grammarians are unanimous about the meaning of the Subjunctive Mood. While in all other respects

opinions differ. It seems interesting to compare the opinions of Whitehall (43) (above) and Khaimovich on the problem: “The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use”.

O. Jespersen (33) argues against Sweet's definition of Mood; he writes that it would be more correct to say that mood expresses certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence.

P. Whitehall (43): “Although the subjunctive is gradually dying out of the language, English is rich in devices for expressing one’s psychological moods toward happenings that are imaginary”.

Other Categories of the Verbs

Besides the already discussed categories of the verb, there are some other categories like aspect, order, posteriority, tense and others.

These categories are very often mixed up: most authors consider them within the tense category. To illustrate this we'll view the conception of Henry Sweet.

To H. Sweet (42) there are three tenses in English. "Tense is primarily the grammatical expression of distinctions of time".

Every occurrence, considered from the point of view of time, must be either past (I was here yesterday), present (he is here today), or future (he will be here tomorrow).

Simple and Compound Tenses: The present, preterite and future are simple tenses. All the perfect tenses are referred by him to compound tense. These tenses combine present, past and future respectively with a time anterior to each of these periods:

present perfect = preterite к preterite;

pluperfect (past p.) = pre-preterite к preterite;

future perfect = pre - future ҡ future

Primary and secondary Tenses: He writes: “When we speak of an occurrence as past, we must have some point of time from which to measure it.

When we measure the time of an occurrence from the time when we are speaking, that is, from the present, the tense which expresses the time of the occurrence is called a primary tense. The present, preterite, future and perfect (the present perfect) are primary tenses.

A secondary tense on the other hand, is measured not from the time when we are speaking, but from some past or future time of which we are speaking and consequently a sentence containing secondary tense makes us expect another sentence containing a verb in a primary tense to show the time from which that of the secondary tense is to be measured. The pluperfect and future perfect are both secondary tenses.

He will have told her about his friends by the time they (the quests) arrived.(E. Hemingway)

He had told her about his friends when the quests arrived.
(E. Hemingway)

Complete and Incomplete Tenses. The explanation of this classification of tenses by H. Sweet is vague and confused because he mixes up the lexical and grammatical means, compare:

Passini has lived his life. (E. Hemingway)
1 have lived here a good many years. (E. Hemingway)

The first is complete and second is incomplete. As one can see there's no difference in the form of verbs. He makes his division because of different

distribution of the tense forms. But one point is clear in his conception. He considers continuous tense to be also incomplete as for instance:

The clock is striking twelve while.

The clock has struck twelve. (complete)

Continuous Tenses are opposed to Point-Tenses:

I've been writing letters all day.(E. Hemingway)

We set out for France. (E.Hemingway)

Though even here we observe some confusion. Such examples are also considered to be continuous or recurrent:

He goes to France twice a year.

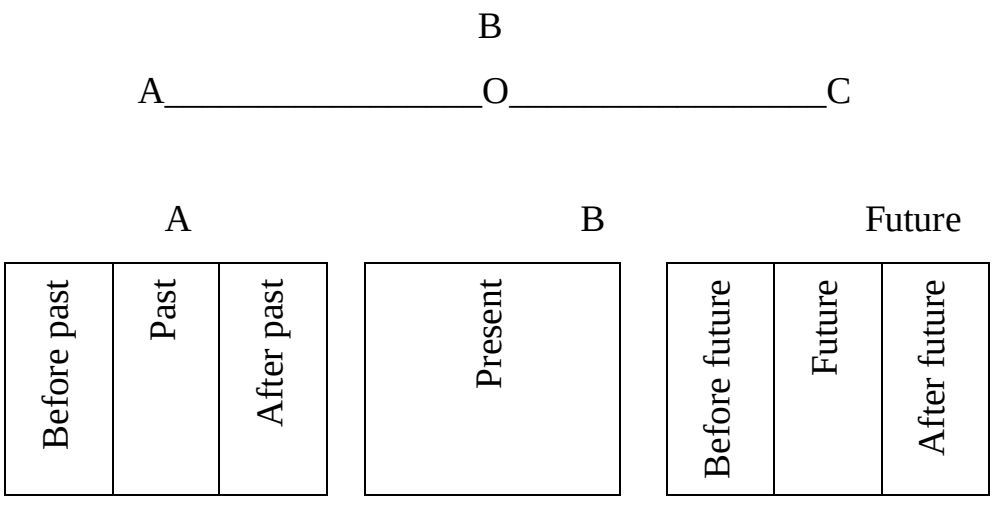
Definite and Indefinite Tenses: the shorter a tense is, the more definite it generally is in duration. Long times (continuous and recurrent) - are generally more indefinite:

I write my letters in the evenings.

I am writing a letter.

Q. Jespersen (34):

O. Jeperson's view of the grammatical tenses in English is illustrated in the table below:



After-past time: I know of no language which possesses a simple tense for this notion. A usual meaning “obligation” in English most often is expressed by “was to”:

Next year she gave birth to a son who was to cause her great anxiety.

After future. This has a chiefly theoretical interest, and I doubt very much whether forms like I shall be going to rewrite (which implies nearness in time to the chief future time is of very frequent occurrence).

The Continuous tenses he calls expanded ones: *is writing, will be asking, will have been asking* ... or composite tense-forms.

The categories of tense, aspect and order characterize an action from different points of view.

The tense of a verb shows the time of the action; the aspect of a verb deals with the development of the action, while order denotes the order of the actions.

When discussing grammatical categories we accepted that a grammatical category is a grammatical meaning which has a certain grammatical means to be expressed.

The analyses of the following example will help us to make certain conclusions: *When you come he will have been writing his composition*. The predicates of the sentence are in the indicative mood. And, as has been stated, it is in this mood all the grammatical categories of the verb are expressed. The tense is future and it is expressed by the auxiliary word/verb will. The order is prior and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb have к *-en* or *-ed*. The aspect is continuous and it is expressed by the auxiliary verb be к *ing*.

Since all these categories have their own means we may call them grammatical ones. And as any category must have certain opposition (while defining the grammatical categories we defined it as “at least having two individual forms”).

The category of tense is orientated with regard to the present tense. The tense category is the system of three-member opposition. So the present tense may be called as the point of measurement or orientation point.

The category of order is a system of two-member opposition: prior and non-prior. Compare:

I work - I have worked.

So the prior order marker have ҡ *ed* is opposite to the zero of non-prior. As in English there are three tenses. This grammatical category can be expressed in all of them. Present: *I work – I have worked. Past: I worked – I had worked. Future: I shall work – I shall have worked.*

The category of aspect is a system of two-member opposition: Continuous – Non-continuous: *I work – I am working.*

To be - *ing* is the morpheme of the continuous meaning. This category is found in all the three tenses.

Present: *I work – I am working.*

Past: *I worked – I was working.*

Future: *I'll work – I'll be working.*

The means of expression of these categories are arranged in a certain sequence. In the active voice they are arranged in the following way:

Tense is expressed in the first component of the predicate: order – in first or second (second if it is in the future tense), aspect – in the second or third components. The order means always precede the aspect means if both are found in the predicate.

If the predicate is in the passive voice the tense is again expressed by the first component of it while the means of the passive voice follows the means of the aspect and order categories.

Note: In the future tense the passive meaning and the aspect (continuous) is incompatible.

1.3. The category of voice in English

The category of voice presents us with its own batch of difficulties. In their main character, they have something in common with the difficulties of mood: there is no strict one –way correspondence between meaning and means of expression. Thus, for instance, in the sentence, *I opened the door* and in the

sentence *the door opened*, the meaning is obviously different, whereas the form of the verb same in both cases. To give another example: in the *sentence he shaved the customer* and in the *sentence he shaved and went out* the meaning is different, (the second sentence means that he shaved himself), but no difference is to be found in the form of the verb.

We are therefore bound to adopt a principle in distinguished the voice of the English verb: what shall we take as a starting –point, meaning, or form, or both, and if both, in what proportion, or in what mutual relation?

As to the definition of the category of voice, there are two main views. According to one of them this category expresses the relation between the subject and the action. Only these two are mentioned in the definition. According to the other view, the category of voice expresses the relation between the subject and the object of the action. In this case the object is introduced into the definition of voice. We will not at present try to solve this question with reference to the English language. We will keep both variants of the definition in mind and we will come back to them afterwards.

Before we start on our investigation, however, we ought to define more precisely what is meant by the expression "relation between subject and action". Let us take two simple examples: He invited his friends and He was invited by his friends. The relation between the subject (he) and the action (invite) in the two sentence are different since in the sentence He invited his friends he performs the action, and may be said to be the doer, whereas in the sentence He was invited by his friends he does not act and is not the doer but the object of the action. There may also be other kinds of relations, which we mention in due course.

The obvious opposition within the category of voice is that between active and passive. This has not been disputed by any scholar; however views may differ concerning other voices. This opposition may be illustrated by a number of parallel forms involving different categories of aspect, tense, correlation, and mood. We will mention only a few pairs of this kind, since the other possible pairs can be easily supplied.

Invites – is invited

Is inviting – is being invited

Invited – was invited

Has invited – has been invited

Should invite – should be invited

From the point of view of form the passive voice is the marked member of the opposition: its characteristic is the pattern *"be* + second participle", whereas the active voice is unmarked: its characteristic is the absence of that pattern.

It should noted that some forms of the active voice find no parallel in the passive, viz. the forms of the future continuous, present perfect continuous, past perfect continuous, and future perfect continuous. Thus the form *will be inviting, has been inviting, had been inviting,* and *will have been inviting* have nothing to correspond to them in the passive voice.

With this proviso we can state that the active and the passive constitute a complete system of oppositions within the category of voice.

The question now is, whether there are other voices in the English verb, besides active and passive. It is here that we find doubts and much controversy.

At various times, the following three voices have been suggested in addition to the two already mentioned:

(1) the reflexive, as in *he dressed himself,*

(2) the reciprocal, as in *they greeted each other*, an

(3) the middle voice, as in *the door opened* (as distinct from *I opened the door).*

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[7].Difficulties of a somewhat similar kind are also found in dealing with voices of the Russian verb. On the one hand, the same external sign (the, affix -ся) may express different meanings, viz. reflexive (бриться), reciprocal (ссориться), passive (строиться), etc., and on the other, the same meaning (passive) may be expressed both by the affix – ся and by the pattern "быть+ participle in", e.g. дом был построен. See В.В. Виноградов, Русский язык. Стр. 639 сл.

[8].See грамматика русского языка**, т.** 1,1953. 412. The problem is treated in Academician V. Vinogradov's book, h. 607ff.

It is evident that the problem of voice is very intimately connected with that of transitive and intransitive verbs, which has also been variously treated by different scholars. It seems now universally agreed that transitivity is not in itself

a voice, so we could not speak of a “transitive voice”; the exact relation between voice and transitivity remains, however, somewhat doubtful. It is far from clear whether transitivity is a grammatical notion, or a characteristic of the lexical meaning of the verb.

In view of such constructions as he was spoken of he was taken care of, the bed had not been slept in, etc., we should perhaps say that the vital point is the objective character of the verb, rather than its transitivity: the formation of a passive voice is possible if the verb denotes an action relating to some object. Last not least, we must mention another problem: what part are syntactic considerations to play in analyzing the problem of voice?

Having enumerated briefly the chief difficulties in the analysis of voice in Modern English, we shall now proceed in inquire into each of these problems, trying to find objective criteria as far as this is possible, and pointing out those problems in which any solution is bound to be more or less arbitrary and none can be shown, to be the correct one by any irrefutable proofs.

The problem of a reflexive voice

Taking, then, first, the problem of the reflexive voice, we will formulate it in the following way. Can the group “verb + self-pronoun” (i.e. myself, himself, ourselves, etc.) be the reflexive voice of a verb, that is can the self –pronouns ever be auxiliary words serving to derive a voice form of the verb? This is putting the problem in purely morphological terms. But it also has a syntactical side to it From the syntactical viewpoint it can be formulated in another way: does a self-pronoun coming after a verb always perform the function of a separate part of the sentence (the direct object), or can it (in some cases at least) be within the same part of the sentence as the verb preceding it (in the vast majority of cases this would be the predicate)?

If we approach this question from the point of view of meaning, we shall see that different cases may be found here. For instance, in the sentence *He hurt himself badly* we might argue that *himself* denotes the object of the action and

stands in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun: *he hurt himself badly* would then be parallel to a sentence like *he hurl me badly*. On the other hand, in a sentence like *He found himself in a dark room* things are different: we could not say that *he found himself*. Here, therefore, doubt is at least possible as to whether *himself* is a separate part of the sentence, namely, a direct object, or weather it is part of the predicate. We might possibly have to class *he hurt himself* and *he found himself* (in a dark room) under different headings and this would influence our general conclusions on the category of voice.[9]

Considerations of this kind cannot, however, bring a about a solution that would be binding and could not be countered by a different solution which might also be confirmed by more or less valid reasons. If we are to achieve some objective solution, we have to rely on objective data in this case, as in so many other cases.

Objective investigation requires that we should find various syntactic contexts or patterns in which the group "verb + *self* pronoun" can appear. For instance, we ought to look for examples of the pattern "verb +*self* –pronoun + *and* + noun or pronoun". If such examples can be found, they will argue in favour of the view that the *self* –pronoun standing after a verb are actually treated as standing in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action. If, on the other hand, no such example could be found, [4] this would go some way towards proving that a *self* –pronoun is not apprehended as standing in the same relation to the verb as any other noun or pronoun following it, and this would be an argument in favor of acknowledging a reflexive voice in the Modern English verb. Other considerations of a syntactical character might also influence our judgment on this question.

The problem has been treated by O. Ovchinnikova, who has collected some examples of the pattern "verb + *self*-pronoun + *and* + noun or pronoun", for instance *I see this man Meek doing everything that is natural to a complete man:*

9 Блох М.Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. М.1984.

carpentering, painting, digging, pulling and hauling, fetching and carrying, helping himself and everybody else… (E. Hemingway) and also examples of a noun functioning as apposition to the *self*-pronoun which comes after a verb, e.g. / *am defending myself – an accused communist.* (FOX) These cases, few as they are, show that a *self*-pronoun following a verb can at least be apprehended as a separate member of the sentence. If it were only part of the predicate it obviously could not have an apposition attached to it. So we may take it as proved that in some cases at least the *self*-pronoun following a verb is not an auxiliary word serving to express a voice category of the verb[10].

But the question remains, what we are to make of cases such as the following: *It was done, and Catherine found herself alone in the Gallery before the clocks had ceased to strike.* (*E. Hemingway*) Here the self–pronoun cannot either be joined by *and* to a noun (pronoun), or have a noun in apposition attached to it. Without going into many details concerning these cases, we can merely say that two ways are here open to us.

One way is to say that, since in a number of cases the *self-pronoun* is not an auxiliary word used to form a verbal voice, it is never an auxiliary. Then we should have to treat such cases as *he found himself* . . . etc. as phraseological units and refer their peculiarities to the sphere of lexicology rather than of grammar. [5]

The other way would be to say that in some cases a *self –pronoun* does become in auxiliary of voice. Then *to find oneself* would be treated as a form of the reflexive voice of the verb *find* and the group (and, of course, other groups of a similar kind) would remain in the sphere of grammar and we should recognize a reflexive voice in English. There seems at present no binding argument in favor of one or the other solution. We shall have to leave the question open until such a solution can be found.

The treatment of the problem would be incomplete if we did not mention the cases when a verb is used without a *self-pronoun* to denote an action which the

10 See О. Г. Овчинникова, Сочетания “глагол + self-местоимение” и вопрос о возвратном залоге в современном английском языке. Автореферат канд. дисс., 1963.

‘doer performs on himself. Examples of this kind are not numerous. We can mention the verb *dress*, which may be used to mean ‘dress oneself, and the verb *wash*, which may be to used mean ‘wash oneself. This is seen, for example, in sentence like the following: *At daybreak the next morning Catherine got up and dressed.* (E Hemingway) As we see, these verbs denote habitual everyday actions and this appears to be essential for the possibility of such a usage. It would not, for instance, be possible to use the verb *hurt* in the sense of ‘hurt oneself, or the verb *accuse* in the sense of ‘accuse oneself, etc. Since in the sentence *he dressed quickly* there is no *self* –pronoun and no other special sign to indicate that the doer is performing the action on himself, we cannot include such cases under the category of the reflexive voice even if we were to recognize the existence of such a voice, which, as we have seen, cannot be objectively established.

Cases of this kind will best be considered together with the problem of the middle voice, which see.

Under this heading we will consider formations like *greeted each other,* or *loved each other,* or *praised one another*. The problem is somewhat similar to that of the reflexive voice, and it is this: Does the group *each other* (and the group *one another)* make part of an analytical verb form, that is, is it an auxiliary element used for forming a special voice of the verb, the reciprocal voice, or is it always a separate secondary part of the sentence (though it is hard to tell exactly what part of the sentence it may be)?

We might seek a solution to the question on the same lines as with the reflexive voice, that is, we might try to find out whether the group *each other* (or *one another*) is ever found to be coordinated with a noun or pronoun serving as object to the verb. We should have to see whether such a sentence is ever found as this one: *They kissed each other and the child*, etc. However, such a search would be very hard and not promising at all. Very possibly, we would not find a single example of that kind, but this could not be considered as a proof that *each other* (or *one another*) does serve as an auxiliary to form the reciprocal voice of the verb

(*kiss* in this example). We will not go into this question any deeper and we will limit ourselves to the following conclusion. The solution of the question must remain to a certain extent arbitrary. But, putting together this question and the question of the reflexive voice as discussed above, me may state that the grounds for assuming a special reciprocal voice are weaker than those for assuming a reflexive voice. Therefore if we reject the reflexive voice, we will certainly reject the reciprocal voice as well. If, on the other hand, we accept the reflexive voice, the question about the reciprocal voice will remain open.

As in the case of the reflexive voice, we must also mention the instances, which are rather few, when a verb denotes a reciprocal action without the help of the group *each other* or *one another*. For instance, in the sentence They *kissed and parted, kissed* is of course equivalent to *kissed each other*. Since there is no external sign of reciprocity, we cannot find here a reciprocal voice eve if we should admit its existence in the language. These cases will also best be considered under the heading “middle voice”.

THE PROBLEM OF A MIDDLE VOICE

This problem arises chiefly in connection with the possible double use of a number of verbs in Modern English. Compare, for instance, such pairs of sentences as these:

I opened the door	*The door opened*
I burnt the paper	*The paper burnt*
I boiled the water	*The water boiled*
We resumed the conference	*The conference resumed*
We apply the rule to many cases	*The rule applies to many cases*

Firs let us formulate what it established and does not depend on anybody’s point of view or interpretation, and then we will proceed to analyse the questions which admit of different solutions.

The facts, then are these. In the sentence of the first and in those of the second column we have verb forms sounding alike but differing from each other in two important points:

(1) In the first column, the verb denotes an action which is performed by the doer on an object in such a way that a change is brought about in that object, for instance, the door was closed and then I acted in such a way that the door became open; the paper was intact, but, I subject it to the action if fire, and it was reduced to ashes, etc.

In the second column a process is stated which is going on in the subject itself: the door opened (as if of its own will), the paper disappeared in flames, etc. Compare,

E.g., *His camp had filled*. (E. Hemingway).

The teas making. (E. Hemingway).

This, of course, is a difference in the relation between the subject and the action (and for the first column, the object

(2) In the first column, the verb in followed by a noun (or pronoun) denoting the thing which is subjected to the action denoted by the verb. In the second column, the verb is not followed by any noun (or pronoun). In the first column the verb is transitive; in the second column the verb is intransitive.

What we have said so far is nothing but an objective description of the state of things found in these sentences, no matter what theory a scholar may prefer.

Now we must turn our attention to the possible theoretical interpretation of these facts, and here the problem of voice will arise.

One possible interpretation is this. In every line we have in the two columns two different verbs which may be represented in some such way as: *open*, verb transitive, *open*, verb intransitive; *burn*, verb transitive, *burn*, verb intransitive, etc. If this interpretation were adopted, the whole problem would be shifted into the sphere of lexicology, and from the grammatical viewpoint we should have to state

that *open* here stands in the active voice (correlative with *was opened*), and *open* has no voice

distinction at all (since from the intransitive verb *open* no mutually opposed voice forms can be derived).[6]

Another interpretation would run something like this. In both columns we have the same verb *open*, the same verb *burn*, etc. and the difference between the two is a difference of voice: in the first column it is the active voice (showing an action performed by the doer on the object), while in the second column it is the middle voice, denoting a process going on within the subject, without affecting any object. The difference between the voices, though not expressed by any morphological signs, would then be a difference in meaning and in syntactical construction, the active voice characterized by connection with a following noun or pronoun denoting the object of the action, and the middle voice characterized by the impossibility of connection with such a noun or pronoun. This interpretation would mean the admission of a special voice, the middle voice.

Still another interpretation would be the following. The verb in both columns is the same and the voice is the same, too, since there is no morphological difference between the two columns, and differences of meaning and of syntactical construction are not sufficient reason for establishing a difference of voice. If this view is accepted, we should have to define the category of active voice in such a way that it should include both the first– column and the second–column examples.

The choice between these interpretations depends on the principles which a scholar considers to be the most essential and the most likely to yield an adequate picture of language facts. If, for instance, it is considered essential that a difference in grammatical categories should find its outward expression by some morpheme, etc., the second of the three suggested interpretations will have to be rejected. If, on the other hand, it is considered possible for two morphological categories to be

11 Ganshina M.A., Vasilevskaya M.A. English Grammar. M., 1964, 620 p.

distinguished in meaning and syntactical use without any special morphemes to sow the distinction, that second interpretation will be found acceptable.

Without prejudice to the first or second interpretation, we will now follow up the third, which seems to present the greatest from a theoretical point of view. In doing so, we will assume that we do not accept either a reflexive or a reciprocal or a middle voice, so that only two voices are left, the active and the passive. If, then, we are to bring under the heading of the active voice such cases as *the door opened, the paper burnt, the water boiled, etc.*, we shall have to give that voice a definition wide enough to include all uses of that kind as well (this may make it necessary to change the term for the voice, too).

Let us now consider the opposition between the voices: *opened* (in any sense)/ *was opened; burnt* (in any sense)/ *was burnt* from the point of view of meaning.

E.g.: *The window was open, my bed was made up with blankets and my things hung on the wall, the gas mask in an oblong tin can, the steel helmet on the same peg. (E. Hemingway)*

The ground was torn up and in front of my head there was a splintered beam of wood. (E. Hemingway)

It should at once be clear that the second member of the opposition (*was opened,* etc.) has a much more definite meaning than the first: the meaning of the type *was opened* is that subject is represented as acted upon, whereas the meaning of the first member (*opened*, etc.) is much less definite. We could, then, say that *opened* is the unmarked, and *was opened*, the marked member of the opposition. The meaning of the unmarked member is, as has often been the case, hard to define. What seems the essential point in its meaning is, that the subject is represented as connected with the origin of the action, and merely acted upon from the outside. Some such definition would seem to cover both the type *he opened the door,* and the type *the door opened*. Whether the subject produces a change in an object, or whether the action is limited to the sphere of the subject itself – all these

and similar points would depend partly on the syntactical context (on whether the verb is followed by a noun / pronoun or not), partly on the lexical meaning of the verb and its relation to the lexical meaning of the noun expressing the subject (compare *the old man opened…* and *the door opened*), partly, probably, on a number of other factors which are yet to be studied. The question whether it is more advisable to keep the term "active voice" or to substitute another term for it would also have to be discussed.

If this view is adopted, all the special cases considered above: *he shaved* (in the reflexive meaning), *they kissed* (in the reciprocal meaning) would fall under the heading of the active voice (if this term is kept) and their peculiarities would have to be referred to the context, the lexical meaning of the verb in question, etc.

The following phenomena would also belong here: *the book sells well, the figures would not add, the rule does not apply in this case* (as different from *we do not apply the rule),* and a number of others, which have been variously treated as "absolute use", use of the active form in a passive meaning, etc.

E.g:.*"And the priest was locked up," Rocca said, "because they found the three per cent bonds on his person. (E. Hemingway.)*

She contentedly lapsed back into her own thought. (E. Hemingway)

The responsibility for these nature mistakes is found to occur. The responsibility for this is my own. (E. Hemingway)

I am *thoroughly ashamed of myself. (E. Hemingway)*

As to form, it has been already said above that the passive is the marked, and the active the unmarked member of the opposition. Thus, then, the passive is marked both in meaning and in form and the active as unmarked both in meaning and in form.

This solution of the voice problem in Modern English appears to be convincing. However the other interpretations (mentioned above as first and second) ought also to be reasoned out to their logical conclusions.

Chapter II. Contextual features and semantic properties of the Active voice forms used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

2.1. The structural types of the Active voice form used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

Active voice is a grammatical voice common in many of the world's languages. It is the unmarked voice for clauses featuring a transitive verb in nominative–accusative languages, including English and most other Indo-European languages.

Active voice is used in a clause whose subject expresses the agent of the main verb. That is, the subject does the action designated by the verb. A sentence whose agent is marked as grammatical subject is called an active sentence. In contrast, a sentence in which the subject has the role of patient or theme is called a passive sentence, and its verb is expressed in passive voice. Many languages have both an active and a passive voice; this allows for greater flexibility in sentence construction, as either the semantic agent or patient may take the syntactic role of subject. Some examples for active voice:

I dried my hands and took out my pocket-book from the inside of my tunic hanging on the wall. (E. Hemingway, "Farewell to arms")

We two were talking while the others argued. (E. Hemingway)

The battery in the next garden woke me in the morning and I saw the sun coming through the window and got out of the bed. I went to the window and looked out. The gravel paths were moist and the grass was wet with dew. (E. Hemingway)

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of is the combination of the auxiliary *be* with

the past participle of the conjugated verb. The passive form as the strong member of the opposition expresses reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction; the active form as the weak member of opposition leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. it expresses "non-passivity".

The big problem in connection with the voice identification in English is the problem of "medial" voices, i.e. the functioning of the voice forms in other than the passive or active meanings. All the medial voice uses are effected within the functional range of the unmarked member of the voice opposition. Let us consider the following examples:

I will shave and wash, and be ready for breakfast in half an hour. I'm afraid Mary hasn't dressed up yet. Now I see your son is thoroughly preparing for the entrance examinations. (E. Hemingway)

The indicated verbs in the given sentences are objective, transitive, used absolutely, in the form of the active voice. But the real voice meaning rendered by the verb-entries is not active, since the actions expressed are not passed from the subject to any outer object; on the contrary, these actions are confined to no other participant of the situation than the subject, the latter constituting its own object of the action performance. This kind of verbal meaning of the action performed by the subject upon itself is classed as "reflexive". The same meaning can be rendered explicit by combining the verb with the reflexive "self-pronoun: I will shave myself, wash myself; Mary hasn't dressed herself up yet; your son is thoroughly preparing himself.

The cited reflexive and reciprocal uses of verbs are open to consideration as special grammatical voices, called, respectively, "reflexive" and "reciprocal". The reflexive and reciprocal pronouns within the framework of the hypothetical voice identification of the uses in question should be looked upon as the voice auxiliaries.

That the verb-forms in the given collocations do render the idea of the direction of situational action is indisputable, and in this sense the considered verbal meanings are those of voice. On the other hand, the uses in question evidently lack a

generalising force necessary for any lingual unit type or combination type to be classed as grammatical. The reflexive and reciprocal pronouns, for their part, are still positional members of the sentence, though phrasemically bound with their notional kernel elements. The inference is that the forms are not grammatical-categorial; they are phrasal-derivative, though grammatically relevant. The verbs in reflexive and reciprocal uses in combination with the reflexive and reciprocal pronouns may be called, respectively, "reflexivised" and "reciprocalised". Used absolutively, they are just reflexive and reciprocal variants of their lexemes.

Subject to reflexivisation and reciprocalisation may be not only natively reflexive and reciprocal lexemic variants, but other verbs as well.

Ex.: *The professor was arguing with himself, as usual. The parties have been accusing one another vehemently. (E. Hemingway)*

I had been driving and I sat in the car and the driver took the papers in. (E. Hemingway)

They were moderately clean, a few freshly washed, the others dusty. (E. Hemingway)

To distinguish between the two cases of the considered phrasal-derivative process, the former can be classed as "organic", the latter as "inorganic" reflexivisation and reciprocalisation.

The derivative, i.e. lexemic expression of voice meanings may be likened, with due alteration of details, to the lexemic expression of aspective meanings. In the domain of aspectuality we also find derivative aspects, having a set of lexical markers (verbal post-positions) and generalised as limitive and non-limitive. Alongside of the considered two, there is still a third use of the verb in English directly connected with the grammatical voice distinctions.

This use can be shown on the following examples: *The new paper-backs are selling excellently. The suggested procedure will hardly apply to all the*

instances. Large native cigarettes smoked easily and coolly. Perhaps the loin chop will eat better than it looks. (E. Hemingway)

The actions expressed by the otherwise transitive verbs in the cited examples are confined to the subject, though not in a way of active self-transitive subject performance, but as if going on of their own accord. The presentation of the verbal action of this type comes under the heading of the "middle" voice. However, lacking both regularity and an outer form of expression, it is natural to understand the "middle" voice uses of verbs as cases of neutralising reduction of the voice opposition. The peculiarity of the voice neutralisation of this kind is, that the weak member of opposition used in the position of neutralisation does not fully coincide in function with the strong member, but rather is located somewhere in between the two functional borders. Hence, its "middle" quality is truly reflected in its name. Compare the shown middle type neutralisation of voice in the infinitive: She was delightful to look at, witty to talk to — altogether the most charming of companions. You have explained so fully everything there is to explain that there is no need for me to ask questions.

2.2. The structural types of the Passive voice form used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

The structural types of passive voice show the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction.

The voice of the English verb is expressed by the opposition of the passive form of the verb to the active form of the verb. The sign marking the passive form is the combination of the auxiliary be with the past participle of the conjugated verb (in symbolic notation: be ...). The passive form as the strong member of the opposition expresses reception of the action by the subject of the syntactic construction (i.e. the "passive" subject, denoting the object of the action); the active form as the weak member of the opposition leaves this meaning unspecified, i.e. it expresses "non-passivity".

In colloquial speech the role of the passive auxiliary can occasionally be

performed by the verb get and, probably, become.

Cf.: *Rinaldi got licked for a good reason, though not by me. The young violinist became admired by all. (E. Hemingway)*

The category of voice has a much broader representation in the system of the English verb than in the system of the Russian verb, since in English not only transitive, but also intransitive objective verbs including prepositional ones can be used in the passive (the preposition being retained in the absolutive location). Besides, verbs taking not one, but two objects, as a rule, can feature both of them in the position of the passive subject.

E.g.: I've just been rung up by the police. The diplomat was refused transit facilities through London.

She was undisturbed by the frown on his face. Have you ever been told that you're very good looking? He was said to have been very wild in his youth. The dress has never been tried on. The child will be looked after all right. I won't be talked to like this. (E. Hemingway)

Still, not all the verbs capable of taking an object are actually used in the passive. In particular, the passive form is alien to many verbs of the statal subclass (displaying a weak dynamic force), such as have (direct possessive meaning), belong, cost, resemble, fail, misgive, etc. Thus, in accord with their relation to the passive voice, all the verbs can be divided into two large sets: the set of passivised verbs and the set of non-passivised verbs.

A question then should be posed whether the category of voice is a full-representative verbal category, i.e. represented in the system of the verb as a whole, or a partial-representative category, confined only to the passivised verbal set. Considerations of both form and function tend to interpret voice rather as a full-representative category, the same as person, number, tense, and aspect. Three reasons can be given to back this appraisal.

First, the integral categorial presentation of non-passivised verbs fully

coincides with that of passivised verbs used in the active voice (cf. takes — goes, is taking — is going, has taken — has gone, etc.). Second, the active voice as the weak member of the categorial opposition is characterised in general not by the "active" meaning as such (i.e. necessarily featuring the subject as the doer of the action), but by the extensive non-passive meaning of a very wide range of actual significations, some of them approaching by their process-direction characteristics those of non-passivised verbs (cf. The door opens inside the room; The magazine doesn't sell well). Third, the demarcation line between the passivised and non-passivised sets is by no means rigid, and the verbs of the non-passivised order may migrate into the passivised order in various contextual conditions

Thus, the category of voice should be interpreted as being reflected in the whole system of verbs, the non-passivised verbs presenting the active voice form if not directly, then indirectly.

As a regular categorial form of the verb, the passive voice is combined in the same lexeme with other oppositionally strong forms of the verbal categories of the tense-aspect system, i.e. the past, the future, the continuous, the perfect. But it has a neutralising effect on the category of development in the forms where the auxiliary be must be doubly employed as a verbid (the infinitive, the present participle, the past participle), so that the future continuous passive, as well as the perfect continuous passive are practically not used in speech. As a result, the future continuous active has as its regular counterpart by the voice opposition the future indefinite passive; the perfect continuous active in all the tense-forms has as its regular counterpart the perfect indefinite passive.

Cf.:*The police will be keeping an army of reporters at bay. → An army of reporters will be kept at bay by the police. We have been expecting the decision for a long time. —» The decision has been expected for a long time.*

The category of voice differs radically from all the other hitherto considered categories from the point of view of its referential qualities. Indeed, all the

previously described categories reflect various characteristics of processes, both direct and oblique, as certain facts of reality existing irrespective of the speaker's perception. For instance, the verbal category of person expresses the personal relation of the process. The verbal number, together with person, expresses its person-numerical relation. The verbal primary time denotes the absolutive timing of the process, i.e. its timing in reference to the moment of speech. The category of prospect expresses the timing of the process from the point of view of its relation to the plane of posteriority. Finally, the analysed aspects characterise the respective inner qualities of the process. So, each of these categories does disclose some actual property of the process denoted by the verb, adding more and more particulars to the depicted processual situation. But we cannot say the same about the category of voice.

As a matter of fact, the situation reflected by the passive construction does not differ in the least from the situation reflected by the active construction — the nature of the process is preserved intact, the situational participants remain in their places in their unchanged quality. What is changed, then, with the transition from the active voice to the passive voice, is the subjective appraisal of the situation by the speaker, the plane of his presentation of it. It is clearly seen when comparing any pair of constructions one of which is the passive counterpart of the other.

All the functional distinctions of the passive, both categorial and contextual-connotative, are sustained in its use with verbids.
For instance, in the following passive infinitive phrase the categorial object-experience-featuring is accompanied by
the logical accent of the process characterizing the quality of its situational object (expressed by the subject of the passive construction): This is an event never to be forgotten.

Cf. the corresponding sentence-transform: This event will never be forgotten. (E. Hemingway, "Farewell to arms")

The gerundial phrase that is given below, conveying the principal categorial meaning of the passive, suppresses the exposition of the indefinite subject of the process: After being wrongly delivered, the letter found its addressee at last. Cf. the time-clause transformational equivalent of the gerundial phrase: *After the letter had been wrongly delivered, it found its addressee at last.* The following passive participial construction in an absolutive position accentuates the resultative process: The enemy batteries having been put out of action, our troops continued to push on the offensive.
Cf. the clausal equivalent of the construction: *When the enemy batteries had been put out of action, our troops continued to push on the offensive. (E. Hemingway)*

The past participle of the objective verb is passive in meaning, and phrases built up by it display all the cited characteristics.

E. g.: Seen from the valley, the castle on the cliff presented a fantastic sight.

Cf. the clausal equivalent of the past participial phrase: *When it was seen from the valley, the castle on the cliff presented a fantastic sight. (E. Hemingway)*

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2.3. Tense-aspect forms in Active voice used in Daniel Defoe's Robinson Crusoe.

The immediate expression of grammatical time, or "tense" (Lat. tempus), is one of the typical functions of the finite verb. It is typical because the meaning of process, inherently embedded in the verbal lexeme, finds its complete realisation only if presented in certain time conditions. That is why the expression or non-expression of grammatical time, together with the expression or non-expression of grammatical mood in person-form presentation, constitutes the basis of the verbal category of finitude, i.e. the basis of the division of all the forms of the verb into finite and non-finite.

When speaking of the expression of time by the verb, it is necessary to strictly distinguish between the general notion of time, the lexical denotation of time, and the grammatical time proper, or grammatical temporality.
The dialectical-materialist notion of time exposes it as the universal form of the continual consecutive change of phenomena. Time, as well as space are the basic forms of the existence of matter, they both are inalienable properties of reality and as such are absolutely independent of human perception. On the other hand, like other objective factors of the universe, time is reflected by man through his perceptions and intellect, and finds its expression in his language.
It is but natural that time as the universal form of consecutive change of things should be appraised by the individual in reference to the moment of his immediate perception of the outward reality. This moment of immediate perception, or "present moment", which is continually shifting in time, and the linguistic content

of which is the "moment of speech", serves as the demarcation line between the past and the future. All the lexical expressions of time, according as they refer or do not refer the denoted points or periods of time, directly or obliquely, to this moment, are divided into "present-oriented", or "absolutive" expressions of time, and "non-present-oriented", "non-absolutive" expressions of time.
The absolutive time denotation, in compliance with the experience gained by man in the course of his cognitive activity, distributes the intellective perception of time among three spheres: the sphere of the present, with the present moment included within its framework; the sphere of the past, which precedes the sphere of the present by way of retrospect; the sphere of the future, which follows the sphere of the present by way of prospect.

Thus, words and phrases like now, last week, in our century, in the past, in the years to come, very soon, yesterday, in a couple of days, giving a temporal characteristic to an event from the point of view of its orientation in reference to the present moment, are absolutive names of time.
The non-absolutive time denotation does not characterise an event in terms of orientation towards the present. This kind of denotation may be either "relative" or "factual".

The verbal expression of abstract, grammatical time that forms the necessary background for the adverbial contextual time denotation in an utterance; without the verbal background serving as a universal temporal "polariser" and "leader", this marking of time would be utterly inadequate. Indeed, what informative content should the following passage convey with all its lexical indications of time {in the morning, in the afternoon, as usual, never, ever), if it were deprived of the general indications of time achieved through the forms of the verb — the unit of the lexicon which the German grammarians very significantly call "Zeitwort" — the "time-word":

Grammatical time, or tense, is one of the typical functions of the finite verb. The author describing the present tense as opposed to the past tense accentuates the

stylistic features and peculiarities in the linguistic circumstances, specifically «the historic present». And Tense aspect in Active voice are used in Hemingway's Robinson Crusoe very well. According the rules of the grammar point.

The fact that the present tense is the unmarked member of the opposition explains a very wide range of its meanings exceeding by far the indication of the "moment of speech" chosen for the identification of primary temporality. Indeed, the present time may be understood as literally the moment of speaking, the zero-point of all subjective estimation of time made by the speaker. The meaning of the present with this connotation will be conveyed by such phrases as at this very moment, or this instant, or exactly now, or some other phrase like that. But an utterance like "now while I am speaking" breaks the notion of the zero time proper, since the speaking process is not a momentary, but a durative event. Furthermore, the present will still be the present if we relate it to such vast periods of time as this month, this year, in our epoch, in the present millennium, etc. The denoted stretch of time may be prolonged by a collocation like that beyond any definite limit. Still furthermore, in utterances of general truths as, for instance, "Two plus two makes four", or "The sun is a star", or "Handsome is that handsome does", the idea of time as such is almost suppressed, the implication of constancy, unchangeability of the truth at all times being made prominent. The present tense as the verbal form of generalized meaning covers all these denotations, showing the present time in relation to the process as inclusive of the moment of speech, incorporating this moment within its definite or indefinite stretch and opposed to the past time. Thus, if we say, "Two plus two makes four", the linguistic implication of it is "always, and so at the moment of speech". If we say, "I never take his advice", we mean linguistically "at no time in terms of the current state of my attitude towards him, and so at the present moment". If we say, "In our millennium social formations change quicker than in the previous periods of man's history", the linguistic temporal content of it is "in our millennium, that is, in the millennium including the moment of speech". This meaning is the invariant of the present, developed from its categorical opposition to the past, and it penetrates the uses of

the finite verb in all its forms, including the perfect, the future, and the continuous. Indeed, if the Radio carries the news, "The two suspected terrorists have been taken into custody by the police", the implication of the moment of speech refers to the direct influence or after-effects of the event announced. Similarly, the statement "You will be informed about the decision later in the day" describes the event, which, although it has not yet happened, is prospected into the future from the present, i.e. the prospection itself incorporates the moment of speech. As for the present continuous, its relevance for the present moment is self-evident. Thus, the analysed meaning of the verbal present arises as a result of its immediate contrast with the past form which shows the exclusion of the action from the plane of the present and so the action itself as capable of being perceived only in temporal retrospect. Again, this latter meaning of the disconnection from the present penetrates all the verbal forms of the past, including the perfect, the future, the continuous. Due to the marked character of the past verbal form, the said quality of its meaning does not require special demonstration. Worthy of note, however, are utterances where the meaning of the past tense stands in contrast with the meaning of some adverbial phrase referring the event to the present moment.

Cf.: *I dried my hands and took out my pocket-book from the inside of my tunic hanging on the wall. (Hemingway)*

The seeming linguistic paradox of such cases consists exactly in the fact that their two-type indications of time, one verbal-grammatical, and one adverbial-lexical, approach the same event from two opposite angles. But there is nothing irrational here. As a matter of fact, the utterances present instances of two-plane temporal evaluation of the event described: the verb-form shows the process as past and gone, i.e. physically disconnected from the present; as for the adverbial modifier, it presents the past event as a particular happening, belonging to a more general time situation which is stretched out up to the present moment inclusive, and possibly past the present moment into the future.

If we say, «Two plus two **makes** four», the linguistic implication of it is «always; at the moment of speech».

If we say, «I never **take** his advise», we mean «at the present time».

Lujean's the likable kind. You and her will get along just fine before you know it. (Hemingway)

If we say «In our millennium social formations **change** quicker then in the previous periods of man's history', the linguistic, temporal content of it is «in our millennium including the moment of speech»… Here worthy of note are utterances where the meaning of the past tense stands in contrast with the meaning of some adverbial phrase referring the event to the present moment.

Chapter III

3.1. Different approaches of teaching English grammar.

It is necessary to consider the concept “grammar”, what it meant by “grammar”. By grammar one can mean adequate comdivhension and correct usage of words in the act of communication, that is, intuitive knowledge of the grammar of the language[7]. It is a set of reflexes enabling a person to communicate with his associates. Such knowledge is acquired by a child in the mother tongue before he goes to schools.

This “grammar” functions without the individual’s awareness of technical nomenclature; in other words, he has no idea of the system of the language, and to use all the word-endings for singular and plural, for tense, and all the other grammar rules without special grammar lessons only due to the abundance of auding and speaking. His young mind grasps the facts and “makes simple grammar rules” for arranging the words to exdivss carious thoughts and feelings. This is true because sometimes little children make mistakes by using a common rule for words to which that rule cannot be applied. For example, a little English child might be heard to say Two mans comed instead of Two men come, because the child is using the plural “*s”* rule for man to which the rule does not apply, and the past tense ed rule for come which does not obey the ordinary rule for the past tense formation. A little Russian child can say ножов instead of ножей using the case-ending “ов” for ножи to which it does not apply. Such mistakes are corrected as the child grows older and learns more of his language. By “grammar” we also mean the system of the language, the discovery and description of the nature of language itself. It is not a natural grammar, but a constructed one. There are several *constructed grammars: traditional, structural, and transformational grammars*. Traditional grammar studies the forms of words (morphology) and how they are put together in sentences (syntax); structural grammar studies structures of various levels of the language (morpheme level) and syntactic level; transformational grammar studies basic structures and transformation rules.

12 http://www.homeenglish.ru.

What we need is simplest and shortest grammar that meets the requirements of the school syllabus in foreign languages. This grammar must be simple enough to be grasped and held by any pupil. We cannot say that this problem has been solved.

Since graduates are expected to acquire language proficiency in aural comdihension, speaking and reading grammar material should be selected for the purpose. There exist principles of selecting grammar material both for teaching speaking knowledge (active minimum) and for teaching reading knowledge (passive minimum), the main one is the principle of frequency, i.e., how frequently this or that grammar item occurs. For example, the Present Simple (Indefinite) is frequently used both in conversation and in various texts. Therefore it should be included in the grammar minimum. For selecting grammar material for reading the principle of polysemia, for instance, is of great importance.

Pupils should be taught to distinguish such grammar items which serve to exdivss different meanings.

The selection of grammar material involves choosing the appropriate kind of linguistic description, i.e., the grammar which constitutes the best base for developing speech habits. Thus the school syllabus reflect a traditional approach to determining grammar material for foreign language teaching, pupils are given sentences patterns or structures, and through these structures they assimilate the English language, acquire grammar mechanisms of speech. The content of grammar teaching is disputable among teachers and methodologists, and there are various approaches to the problem, pupils should, whatever the content of the course, assimilate the ways of fitting words together to form sentences and be able to easily recognize grammar forms and structures while hearing and reading, to reproduce phrases and sentences stored up in their memory and say or write sentences of their own, using grammar items appropriate to the situation.

3.2. Problems of Grammar acquisition: Focusing on tenses and mood forms.

For the learners of English language Active voice is easier than Passive voice is. There is a growing belief that learners in native language immersion programs need

more opportunities to focus on form and receive corrective feedback. There has been a call for more classroom research of die type exemplified by Studies 16 arid 17 to determine how this can best be accomplished with mixed level classes.

Birgit Harley[8] (1989) examined the effects of a functional approach to grammar teaching on a particularly problematic area of grammar for English-speaking learners of native language;—die contrastive use of two past tense forms for "My mother often spoke about her childhood', and roughly die specific or narrative past, for example, 'After class 1 had talked with the other students'.

Approximately high grade 6 immersion students were given instruction on the use of these past tense forms through teaching materials which encouraged their use in a variety of functionally-based practice activities. No explicit grammatical rules were provided, nor was there an emphasis on corrective feedback. The intention was to create opportunities, activities, and tasks which would expose them to more input containing both verb forms, and encourage more productive use of them by the learners. The teaching materials were administered over an eight-week period. Learners were tested on their spoken and written knowledge before die instructional treatment began, eight weeks later, and again three months later.

Harley's findings showed that learners in the experimental classes outperformed die control classes on the immediate post-tests on some of die written and oral measures. Three months later, however, mere were no significant differences between die two groups.

Focusing on die conditionals

Elaine Day and Stan Shapson[9] (1991) examined the effects of instruction with average grade 7 students (age about twelve or thirteen). The feature of grammar which was taught was die conditional mood of the verb, for example in sentences such as *“Агар мен лотореяда ютиб олсам, саёҳатга борар эдим.” “If I won the lottery, I would go away on a trip”.*

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[13] Harley. B. 1989. 'Functional grammar in native language immersion; A classroom experiment. p 331

14 Day, E. and S. Shapson. 1991. Integrating formal and functional approaches to language teaching in Native language immersion; An experimental approach.' Language Learning 41: p 25—58.

Students in the experimental classes received several hours of focused instruction on die conditional over a period of five to seven weeks. The students in the control group continued with their usual classroom routines, that is, they continued to encounternative language mainly in the context of learning their general school subjects (science, mathematics, history, etc. through the medium of native language).

Special teaching materials were prepared by the team of researchers. They consisted of:

1)group work which created situations for UK use of the conditional in natural communicative situations;

2)written and oral exercises to reinforce die use of die conditional in more formal, structured situations;

3) Self-evaluation activities to encourage students to develop conscious awareness of their language use. Oral and written tests were administered before die instructional treatment, immediately after me instruction (five to seven weeks later), and at die end of die school year.

Learners in die experimental classes outperformed those in die control classes on die immediate post-tests for me written tasks (but not for die oral). In contrast to die students in Study 16, they were still doing better than die control group on die follow-up post-tests administered several months later.

Interpreting the research

The overall results of die experimental studies in the intensive ESL and native language immersion programs provide partial support for the hypothesis that enhanced input or form-focused instruction and corrective feedback within communicative second language programs can improve the learners' use of particular grammatical features. The results also show, however, that the effects of instruction are not always long lasting. For example, in the intensive program studies, the positive effects of form-focused instruction on adverb placement had disappeared if a year later. Yet, the positive effects of this type of instruction and corrective feedback for questions were maintained in the long-term follow-up testing. Similarly, in the experimental native language immersion studies, while there were only short-term instructional benefits for

the uses of the imparfaitand passé compose the benefits of instruction for the use of the conditional continued to be evident several months later.

It would be useful to notice here that the different results of the intensive ESL program findings might be explained in terms of the frequency of use of the two linguistic structures irregular classroom input after the experimental treatment had ended. For example, as mentioned in Study 15, question forms occur much more frequently in classroom input than adverbs. This continued reinforcement may have contributed to the continued improvement in the learners' use of questions over time. Evidence from classroom observations suggests that students did not receive any continued reinforcement through exposure to adverbs in classroom materials and activities once the experimental period was over, and thus it should not be surprising that these learners failed to maintain the improved performance levels.

The contrasting results of the native language immersion program teaching experiments (focuses on grammar) may also be explained by potential differences in input. But in this case, it seems more likely that differences in the experimental teaching materials and methodology may have contributed to the different results. Although both sets of materials had as their goal to provide learners with the opportunity to use the linguistic forms in a variety of functionally-based communicative practice activities, the instructional materials for the 'past tense' study (past tenses) may not have been sufficiently form-focused or did not draw the learners' attention to their language use as frequently and as explicitly as the instructional materials for the 'conditional' study (conditionals). While this is a possible explanation, other factors may have contributed to the different outcomes. For example, it could be that the two linguistic structures under investigation respond to instruction in different ways or that even the relatively small differences in die age of the learners played a role.

3.3. The ways of teaching voice forms to learners.

Every few years, new foreign language teaching methods arrive on the scene. New textbooks appear far more frequently. They are usually proclaimed to be more effective than those that have gone before, and, in many cases, these methods or textbooks are promoted or even prescribed for immediate use. New methods and textbooks may reflect

current developments in linguistic/applied linguistic theory or recent pedagogical trends. Sometimes they are said to be based on recent developments in language acquisition theory and research. Por example, one approach to teaching may emphasize the value of having students imitate and practice a set of correct sentences while another emphasizes the importance of encouraging 'natural' communication between learners. How is a teacher to evaluate die potential effectiveness of new methods? One important basis for evaluating is, of course, the teacher's own experience with previous successes or disappointments. In addition, teachers who are informed about some of the findings of recent research are better prepared to judge whether the new proposals for language teaching are likely to bring about positive changes in students' learning.

Our graduation paper is about how English language can be learned at classrooms on the bases of new pedagogical technologies with having taking into consideration the national aspect, i.e. influencing native Uzbek language and typical mistakes and difficulties in learning English by Uzbek speaking students. First of all we have written it for English language teachers who teach this language to Uzbek students at colleges, but it could also be useful for fault learners who are only going to learn a wonderful world of English. We believe that information about findings and theoretical views in second language acquisition research can make you a better judge of claims made by textbook writers and proponents of various language teaching methods. Such information, combined with insights gained from your experience as a language teacher or learner, can help you evaluate proposed changes in classroom methodology.

Most people would agree dial learning a second language in a natural acquisition context or 'on the street' is not the same as learning in the classroom. Many believe that learning ‘on the street' is more effective. This belief may be based on the fact that most successful learners have had exposure to the language outside the classroom. What is special about natural language learning? Can we create the same environment in the classroom? Should we? Or are there essential contributions that only instruction—and not natural exposure—can provide?

In this chapter, we will look at five proposals which theorists have made for how second languages should be taught. We will review research on second language learning

which has been carried out in classroom settings. This will permit us to explore further the way in which second language research and theory contribute to our understanding of the advantages and the limitations of different approaches to second language teaching.

Before we go further, let us take a moment to reflect on die differences between natural and instructional language learning settings. We will then look at transcripts from two classrooms and try to understand what principles guide the teacher in each case.

Natural and instructional settings.

Natural acquisition contexts should be understood as those in which the learner is exposed to the language at work or in social interaction or, if the learner is a child, in a school situation where most of die other children are native speakers of the target language and where the instruction is directed toward native speakers rather than toward learners of die language.

The traditional instruction environment is one where the language is being taught to a group of second or foreign language learners. In this case, the focus is on the language itself, rather than on information which is carried by the language. The teacher's goal is to see to it that students learn me vocabulary and grammatical rules of the target language. The goal of learners in such courses is often to pass an examination rather than to use the language for daily communicative interaction.

Communicative instruction environments also involve learners whose goal is learning the language itself, but the style of instruction places the emphasis on interaction, conversation, and language use, rather than on learning about the language. The topics which are discussed in the communicative instruction environment are often topics of general interest to me learner, for example, how to reply to a classified advertisement from a newspaper. Alternatively, the focus of a lesson may be on the subject matter, such as history or mathematics, which students are learning through the medium of the second language. In these classes, the focus may occasionally be on language itself, but the emphasis is on using the language rather than on talking about it. The language which teachers use for teaching is not selected on the basis of teaching a specific feature of the language, but on teaching learners to use the

language in a variety of contexts. Students' success in these courses is often measured in terms of their ability to 'get things done' in the second language, rather than on their accuracy in using certain grammatical features[10].

In the chart below, mark **a plus** (+) if the characteristic in the left-hand column is typical of the learning environment in the three remaining columns. Mark a minus (-) if it is not something you usually find in that context. Write '?' if you are not sure.

As you look at the pattern **of** + **and** - signs you have placed in the chart, you will probably find it matches the following ~~des~~criptions.

In natural acquisition settings:

- Learners are rarely corrected. If their interlocutors can understand what they are saying, they do not remark on the correctness of the learners' speech. They would probably feel it was rude to do so.

- Language is not structured step by step. In communicative interactions, the learner will be exposed to a wide variety of vocabulary and structures.

- The learner is surrounded by the language for many hours each day. Some of it is addressed to the learner; much of it is simply 'overheard'.

- The learner encounters a number of different people who use the target language proficiently.

- The learner observes or participates in many different types of language events: brief greetings, commercial transactions, exchanges of information, arguments, instructions at school or in the workplace.

- Learners must often use their limited second language ability to respond to questions or get information. In these situations, the emphasis is on getting meaning across clearly, and more proficient speakers tend to be tolerant of errors that do not interfere with meaning.

- Modified input is available in many one-on-one conversations. In situations where many native speakers are involved in the conversation, however, the learner

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15 Based on the book: Lightbown P., Spada N. How Languages are learnder Oxford University Press Oxford 1993. p 69-111

often has difficulty getting access to language he or she can understand.

Learners in traditional instruction

These differ from natural learners in that:

- Errors are frequently corrected. Accuracy tends to be given priority over meaningful interaction.

- Input is structurally simplified and sequenced. Linguistic items are presented and practiced in isolation, one item at a time.

- There is limited time for learning (usually only a few hours a week).

- There is a small ratio of native speakers to non-native speakers. The teacher is often the only native or proficient speaker the student comes in contact with.

- Students experience a limited range of language discourse types (often a chain of 'Teacher asks a question/Student answers/Teacher evaluates response').

- Students often feel great pressure to speak or write the second language and to do so correctly from the very beginning.

- When teachers use me target language to give instructions or in other classroom management events, they often modify their language in order to ensure comprehension and compliance.

Not all language classrooms are alike. The conditions for learning differ in terms of the physical environment, the age and motivation of the students, the amount of rime available for learning, and many other variables. Classrooms also differ in terms of the principles which guide teachers in their language teaching methods and techniques. The design of communicative language teaching programs has sought to replace some of the characteristics of traditional instruction with those more typical of natural acquisition contexts.

Communicative language teaching classrooms

Thus, in communicative language teaching classrooms we may find the following characteristics:

- There is a limited amount of error correction, and meaning is emphasized over form.

- Input is simplified and made comprehensible by the use of contextual cues,

props, and gestures, rather than through structural grading (die presentation of one grammatical item at a time, in a sequence of 'simple' to 'complex').

-Learners usually have only limned time for learning. Sometimes, however, subject-matter courses taught through the second language can add time for language learning.

-Contact with proficient or native speakers of die language is limited. As with traditional instruction, it is often only the teacher who is a proficient speaker. In communicative classrooms, learners have considerable exposure to me second language speech of other learners. This naturally contains errors which would not be heard in an environment where one's interlocutors are native speakers.

-A variety of discourse types are introduced through Robinson Crusoe, role playing, the use of 'real-life' materials such as newspapers and television broadcasts, and field trips.

-There is little pressure to perform at high levels of accuracy, and there is often a greater emphasis on comprehension than on production in die early stages of learning.

-Modified input is a defining feature of this approach to instruction. The teacher in these classes makes every effort to speak to students in a level of language they can understand. In addition, other students speak a simplified language.

Language is the chief means by which the human personality exercises itself and fulfills its basic need for social interaction with other persons. Robert Lado wrote that language functions owing to the language skills. A person who knows a language perfectly uses a thousand and one grammar lexical, phonetic rules when he is speaking. Language skills help us to choose different words and models in our speech[11].

[16] Lado Robert., "English pattern practices. Establishing the patterns as habits."; The univ. of Michigan, 1997., p. 154

It is clear that the term “grammar” has meant various things at various times and sometimes several things at one time. This plurality of meaning is characteristic of the divsent time and is the source of confusions in the discussion of grammar as part of the education of children. There have been taking place violent disputes on the subject of teaching grammar at school.

The ability to talk about the grammar of a language, to recite its rules, is also very different from ability to speak and understand a language or to read and write it. Those who can use a language are often unable to recite its rules, and those who can recite its rules can be unable to use it.

Grammar organizes the vocabulary and as a result we have sense units. There is a system of stereotypes, which organizes words into sentences. But what skill does grammar develop?

First of all it gives the ability to make up sentences correctly, to reproduce the text adequately. (The development of practical skills and habits) The knowledge of the specific grammar structure helps pupils point out the differences between the mother tongue and the target language.

The knowledge of grammar develops abilities to abstract systematize plural facts. The name of our work is “Teaching Grammar”. And the main aim is to clearly recognize how to teach grammar right.

To judge by the way some people speak, there is no place for grammar in the language course nowadays; yet it is, in reality, as important as it ever was exercise of correct grammar, if he is to attain any skill of effective use of the language, but he need not know consciously formulated rules to account to him for that he does unconsciously correctly.

In order to understand a language and to endives oneself correctly one must assimilate the grammar mechanism of the language studied. Indeed, one may know all the words in a sentence and yet fail to understand it, if one does not see the relation between the words in the given sentence. And vice versa, a sentence may contain one, two, and more unknown words but if one has a good knowledge of the

structure of the language one can easily guess the meaning of these words or at least find them in a dictionary.

No speaking is possible without the knowledge of grammar, without the forming of a grammar mechanism. If learner has acquired such a mechanism, he can produce correct sentences in a foreign language. Paul Roberts writes: Grammar is something that produces the sentences of a language. By something we mean a speaker of English. If you speak English natively, you have built into you rules of English grammar. In a sense, you are an English grammar. You possess, as an essential part of your being, a very complicated apparatus which enables you to produce infinitely many sentences, all English ones, including many that you have never specifically learned. Furthermore by applying you rule you can easily tell whether a sentence that you hear a grammatical English sentence or not." A command of English as is envisaged by the school syllabus cannot be ensured without the study of grammar. Pupils need grammar to be able to aud, speak, read, and write in the target language.

CONCLUSION

During the research, the main peculiarities of the verb were found. So, verbs can be classified into various categories according to the form, meaning, function, use, to the types of the object they take, etc.

The verb has its main categories such us voice, tense, mood aspect, number, and these categories are studied from different points of view. Besides, we found out that there are some groups, which require more attention and further study practically and theoretically.

The notions of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentence, and also that of exclamatory sentence appear to be applicable to some types of complex sentences as well.

The category of voice differs radically from all other hitherto considered categories from the point of view of its referential qualities. Indeed, all the previously described categories reflect various characteristics of processes, both direct and oblique, as certain facts of reality existing irrespective of the speaker's perception. For instance, the verbal category of person expresses the personal relation of the process. The verbal number, together with person. The verbal primary time denotes the absolutive timing of the process, i.e. its timing in reference to the moment of speech. The category propect expresses the timing of the process from the point of view of its relation. But we cannot say the same about the category of voice.

As a matter of fact, the situation reflected by the passive construction does not differ in the least from the situation reflected by the active constructions - the nature of the process is preserved intact, the situational participants remain in their places in their unchanged quality. What is changed then, with the transition from the adjective appraisal of the situation by the speaker the plane of his presentation

of it. It is clearly seen when comparing any pair of situation by the speaker, the plane of his presentation of it.

The property of the category of voice shows the its immediate connection with syntax, which finds expression in direct transformational relational between the active and passive constructions

The said fundamental meaningful difference between the two forms of the verb and the corresponding constructions that are built around them goes with all the concrete situational contexts. In particular, we find the object - experience featuring achieved by the passive in its typical uses in cases when the subject is unknown or is not to be mentioned for certain reasons, or when the attention of the speaker is centered on the action as such respectively.

The snow slanted across the wind, the bare ground was covered, the stumps of trees projected, there was snow on the guns and there were paths in the snow going back to the latrines behind trenches.(E. Hemingway)

All the functional distinctions of the passive both categorical and contextual connotative are sustained in its use with verbids.

For instance, in the following passive infinitive phrase the categorical object experience featuring is accompanied by the logical accent of the process characterizing the quality of its situational object. *This event will never be forgotten*. *(E. Hemingway)*

The past participle of the objective verb is passive in meaning, and phrases built up it by display all the cited characteristics.

E.g. *Seen from the valley, the castle on the cliff presented a beautiful sight. (E. Hemingway)*

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

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

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