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Functional semantics of the English declarative sentences

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QUALIFICATION PAPER

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Introduction

One of the important issues in educational sphere in Uzbekistan is to raise the quality of teaching education, especially teaching foreign languages in primary and secondary special education. To reach the required standards the Republic of Uzbekistan has accepted presidential decree №1875 in December, 2012. Here the president of the Republic of Uzbekistan, Islom Karimov said that “When our people have acquired independence after a very long period of time, when Uzbek people began determining their own way of development there existed lots of inner and outer threat aimed at overturning the newly born state, to disturb the peaceful life established in Uzbekistan. The Uzbek people understood that they must strengthen the independence gained and what hard obstacles were waiting us in further steps of the development”. (Presidential decree №1875).

According to the implementation of this decree all-important innovations has been developed in the sphere of education system. The project is dedicated to advance and increase languages skills of young generation from primary school to higher education. At the present time, have knowledge of any language plays important role in modern developed society. For this reason our President I.A. Karimov paid considerable attention for teaching foreign language as well as English.

The actuality of the work is that there appeared opportunity to study several foreign languages with the help of independence. As the president Islam Karimov said: “At present great importance is attached to the study and teaching of foreign languages. No doubt, it happens not without purpose. Today the importance of our people’s perfect knowledge of foreign languages can scarcely be exaggerated as our country aspires to win a decent place in the world community, because our people see their great future as a life in mutual

accord and cooperation with their foreign partners.”¹In order to understand a language and to express 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 relationship between the words in the given sentence.

The subject matter of the research is to analyze the functional semantics of the English declarative sentences and the techniques of teaching grammar.

The object of the work is the notion of declarative sentence in linguistics and the main problems of sentence classification.

The novelty of the Qualification Paper is characterized by new solutions to the problem of teaching English as EFL.

The main aim of the work is to study the term declarative sentence by the main linguistic principles, overviewing different types sentences and discover new techniques in teaching

The tasks of this work to fulfill are as follows:

- to overview the study of the notion “sentence” diachronically (to present the historical development of the phenomenon);
- to investigate the problem of the classification of sentences according to different points of view;
- to give the full sentence classification according to the purpose of communication
- to determine structural and functional semantics of the declarative sentence
- to analyze structural and semantic characteristics of declarative sentences;
- to investigate new effective interactive methods to teach declarative sentences rather than traditional ones.

¹Karimov I. Harmoniously developed generation is the basis of progress of Uzbekistan. – Tashkent: Uzbekistan, 1997. – p. 9

In this work there were used the following **methods of linguistic analysis**: word's definitions analysis, contextual-situation and text analysis for revealing its significant place in the enlighteners works.

The theoretical value of the work is defined by so many theories on syntax, is used. Although syntax was widely studied by researchers, there is no satisfactory definition of a sentence yet. We overviewed and summarized theoretical materials in this work.

The practical value of the research is that the material can be used for the both theoretical courses of teaching grammar and in practical lessons to broaden students' knowledge in this sphere.

The source of literature includes:

- scientific academic books;
- the collection of books in teaching grammar;
- the scientific books of English, Russian and some Uzbek authors;
- different types of dictionaries.

The structure – of this Qualification Papers consists of Introduction, three chapters, conclusion and literature list used in the course of research.

Introduction – is about the aim of the research, methods used in the course of it, explanation its actuality, novelty, practical and scientific value.

Chapter I is mostly focused on theoretical information on syntax, the notion of sentence, sentence problem in present day English and classification of sentences. It consists of two paragraphs.

Chapter II deals with practical study of declarative sentences. Including two paragraphs, it works on structure and semantics of declarative sentence. We did not make new sentences in this paper. Approximately 90 % of the examples were taken from original English version of "Twilight" by Stephenie Meyer. We tried to investigate using different forms of declarative sentences in literature.

Chapter III is devoted to the problems and solutions of teaching grammar particularly declarative sentences in the English classes for the learners in different levels.

Conclusion presents the results of the course of the Qualification Paper.

Bibliography gives a wide variety of used books while investigation and suggests readers useful set of literature in future researchers. It is for one who is interested in getting more information in this field.

Chapter I. General review on the problem of sentence in present day English

1.1 The problem of sentence theory in English

In this chapter we are going to investigate theoretical points of view on the problem of sentence in modern linguistics. First of all we intend to outline some information about linguistic terms of “grammar” and “syntax”. In the first paragraph we will study different theories and approaches to the problem of sentence and look through the history of grammar, several definitions of the notion “sentence”.

The term “grammar” derives from Greek word “*grammatika*” (it means “art of letters” as in Greek *gramma* = letter).²It comes into English through Latin (“*grammatica*”) and French (“*grammaire*”).³

The term “grammar” may refer to the following meanings:

- a) Grammatical construction of a language;
- b) A branch of linguistics which studies grammatical structure;
- c) Textbooks containing information on grammatical construction.

To differentiate between three meanings of this term, before the word “grammar” definite or indefinite articles are used:

- 1) The definite article is used to the first meaning: e.g *the English grammar*
- 2) Zero article (no article) refers to the second meaning: e.g *English grammar*.
- 3) The indefinite article to refer for the third meaning: e.g *an English grammar*.⁴

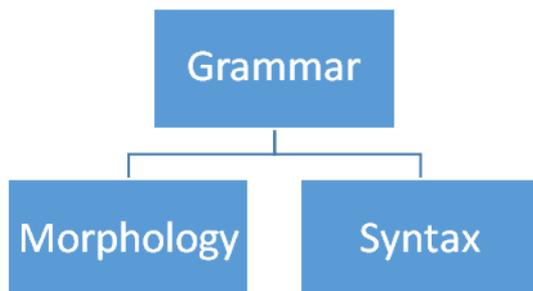
As a branch of linguistics, grammar is divided into two:

²See Crystal D. A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. 3rd ed. – Oxford: Blackwell Paperback, 1991.

³ See Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary. – Springfield: Merriam-Webster Incorporation, 2003.

⁴Худяков А.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – Москва: Академия, 2007. –р. 5

- morphology
- syntax



Morphology studies theory of word formation, word-changing and parts of speech. The object of morphology is morphemic structure of the word.

The subject of syntax is the study of various grammatical structures which are realized as the product of speech-thinking activity of man. The main units of syntax are the word-combination, the sentence, and the text.

Syntax, originating from the Greek words *συν* (*syn*, meaning "co-" or "together") and *τάξις* (*táxis*, meaning "sequence, order, arrangement"), can in linguistics be described as the study of the rules, or "patterned relations" that govern the way the words in a sentence come together.⁵

Hence, syntax is a branch of grammar that studies sentence construction, its communicative-functional, structural and pragmatic classifications as well as its informative organization via "functional sentence perspective" theory. Therefore a sentence is the main object of syntax as part of the grammatical theory.

Syntactic level is divided into two: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure.

⁵See Hartmann R R K., Stork F C. Dictionary of Language and Linguistics. – L.: Applied Science Publishers, 1972.

The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech.⁶

Let us have a look at lexical meaning of the word "sentence".

According to Macmillan English Dictionary:

1. a group of words, usually including a subject and a verb, that express a statement, question, or instruction. A written sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark.

2. a punishment given by a judge, usually involving a period of time that a person must spend in prison.

e.g. She received the maximum sentence of ten years.

We are not satisfied with this definition. We need lexical meaning which "sentence" means in origin. Looking for the word in Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, we come across etymology of this term.

The term *sentence*, derived from Latin word *sententia*, means "feeling, opinion". *Sententia* is a noun derived from the verb *sentire* (to feel, to notice).⁷

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

John writes a letter.

A letter is written by John.

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

⁶ Iriskulov A T. A brief course of lectures on English theoretical grammar. – Tashkent: 2006.p. 44

⁷Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English for advanced learners. – Edinburg: Pearson Education Limited, 2009. – p. 1587

The basic unit of syntax - minor i.e. sentence often consists of some word - groups (or word-combinations):

The roundness of the earth is known all over the world.

1. The sentence consists of two distinct word - combinations:

"the roundness of the earth" and *"is known all over the world"*. The same word-combinations may be used without any change in other sentences.

The teacher explained the pupils the roundness of the earth.

This means that word - combinations can be studied as a separate unit.

2. In utterances there may be simple sentences like *"It was dark"*, *"It began to rain "*. Sometimes they may be joined together, depending on the intensions of the speakers, as for example:

(a)It was dark, and it began to rain.

(b)When it was dark, it began to rain.

Though the structure of constituting sentences are identical when they are joined together the structure of joined units (a) and (b) are different. This means that such units (which are traditionally called composite or compound/complex sentences) may be also studied separately.

Thus syntax - minor deals with simple sentences, with a smaller unit than the simple sentence i.e. word combinations and with the bigger unit than the simple sentence - composite sentences.

The problem of sentence has become the main subject matter of syntax all the time. But among other linguistic units, sentence became less researched one. Because the notion of sentence is the most complicated one comparing to different units of the language. Ancient linguists paid more attention to morphology, phonetics and lexicology, while syntax stayed non-studied.

Even though there has been hundreds of attempts in this sphere, for centuries any satisfactory linguistic researches have not been worked out referring to the whole terms of the definition of "sentence". They may be divided into several categories according to what each definitions are based on:

- 1) logical;
- 2) psychological;
- 3) phonetic;
- 4) graphical;
- 5) grammatical.

Some scholars add the sixth one:

- 6) semantic

But none of them are generally accepted. That's why this problem is still disputable. There are some definitions of a sentence:

According to logical approach: *"A sentence is an opinion, expressed by words"*. It was the most popular one in ancient times. It is defined by logical and philosophical point of view. (Aristotle)

According to psychological approach: *"A sentence is a speaker's aggregate individual performance, expressed in lingual form"*.

According to phonetic point of view: *"A sentence is a segment of speech, possessing completion of intonation and separated from other segments of speech by pause"*.

According to graphical approach: *"A sentence is a sequence of words, bordered by two full-stops in writing"*.

According to grammatical principle: *"A sentence is a segment of oral or written speech, possessing modality and predication"*.⁸

According to Ries⁹ *a sentence is a grammatically constructed minimal unit of speech that expresses its content with regard to its relation to reality.*

However, as Müller points out no satisfactory (classical) definition of the sentence has been given as yet that integrates grammatical, semantic, and

⁸ Худяков А. А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – Москва: Академия, 2007. – р. 70

⁹ Ries J. Beiträge zur Grundlegung der Syntax. Teil 3: Was ist ein Satz? – Prague: Taussig & Taussig, 1931. – р. 99

pragmatic properties. The reason for this failure might simply be that sentences are not classical but prototypically organized categories.¹⁰

There is no unique definition of a notion sentence. The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: *“The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition which would enable us by applying it in every particular case to find out whether a certain linguistic unit was a sentence or not.”*¹¹

Let us have a look at various historical theories related to the sentence.

In his works “Rhetorics” and “Poetics” Aristotle gave a definition of all speech units like nouns, adjectives and others. He also supposed on the difference of written and oral speech. Aristotle was the first to describe the syntactic structure of a sentence. This work of his laid the basics for what is now linguistic analysis.

Works on grammar were being written long before modern syntax came about; the Aṣṭadhyaṅ of Paṇini is considered as an example of a pre-modern work that approaches the sophistication of a modern syntactic theory. In Europe, the school of thought that came to be known as "traditional grammar" began with the work of Dionysius Thrax.

For centuries, work in syntax was dominated by a framework known as *grammaire générale*, first published in 1660 by Antoine Arnauld in a book of “*Grammaire generale*”. This system took as its basic premise the assumption that language is a direct reflection of thought processes and therefore there is a single, most natural way to express a thought. That way, coincidentally, was exactly the way it was expressed in French.

The most important and valuable contribution of the Prague Linguistic Circle after the war was brought by Vilém Mathésius in the field of syntax namely the distinction, which he made between theme and rheme. He tried to

¹⁰ Müller B.L. Der Satz. Definition und sprachtheoretischer Status. – Tübingen: Narr, 1985. – p 27

¹¹ Ильиш Б. А. Строй современного английского языка. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. – p. 180

surpass phonology and to study grammar, especially syntax. Vilém Mathésius approached and analysed the sentence from a functional perspective, he stated that the sentence has two parts: the theme and the rheme.

By the theme of a sentence is meant the part that refers to what is already known or given in the context while the rheme is the part that conveys new information. Although this contribution represents the school's last efforts to tackle and conquer another area of linguistics, syntax, Mathésius' work and terminology remained unknown and without echo in the world of linguistics.

The Prague Linguistic Circle greatly contributed to the way linguistics developed, by coining new concepts and theories by providing rich material for the following generations of linguists. Their works and papers are widely consulted nowadays, Trubetzkoy's "Principles of Phonology", Roman Jakobson's "Comments on Phonological Change in Russian Compared with that in Other Slavic Languages" (1929), "Characteristics of the Eurasian Language Affinity" (1931). The Prague School's linguistics, theory and activity influenced and changed the character of the European linguistics.

Trubetzkoy's contributions were inherited and further elaborated by André Martinet who founds the functionalist school and develops functionalist linguistics. The new concepts and theories, launched by The Prague Linguistic Circle became key concepts in linguistics so happened with the concept of neutralization and the theory of markedness, which were inherited by generative grammar. It anticipated and supported the emergence of new movements in linguistics. Prague scholars provided the first systematic formulation of semiotic structuralism. Semiotics emerged from Prague Linguistic Circle structuralism.

The Prague Linguistic Circle members were the first to claim that literary history has to be based on literary theory and the first to develop a comprehensive theory of literary history. Without the Prague School the image of the twentieth century structuralism and linguistics is incomplete both

historically and theoretically. They brought innovations and contributions not only to the development of linguistics, but also to the development of phonetics, phonology and syntax.¹²

Here we come to the question: What is a sentence?

When we speak or write, we convey our thoughts through sentences. A sentence is the smallest lingual unit which is capable of performing a communication, containing some kind of information. With the help of a sentence we can make a statement (“London is the capital of the UK.”), command or request (“Wash your hands before eating.”) or ask a question (“Have you ever been to Paris?”).

Traditionally sentence means: “A sequence of words whose first word starts with a capital letter and whose last word is followed by an end punctuation mark (full stop or question or exclamation mark)”.

However sentence can contain one or two words as well. In difference from a word or a wordgroup (word-combination) sentence expresses some complex sense. The essential sign of sentence is predicativity.

A sentence is an expression in natural language, often defined to indicate a grammatical and lexical unit consisting one or two words, that represent distinct concepts. A sentence can contain words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, request, exclamation, grief wish or command. They also can include semantic and logical elements (word, parts of speech) and also action symbols that indicate stops, pauses, rise or fall of voice, etc¹³

In written language a sentence is a string of words standing between an initial capital letter and the mark of punctuation at the end while in spoken language a sentence is marked by a special intonation. The role of intonation as

¹² Volkova M L. Lectures in Theoretical Grammar.– National Linguistic University of Kiev, 2001. – p. 4

¹³ Maksumov A G. English Grammar: Theory and Usage. – Tashkent: Tashkent State Pedagogical University, 2012. – p. 218 (315 p)

a delimiting factor is especially important for sentences which have more than one predicative centre, in particular more than one finite verb.

For instance:

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

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

Special intonation contours, including pauses, represent the given speech sequence in the first case as one compound sentence, in the second case as two different sentences (though, certainly, connected both logically and syntactically). Linguists point out that the sentence, as different from the word, is not a unit of language proper; it is a chunk of text built up as a result of speech-making process, out of different units of language, first of all words, which are immediate means for making up contextually bound sentences, i.e. complete units of speech.¹⁴

The sentence as a lingual sign is based on predication in the centre of which stands a finite verb. Due to this feature, the sentence can perform two essential functions:

a) designating function, which implies referring to a target extralinguistic situation or event

b) communicative function which implies transmitting some kind of information.

The sentence is the main unit of syntactic description. The sentence enjoys a status of independence at the level of occurrence, i.e. a structural independence, as well as at the other levels, such as the phonological or the semantic level. The sentence is a string of words organized according to the following properties:

- grammatical properties: there is an underlying hierarchy of syntactic relations holding between the constituents of sentences, minimally actualized by

¹⁴Blokh M Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Moscow: Высшаяшкола, 2006. – p. 257

the relation of predication between an NP functioning as Subject and a VP functioning as predicate of the sentence.

- semantic properties: the sentence is assigned a global semantic interpretation;

- phonological properties: the sentence has a phonetic shape made up of a specialized intonational (phonological) contour, the pitch and boundary signals;

- functional properties: (the functionality of sentences in concrete communicative contexts): the sentence items may be analysed as items of discourse which serve most efficiently the communicative function of the message.¹⁵

The sentential organization of units of information is the following: the sentence is divided into theme (or topic) and rheme (or comment). The theme renders old or given information; it tends to be incorporated in the first part of the message roughly coinciding on the grammatical plane with the subject group. The rheme is that part of the message that conveys new information; it roughly coincides with the predicate group and the focus of information is on the last constituent of this group.

Summarizing all the information overviewed above we can conclude that syntax is a branch of linguistics studying rules how to construct word-combinations, sentence and text. While syntax-minor deals with the specific features of word-combinations and sentences (principles controlling the relations of words within the sentence), syntax-major investigates bigger units, text and its structure. Even though many scientists researched the notion of sentence, there is not unique definition yet.

Summing up many scholars' works we can reach a conclusion. So, main features of a sentence are:

- 1) sentence is a syntactic integrity;
- 2) sentence expresses relatively complete thought;

¹⁵Murar I. Trantescu A M. English Syntax the Simple Sentence.– Editura Universitaria Craiova, 2011. – p. 9

- 3) sentence is a grammatically combined construction, the main note of sentence is a predication;
- 4) sentence possesses completion of intonation.

Here is a definition, that we agree with as the conclusion of this investigation:

Sentence is the minimal syntactic structure used in communication and is characterized by its predicativity, which expresses thought and its intonation pattern. Any sentence should express the meanings of tense, person and mood.

In our opinion it is the closest definition to the reality. However we do not sue that it is the unique real definition.

1.2 Communicative types of English sentences

This paragraph is devoted to investigate the problem of classifying sentences according to different principles. We will mostly pay attention to the matter of classification according to purpose of communication. Linguists do not have unique opinion on the problem of communicative types of sentences. Collecting different viewpoints and summarizing all the facts, we will try to come conclusion in this matter.

The problem of classification of sentences is a highly complicated one, and we will first consider the question of the principles of classification, and of the notions on which it can be based.

There are several approaches to classify sentences. As well as scholars are not unanimous on the definition of sentence, they classify sentences according to different points of view. They put various notions to study this matter. We will overview some examples of classification through studying famous explanations.

B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles:

- 1) types of communication.
- 2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two

main types of sentences: simple and composite.¹⁶

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

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

I. Utterances regularly eliciting “oral” responses only:

A) Greetings

B) Calls

C) Questions.

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

III. Utterances regularly eliciting conventional signals of attention to continuous discourse statements.¹⁷

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

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

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

2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.¹⁸

According to Maksumov the classification of sentences is based on four principles:

1) according to the aim of communication;

2) according to the structure;

3) according to the completeness in the utterance;

¹⁶Ильиш Б. А. Строй современного английского языка. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. – р. 185

¹⁷See Fries Ch. The Structure of English. – New York: 1952.

¹⁸See Бархударов Л. Структура простого предложения современного английского языка. – Москва 1966.

4) according to their construction or presence of other sentences in one sentence.¹⁹

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

- 1) the criterion of the structure of sentences;
- 2) the criterion of the aim of the speaker;
- 3) the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

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

From the point of view of the existence of all parts of the sentence we differentiate elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.²⁰

As we can see there is no unique classification of sentence. Each linguist tries give his own opinion. Each scholar approach this notion from various sights of study. But there are some similarities in this matter. Because they look at one term from different points of view.

Besides classifications are different, as the sentence is a many-sided phenomenon, sentence may be studied from several items and ground that each linguist should take into consideration.

Its principal grounds are:

- form (*how* the sentence is built)
- meaning (*what* the sentence is about)
- function (*what for* the sentence about is, was or will be pronounced)

From the first point of view (*form*), the sentence is defined as a group of words based on predicative relation. From the second point of view (*meaning*), the sentence is defined as an expression or complete of thought. From the third

¹⁹Maksumov A G. English Grammar: Theory and Usage. – Tashkent: Tashkent State Pedagogical University, 2012. – p. 220

²⁰Iriskulov A T. Theoretical Grammar of English. – Tashkent: 2006. – p. 45

point of view (*function*), sentence is defined as a minimum unit of communication.

Since the sentence is a communicative unit (functional approach), the primary classification of sentences must be based on the communicative principle. This principle is formulated in traditional grammar as the "purpose of communication". Some scholars name this classification "aim of speaker".

The purpose of communication, by definition, refers to the sentence as a whole, and the structural features connected with the expression of this sentential function belong to the fundamental, constitutive qualities of the sentence as a lingual unit.²¹

Linguists have not given the same opinions in the field of classification of sentences according to "purpose of communication". Some scholars count three communicative types of sentences (Xudyakov, Blokh, Fries, Kirvalidze) and others name four communicative types, adding exclamatory one (Ilyish, Kobrina, Boldyrev, Leech, Quirk, Iriskulov).

In traditional linguistics three communicative types are taken into consideration and these scholars regarded exclamation non-communicative:

Alongside with the three cardinal communicative sentencetypes, another type of sentences is recognized in syntax, namely, the exclamatory sentence. In the course of studies, it has been shown that exclamatory sentences do not possess the basic properties of cardinal sentence-types. Exclamation is considered as an accompanying feature which is actualized in the system of the three cardinal communicative types of sentences. Each of them can be represented in the two variants: non-exclamatory and exclamatory.²²

Exclamatory sentences-statements it is easy to identify their non-exclamatory declarative prototypes:

Hakuna Matata... It is a wonderful phrase —

²¹Blokh M Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Moscow: Высшая школа, 2006. – p. 272

²²Викулова Е А. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – Екатеринбург: Издательство Уральского университета, 2014. – p. 67

Hakuna Matata... What a wonderful phrase!

Imperatives and interrogatives do not change their structure in exclamation. It depends on speaker's emotion in oral speech and it end with exclamation mark in written form.

"Keep your eyes on the road!"

"Sure. But tell me what happened!"

"Don't be upset!"

"Hey, I thought you couldn't read my mind!" I hissed.

"You're kidding! What did you say?!"

"What you heard!"

Ilyish's first classification of sentences according to purpose of communication is as follows:

- 1) Declarative
- 2) Interrogative
- 3) Imperative

Sentences belonging to the several types differ from each other in some grammatical points, too.²³

Ilyish mentions that every sentence, if narrative, interrogative or imperative they are, may be exclamatory at the same time. It expresses speaker's feeling or emotions characterized by emphatic intonation:

The notion of exclamatory sentences and their relation to the three established types of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences presents some difficulty. It would seem that the best way to deal with it is this. On the one hand, every sentence, whether narrative, interrogative, or imperative, may be exclamatory at the same time, that is, it may convey the speaker's feelings and be characterised by emphatic

²³Ильиш Б А. Строй современного английского языка. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. –р. 185

intonation and by an exclamation mark in writing. This may be seen in the following examples:²⁴

But he can't do anything to you! (R. WEST)

What can he possibly do to you! (Idem)

Scarlett, spare me! (M. MITCHELL)

On the other hand, a sentence may be purely exclamatory, that is. It may not belong to any of the three types classed above. This would be the case in the following examples:

"Oh no, Bella, no!"

"Bella, please!" (S. Meyer)

Oh, for God's sake, Henry! (Idem)

Taking this notion into consideration Ilyish concludes that exclamatory sentence should be one of communicative types of sentence. Concluding all the analysis Ilyish states:

However, it would perhaps be better to use different terms for sentences which are purely exclamatory, and thus constitute a special type, and those which add an emotional element to their basic quality, which is either declarative, or interrogative, or imperative. If this view is endorsed, we should have our classification of sentences according to type of communication thus modified:

- 1) Declarative (including emotional ones)
- 2) Interrogative (including emotional ones)
- 3) Imperative (including emotional ones)
- 4) Exclamatory²⁵

And he was right in this issue.

Nevertheless, Blokh does not acknowledge that exclamatory sentence is one of the communicative types of sentences and classifies sentences three

²⁴Ильиш Б А. Строй современного английского языка.– Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. –р. 187

²⁵Ильиш Б А. Строй современного английского языка.– Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. – р. 187

cardinal sentences that have long been recognized in linguistic tradition. Analyzing exclamations, Blokh came to the following conclusion:

As is seen from the given examples, all the three pairs of variant communicative types of sentences (non-exclamatory — exclamatory for each cardinal division) make up distinct semantico-syntactic oppositions effected by regular grammatical means of language, such as intonation, word-order and special constructions with functional-auxiliary lexemic elements. It follows from this that the functional-communicative classification of sentences specially distinguishing emotive factor should discriminate, on the lower level of analysis, between the six sentence-types forming, respectively, three groups (pairs) of cardinal communicative quality.²⁶

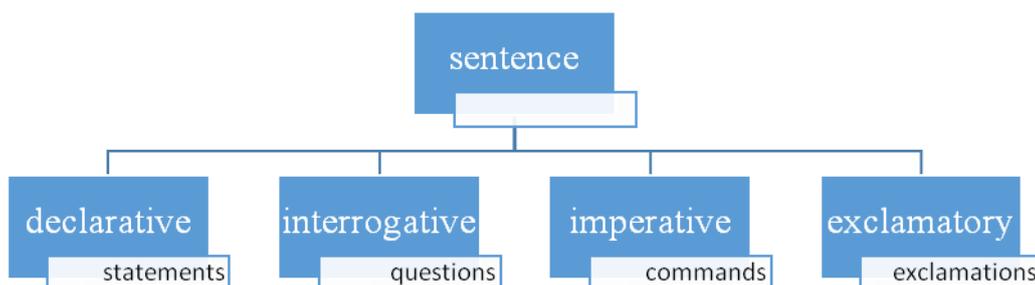
To sum up all the classifications according to communication mentioned above, we agree with the Ilyish's opinion. So, every sentence, whatever its concrete meaning might be, has one of the four goals:

- giving information: *The film is boring.*
- asking for information: *Is the film interesting?*
- expressing inducement: *Do not watch the film!*
- expressing the impression *What an interesting film it is!*

According to the purpose of communication sentences are classified into four types: declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory sentences. These communicative sentence types stand in strict opposition to each other, and their inner properties of form and meaning are immediately correlated with corresponding features of the listener's responses.²⁷

²⁶Blokh M Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Moscow: Высшаяшкола, 1983. – p. 255

²⁷Kirvalidze N. Theoretical Course of English Grammar.– Tbilisi: Ilia State University, 2013. – p. 69



The declarative sentence expresses a statement, either affirmative or negative, and as such stands in syntagmatic correlation with the listener's responding signals of attention.

*"The Cullens don't come here"*²⁸

"I just turned fifteen"

"I love them"

"You don't look very tan."

The imperative sentence expresses inducement. That is, it urges the listener, in the form of request or command, to perform or not to perform a certain action. As such, the imperative sentence is situationally connected with the corresponding verbal or action response from the addressee, showing that the inducement is either fulfilled or rejected.

"Run, Bella, you have to run!"

"Trust me"

"Mom, Calm down."

"Don't do anything rash."

"Let's go"

The interrogative sentence expresses a question, i.e. a request for information wanted by the speaker from the listener. By virtue of this communicative purpose, the interrogative sentence is naturally connected with an answer, forming together with it a question-answer adjacency pair.

²⁸The following examples are taken from "Twilight" by Meyer Stephenie.

"Do you come up to Forks much?"

"Do you like scary stories?"

"So you're, what, sixteen?"

"What did you do yesterday?"

"You're Isabella Swan, aren't you?"

There are four main types of questions in English. They are differentiated from each other on the basis of the type of reply they expect. These types of questions are:

□ YES-NO questions that expect affirmation or negation in answer:

"Have you done this lab before?" – "No"

"Were you in an advanced placement program in Phoenix?" – "Yes."

□ Wh-questions which are formed with the help of one of the following interrogative words such as who/whom/whose/, what, which, when, where, how, why, and which expect a reply from an open range of replies.

"Why didn't you stay with them?" –

"Phil travels a lot. He plays ball for a living."

"How did you get out of the way so fast?" –

"Umm... Edward pulled me out of the way."

□ ALTERNATIVE questions which expect a reply to one of two or more options presented in the question:

"Would you like to go for a walk or stay at home?"

"I'd rather stay at home."

□ TAG questions in which maximum inductiveness is expressed by a tag question added to a statement in the form of a declarative;

"You're not going to let it go, are you?" – "No."

"Seattle is a big city, isn't it?" – "Yes"

Exclamations are sentences which have an initial phrase introduced by what and how, usually with subject – verb order. Exclamatory sentences are used for expressing the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something:

How calmly I could discuss my own death!

“How pushy you are!”

In this chapter we overviewed different theories on defining the notion of “sentence” and the problems of sentence classification. These problems have been the main subject matters of syntax for many years. Discussions and debates are continuing in modern linguistics as well. But still linguistics is waiting satisfactory issue on this matter. Sentence problem keeps its significance as a complicated unit of modern science.

As we studied above, communicative types of sentence are defined according to several principles. Besides, these types were investigated by many scholars more and more, there is no unique final solution in this field. Current theories cannot give complete solution to the main matter of syntax. It means that linguistics needs new approaches to research its problems.

Works in this sphere as we mentioned already, tried to solve sentence problem from several points of view. Therefore researchers should take all the principles into consideration. At the same time contemporary linguistics demands new specific approaches of modern researchers as well.

Chapter II. Structural and semantic peculiarities of declarative sentence in English

2.1 Structural features of declarative sentence in English

The second chapter deals with structural and semantic characteristics of declarative sentences. This paragraph is devoted to research structure of English declarative sentences. As we investigated above, communicative types of sentences have their own structural features. In this paragraph we are going to explore the specific structure of declarative sentence. We now focus on the content and function of specific sentence types, in particular declaratives.

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects – logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician G.Pocheptsov, the sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics.²⁹

This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are:

- a) **structural** characteristics – subject-predicate relations (primary predication)
- b) **semantic** characteristics – it refers to some fact in the objective reality.

²⁹Volkova M L. Lectures in Theoretical Grammar.– National Linguistic University of Kiev, 2001. – p. 20

The declarative sentences may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences). According to Iriskulov the main features of declarative sentences are:

- they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.

- they usually have the falling an intonation

- usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.³⁰

Before jumping to analyze the structural features of declarative sentence, let us have look at theory of structural classification of sentences.

Depending on the number of the grammatical subject – predicate relationship, sentences in English are divided into simple and composite. Simple sentences are “monopredicative” by structure as they contain one subject – predicate relationship, while composite sentences are “polypredicative” since they comprise two or more subject – predicate relationships.

The subject-group and the predicate-group of the sentence are its two constitutive "members", or, to choose a somewhat more specific term, its "axes" (in the Russian grammatical tradition — «составы предложения»). According as both members are present in the composition of the sentence or only one of them, sentences are classed into "two-member" and "one-member" ones.

Simple sentences are subdivided into one-member and two-member sentences whereas composite sentences are subdivided into compound and complex ones.

A two-member sentence pattern is typical in English. There are two structural types of two-member simple sentences: unextended and extended.

³⁰Iriskulov M., Kuldashv A. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language. – Tashkent, 2008. – p. 80

The unexpanded simple sentence is formed only by obligatory notional parts such as the subject, the predicate and the direct object, when necessary.

For example: Edward smiled.

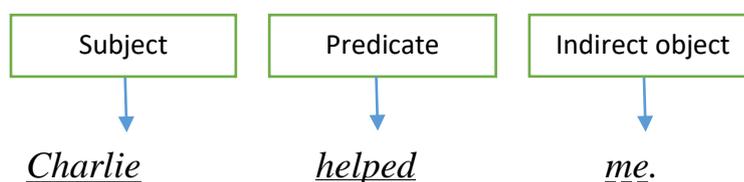
This is an unextended sentence. It contains only two parts of sentence:



There is one predicate and one subject in this sentence.

Charlie helped me.

This is an extended sentence.



The extended simple sentence includes both the obligatory parts and some optional secondary parts (indirect object, attributes or adverbial modifiers).

For example, syntactic parsing of the sentence – “The tall trees by the island shore were shaking violently in the wind.” – shows that this is an expanded simple sentence built upon the key-string “The trees were shaking” with the help of a number of optional secondary parts modifying and expanding the predication: tall = an attribute to the subject; by the island shore = adverbial modifier of place; violently = adverbial modifier of manner; in the wind = prepositional object.³¹

One-member sentences contain only one principal member of the sentence which is not related to the other principal member as is the case in a two-member sentence where the subject and the predicate are grammatically correlated.

There are the following one-member sentences in modern English:

³¹Kirvalidze N. Theoretical course of English grammar.– Tbilisi: Ilia State University, 2013. – p. 72

➤ substantival one-member sentences:

e.g. Noon. Spring. Another day of fog. What a nice house!

➤ verbal one-member sentences mainly represented by impersonal sentences in which no agent is required, the position of the so-called “dummy subject” being assumed by the formal “it”. Impersonal sentences are used to denote:

a) *atmospheric conditions: It's getting hot. It's raining. It was very cold yesterday.*

b) *time: It's nine o'clock. It's my birthday today.*

c) *distance: It's not very far from here. It's just one stop to the Trafalgar Square.*

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses which have equal syntactic status that of main clauses. There are no syntactic restrictions on their order, although the sentence may not make good sense.

e.g. They sounded farther back and I knew they could outrun me in any case.

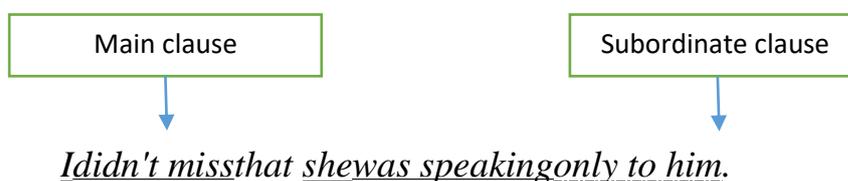
It is compound, because it consists of two independent clauses: “*They sounded farther back*” and “*I knew they could outrun me in any case*”

I waited, but he didn't speak again.

It is compound sentence. Its clauses connected with the help of “but”.

A complex sentence consists of one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. The terms ‘main’ and ‘subordinate’ indicate that the clauses in the complex sentence do not have the same syntactic status. Subordinate clauses are always contained either within the main clause or within another subordinate clause.

I didn't miss that she was speaking only to him.



Now we will mostly focus on structural peculiarities of English declarative sentences. Since English sentence structure differs from Uzbek and Russian, it has definite word-order, even though there may be some exceptions.

In affirmative sentences the English word order is strict. Adverbial modifiers are often expressed by adverbs and nouns with prepositions. With verbs of movement or state the adverbial modifier of place comes immediately after the verb. If there are two or more adverbial modifiers, the usual order is “place”, “manner”, “time”.

The adverbial modifier of indefinite time expressed by such adverbs as: never, usually, often, seldom, yet, just, etc. is placed before the main verb or after the auxiliary or modal verb.³²

Table one.

Word Order in the Declarative (Affirmative) Sentence

No	Modifier of Time	The Subject (with an Attribute)	Predicate	Indirect Object	Direct Object. Predicative (Part of a compound Predicate)	Prepositional Object	Modifier of Place	Modifier of Manner	Modifier of Time
1	Then	I	stepped		out of the car			awkwardly	
2		I	Start		to drive		in circles.		
3		Charlie	Listened			to her		with interest.	
4		He	Handed	me	the jacket				
5		I	Paused						for a second.
6		She	Smiled			at him		invitingly	

³² Slobodkina N A., Abduraimova B Yu., Rustamova Z H., Tukhliyeva G N. A Practical English Grammar. – Tashkent: O’qituvchi, 2011. – p. 358

We consider several types of declarative sentences according to structure, regardless of whether it has affirmative or negative meaning. Declarative sentences may be in the following forms:

1. A two-member sentence. It can be either simple extended:

e.g. John Reed was born in 1887 in Portland, USA.

or simple unextended:

e.g. He is a doctor.

2. One-member sentence.

We have agreed to term one-member sentences those sentences which have no separate subject and predicate but one main part only instead. Among these there is the type of sentence whose main part is a noun (or a substantivised part of speech), the meaning of the sentence being that the thing denoted by the noun exists in a certain place or at a certain time.³³

Such sentences are frequent, for example, in stage directions of plays. They can be either substantival or verbal. As we witnessed Ilyish considers only substantival one-member sentences (see Ilyish's definition to the notion "one-member sentence"). Sentences with "it" and "there" are regarded as two-member sentences. Blokh considers them as impersonal sentences:

Reflecting the categories of the subject, simple sentences are divided into personal and impersonal. The further division of the personal sentences is into human and non-human; human — into definite and indefinite; non-human — into animate and inanimate. The further essential division of impersonal sentences is into factual (It rains, It is five o'clock) and perceptual (It smells of hay here).³⁴

However, we agree with Kirvalidze's classification, and we divide one-member sentences into two:

1) Substantival one-member sentence:

³³Ильиш Б. А. Строй современного английского языка. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. – р. 248

³⁴Blokh M. Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Moscow: Высшая школа, 2006. – р. 302

a) *Simple one-member sentences:*

e.g. Garden at the Manor House. A flight of grey stone steps leads up to the house. The garden, an old-fashioned one, full of roses. Time of year, July. Basket chairs, and a table covered with books, are set under a large yew-tree.

b) *Compound one-member sentences.*

e.g. A good leap, and perhaps one might clear the narrow terrace and so crash down yet another thirty feet to the sunbaked ground below. (HUXLEY)

Strange how different she had become — a strange new quiescence. (LAWRENCE)

Nice to meet you.

Glad to see you.

Sounds good to me.

2) Verbal one-member sentences (or impersonal sentences) can be used to denote:

a) *atmospheric conditions:*

It is getting dark.

It snowed yesterday.

It is spring.

b) *time:*

It is ten o'clock.

It is early morning.

c) *distance:*

It is not very far from here.

It is five hundred meters from our house to Independence square.

d) *When subject comes after compound nominal predicate:*

It is impossible to know everything.

It is strange that they left the city.

It looks to me absurdity.

Some scholars (Kobrina, Boldyrev, Xudyakov) consider sentences with “there” as impersonal sentence. Some grammarians regard that “there” is a substitute subject (Scott). According to Quirk, there are two subjects (notional and grammatical subjects). Chomskiy calls “there” insertion. Dik does not consider “there” as subject. Other scholars do not pay attention to this matter.³⁵

We are not going to investigate “there” sentences. We study this construction because it makes declarative sentence. Our goal is to see the forms of declarative sentences.

e.g. There is a telephone on the table.

There are very many French books in this library.

There was a meeting in the club yesterday.

There is no one for us to talk.

There rose new problems for the country.

3. Elliptical sentences.

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

The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to Kruisinga “Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word. Some words regularly form a sentence, such as “yes” or “no”; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only”³⁶

According to Ilyish the main sphere of elliptical sentences is of course dialogue: it is here that one or more parts of a sentence are left out because they are either to be supplied from the preceding sentence (belonging to another speaker) or may be easily dispensed with.

³⁵Кобрина Н. А., Болдырев Н. Н. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка – Москва: Высшая школа, 2007. – р. 241

³⁶Irisqulov M., Kuldashev A. Theoretical Grammar of the English Language. – Tashkent, 2008. – p. 81

Ilyish states: By "elliptical sentences" we mean sentences with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context. We will apply this term to any sentence of this kind, no matter what part or parts of it have been left out.³⁷

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

Blokh's approach to the notion "elliptical sentence" rather differs from other scholars, especially Ilyish's view. As Blokh states while speaking about one-member sentences:

Scholars point out that "genuine" one-member sentences are characterised not only as expressing one member in their outer structure; in addition, as an essential feature, they do not imply the other member on the contextual lines. In other words, in accord with this view, elliptical sentences in which the subject or the predicate is contextually omitted, are analysed as "two-member" sentences.

We cannot accept the cited approach because, in our opinion, it is based on an inadequate presupposition that in the system of language there is a strictly defined, "absolute" demarcation line between the two types of constructions. In reality, though, each one-member sentence, however pure it might appear from the point of view of non-association with an ellipsis, still, on closer observation, does expose traits of this association.³⁸

From these words we get information that Ilyish considers elliptical sentences in which subject or predicate is omitted as two-member sentence. He divides two-member sentences into complete and incomplete sentences. But Blokh added elliptical sentence to the group of "one-member sentence" and does not classify them in separate way.

³⁷Ильиш Б. А. Строй современного английского языка. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1971. – р. 250

³⁸Blokh M. Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – Moscow: Высшаяшкола, 2006. – р. 298

But it does not matter how this kind of sentence is classified and what it is called. Irrespective of its classification according to the structure we take it as a pattern of declarative sentence and we focus on its communicative function. Elliptical sentences can be both declarative and imperative, even interrogative as well. In our investigation declarative elliptical sentence is taken into consideration.

Elliptical sentences are mostly used in colloquial speech. In elliptical sentences omitted words are defined through the context. They can be in different forms:

- 1) Subject is used to mean all sentence (predicate and secondary parts omit):

e.g. *Who will meet us at the airport? – Mary. (Mary will meet us at the airport.)*

Which of these examples is correct? – Both. (Both are correct.)

Here we can see that only subject can give whole meaning, even though predicate, object and adverbial modifier of place omit. It depends on context. If we separate elliptical sentence from context the meaning is not comprehended.

For example: If I say just “*Mary*”, a person who is unaware of context can not imagine what I mean by this word. However the word “*Mary*” can be regarded as one-member sentence irrespective of what it ends with full stop or exclamation mark.

e.g. *Mary.* or *Mary!*

But we can not say that about second example. In our opinion the word “*Both*” can be used only in the context. “*Both*” can not be one-member sentence.

- 2) Secondary part of sentences while answering to the special question (both subject and predicate omit):

e.g. *When did you get in? – Yesterday morning. (I got in yesterday morning.)*

Where did you meet him? – In London. (I met him in London.)

Do you think Mary beautiful? – In a way.

Is he right? – Definitely. (He is definitely right.)

To whom did the teacher read an interesting story yesterday? – To students.

Why do you want to find him? – To see.

Can you speak Spanish? – A little.

Here we can see the similarity with the first type of elliptical sentence. Any kind of secondary part of a sentence expresses whole meaning of the sentence depending on the context. Without context none of them conveys the whole meaning. Without context they are not considered as a sentence. In current forms they are considered as declarative elliptical sentences. Unlike “*Mary*” none of the above mentioned examples can be regarded as one-member sentences.

3) Subject omits (predicate is kept regardless of existing of secondary parts of sentence):

e.g. What are you doing here so late? –

Waiting for you. (I am waiting for you.)

How was Gym? – Fine.

What were you doing? – Drinking. (I was drinking)

This kind of declarative answers can be rarely used out of context. But not all of them can express whole meaning without previous sentence. For example, by “*Waiting for you*” listener can suppose what the speaker mean. But hearing the answer “*Fine*” or “*Drinking*” it is difficult to express complete meaning.

4. Incomplete sentences (without secondary parts):

e.g Did you meet him while you were in London? – No, I didn't.

You have finished your work, haven't you? – Yes, I have.

Was it scary? – It was.

"Do you want me to leave?" – I want.

These sentences are regarded as simple unextended. The last one (*I want*) can be used out of context. But we can not consider the rest of them without context.

5. Different forms of short answers:

e.g. Do you have dinner out? – Never.

Has she return from New York? – Yes.

Can you swim? – No.

"I thought he might have said something to you about it." —

"Not a word."

Who does it for Mr. George? – James, of course.

Are you very angry with me? – Not a bit.

Do you happen to know who played the part of the doctor? – No idea.

Could you move to the left, please? – Certainly.

I feel pretty good. – Me too.

Did she have a really good time? – Definitely.

"I left my jacket in your car — could you bring it to me tomorrow?" – Sure.

"Did you girls have fun?"— "Yeah." (It was lots of fun.)

Do you like classical music or pop music? – Both.

Do you want to go to the cinema or the theatre? – Neither.

What did you say? – Nothing.

How much money has he got? – None. (or He has none.)

We can find many examples for short answers in daily life and literature. They are frequently used in dialogues. In the context they indicate whole meaning of sentence. They are all declarative sentences and they express only contextual meaning.

Besides that there are sentences which is in declarative form but the meaning is interrogative or imperative:

I don't know if we need to give him all the gory details. –

Do we need to give him all the gory details? (meaning the same)

I was curious if the aged wood would feel as silky as it looked. –

Would the aged wood feel as silky as it looked? (meaning the same)

I wondered what you meant by “Waggoner”. –

What did you mean by “Waggoner”?

Alice demands to tell the truth.

Tell me the truth.

They are mostly used in indirect speech. In indirect speech there are special words to use. They are: *to know, to wonder, to ask, to order*. But simple declarative sentences in structure can express interrogative meaning too.

"You were saying?"

Summarizing the examples above mentioned, we can conclude that structure of declaratives is characterized as quite complicated. In most statements word order is strict with some exceptions. Unlike other communicative types of sentence, declarative sentences have different forms. Short answers, one-member sentences and elliptical sentences are widely used to express statements.

2.2 Semantic function of declarative sentence in English

This part deals with functional semantics of declarative sentence. We mostly focuses on the semantics of negative sentences. In previous paragraph we paid attention to affirmatives. Semantics of declaratives is simple and clear to everybody. Therefore we decided to investigate negatives deeply.

Declarative sentence (Statements) normally end in a period or full stop and are uttered in a falling tone ∨. A declarative sentence expresses some statement in the affirmative or negative form.

Positive (Affirmative) sentences are sentences in which the subject is present and generally precedes the verb; the predicate is in the positive (affirmative), form.

Negative sentences

The negation of a simple statement is accomplished in two ways:

- by negating the verb: verb negation is usually done by means of the negative particle NOT which is attached to the operator, i.e. to the tense (modal)-bearing element of the VP (be, have, modals).

e.g. John is not working these days.

John has not been working for several days.

John could not have been working at the time.

I shan't forget you, Jude. (T.H.).

You needn't be concerned about that (T.H.)³⁹

When the sentence contains no operator, i.e. when the verb is a simple present or past tense form, the auxiliary DO is introduced

e.g. It doesn't rain much there.

You didn't need to do that.

In colloquial English the particle not occurs in an enclitic contracted form n't. In circumstances where it is possible to abbreviate the auxiliary by the use of a contracted form enclitic to the subject, two colloquial forms of negation are possible.

e.g. We're not ready – We aren't ready. (more frequent)

He'd not notice anything – He wouldn't notice anything.

As we have already mentioned, the negation of a whole sentence is done by means of the adverbs no and not. No is usually followed by the subject (expressed by a pronoun), the operator and the contracted negative form n't.

³⁹Murar I. Trantescu A M. English Syntax the Simple Sentence.– Editura Universitaria Craiova, 2011. – p. 11

e.g. Do you know him? - No.

Have you completed the work? No. I haven't.

Not is used after some verbs: believe, expect, hope, suppose, think in the Simple Present or Past Tense.

e.g. Do you think it will snow? / I hope not.

A feature of the syntax of subordination in colloquial English is the transfer of the negative from a subordinate *that*- clause where, semantically it belongs, to the main clause. Thus, *I didn't think he was happy*, can have two meanings, one in which the negation applies to the main clause, and one in which it applies through transferred negation to the subordinate clause, i.e. *I thought he wasn't happy*. Transferred negation is limited to verbs of belief or assumption, such as believe, expect, fancy, imagine, reckon, think.

e.g. I didn't think/believe/suppose (that) he's met her yet.

He doesn't imagine/reckon that we need worry. = He imagines we needn't worry.

The negative status of the *that*/clause is shown by the occurrence of the non/assertive form *yet* or of the verb *need* (which could not occur in an affirmative sentence).

- by negating another part of the sentence: to negate other parts of the sentence, the following negative pronouns, adjectives, adverbs can be used: *no one, none, neither, nothing, nowhere, never* followed by the verb in the affirmative form.

e.g. Nobody came here yesterday.

He is nowhere to be found.

Polarity Items

Roughly speaking, for any affirmative statement there is a negative counterpart, usually obtained by negating the verb (by introducing the particle not).

e.g. Bella is lucky – Bellais not Lucky.

However, this is not always so. There are affirmative sentences which have no negative counterpart (S/*Not-S). Similarly, there are negative sentences which do not have affirmative counterparts (*S/Not∩S). This lack of symmetry (regular correspondence between affirmative and negative sentences) is due to the occurrence in such sentences of certain grammatical and lexical items, which at least in some of their meanings or in given collocations require only an affirmative or only a negative environment (context). Such items have been called ‘polarity’ items: those items which occur only in affirmative contexts are called ‘affirmative polarity items’ (API), those which are restricted to negative contexts are called ‘negative polarity items’ (NPI). They are subclassified into:

a) lexical items: - items occurring only in an affirmative context: pretty (adv.), far, long since

*e.g. Jack is pretty smart. – *Jack isn’t pretty smart.*

*He is far taller than me - *He isn’t far taller than me.*

*I have long since given up smoking. – *I haven’t long since given up smoking.*

- items occurring only in a negative context: verbs such as abide, bother, budge, care (=like), adverbs such as at all, a bit, in the least/slightest.

*e.g. *He budged – He didn’t budge.*

**I care to stay at home all day long – I don’t care to stay...*

**I like it at all – I don’t like it at all.*

b) grammatical items

Certain regular correspondences between polarity items can be established in affirmative and negative sentences: thus, for the indefinite *some* and its compounds there are two corresponding items in the negative sentence: non-assertive items and negative items.

Table

<i>Affirmative sentences</i>	Negative sentences	
Affirmative items	<i>Non-assertive items</i>	<i>Negative items</i>
<i>Some</i>	<i>any</i>	<i>No</i>
<i>something, somebody</i>	<i>anything, anybody</i>	<i>nothing, nobody</i>
<i>Somewhere</i>	<i>anywhere</i>	<i>nowhere</i>
<i>Sometime</i>	<i>ever</i>	<i>never</i>
<i>Still</i>	<i>anymore/longer</i>	<i>no more/longer</i>
<i>Already</i>	<i>yet</i>	
<i>a lot, a great deal</i>	<i>much</i>	
<i>Too</i>	<i>either</i>	

e.g. I've bought something for you – I haven't bought anything for you/I've bought nothing for you

I've seen them somewhere – I haven't seen them anywhere/I've seen them nowhere.

He smokes a lot – He doesn't smoke much.

Her mother's coming, too – Her mother's not coming, either.

In most cases (except possibly that of *never*) the combination of *not* + a nonassertive item is more colloquial than the negative variant. Other

grammatical NPI are restrictive adverbs such as: barely, hardly, only, rarely, scarcely, seldom, little.

Sentences with these words behave like ordinary negative sentences. Thus:

- they are followed by non-assertive forms;

e.g. I seldom go there.

You'll scarcely hear anything from here.

I know little about him.

- they correlate with positive tags.

e.g. She scarcely seems to care, does she?

You could hardly understand the book, could you?

There are words which are negative in meaning but not in form (verbs – deny, fail, forget, prevent, adjectives – difficult, hard, reluctant). Syntactically they don't make the sentence negative:

e.g. I deny having been there but this doesn't prevent me from telling the truth.

The same happens with negative affixes: a-, in-, non-, un-, -less. They realize negation at word level, but negation doesn't take scope over the whole sentence:

e.g. I think it's not useless to do it. I think it's impossible to solve this matter.

As we can notice a negative prefix allows the verb in the negative form.

The initial negative element.

The mere consideration of these examples might lead to the supposition that the rule of attaching the negative particle either to the verb or to another

element, such as pronouns, adverbs is an optional rule. In fact, there are certain restrictions on the optionality of this rule, determined by the position of the pronoun/adverb with respect to the verb.

When the indefinite pronoun/adverb precedes the verb, the negative particle is always attached to the pronoun. The verb is not negated since non-assertive forms cannot precede not in the sentence. Therefore, there is no alternative construction to the negative pronoun when it occurs in initial position.

*e.g. Something was missing – Nothing was missing. - *Anything wasn't missing.*

- when the indefinite pronoun follows the verb, either the verb or the infinite pronoun is negated.

e.g. She said something – She didn't say anything, - She said nothing.

Knowing this rule, one understands the alternation anything / nothing in active and passive sentences.

e.g. Active: She never knows anything.

Passive: Nothing is ever known by her.

Scope of negation.

If a sentence contains a negative element, the whole sentence is negative. This means that after a negative, a non-assertive form must be used in place of every assertive form that would have occurred in the corresponding affirmative sentence.

e.g. I've never travelled anywhere by air yet.

I haven't ever been on any of those big liners, either.

The non-assertive forms even occur in affirmative subordinate clauses following a negative in the main clause.

e.g. Nobody has promised that any of you will be released yet.

The scope of the negative particle normally extends from the negative particle itself to the end of the sentence.

e.g. I didn't met any of the speakers.

Assertive forms, however, can occur after a negative, so long as they fall outside the scope of negation.

e.g. I didn't met some of the speakers.

Negative intensification (Emphasis).

A negative word can be given emphasis by placing it in front position. This is followed by inversion of subject and operator.

e.g. I will never make that mistake again – Never will I make that mistake again. Nowhere have we seen the results more clearly than here. Not till then did they see the disaster in the corridor. (J.G.)

There are several ways of giving emotive emphasis to a negative:

- the combination not one, not a are emphatic alternatives to no as a countable determiner.

e.g. Not a word come from his lips (=No word...)

- negative determiners and pronouns are given emphasis by at all, whatever, by any means, a bit.

e.g. You have no excuse whatever.

- other familiar and emotively coloured expressions of negation are exemplified by the following lexical NPI:

e.g. I didn't sleep a wink. I don't care a damn whether we lose or not.

Double negatives.

Two negatives that occur in the same sentence cancel each other and produce an affirmative. Such sentences show an interesting connection between logic and language: in language, as well as in logic, two negations are equivalent to an assertion,

e.g. I can't not obey – I have to obey.

Major points of the grammar bite:

- Clauses are either positive or negative.
- Negative sentences are most commonly formed by using not or its contraction n't.
- The verb as operator is a key tool for forming negation with not or n't
- Sentence negation is the main type of negation.
- The scope of negation is important for choosing non-assertive versus assertive forms (polarity items).

Chapter III. The ways of teaching the sentence in English classes

3.1 Popular language teaching methods with focus on teaching Grammar

This chapter deals with the ways of teaching the sentences in English classes. The first paragraph mostly focuses on the review of main methods used in teaching grammar, development of methods in historical process, problems of using methods in our country.

During the last centuries there have been always interest in learning and teaching foreign languages. Language specialists tried to develop effective methods of learning and teaching foreign languages. Based on the research and people's experiences specialists developed several language teaching methods. We can notice that one particular method was dominant in one period of time. Below we will focus on popular language teaching methods before we start talking about teaching grammar to language learners. It is clear that depending on teaching methodology grammar played its role. While speaking about particular method we will pay attention to how grammar was approached while teaching any foreign language.

While studying methods, one can be complicated or puzzled because of the variety of methods. In different periods, depending on the aims of teaching and learning a foreign language, new methods appeared and widely used. Let us overview some popular methods used in teaching foreign languages.

The grammar-translation method

The grammar-translation method is the oldest method of teaching foreign language teaching. Its history began in Latin schools. This method has a long history and has influenced the contemporary methods of foreign language teaching.

The grammar-translation method was widely used in teaching the classics, namely Latin, and it was transferred to the teaching of modern languages when they were introduced into schools, first as an optional and then as a compulsory subject. In teaching a foreign language by means of the grammar-translation method attention was paid to the assimilation of grammar rules of the foreign language that pupils studied. The vocabulary was “turn up” to grammar. Translation was extensively utilized both as a means of explanation of new words, grammar forms, and structures, and as a means of mastering the foreign language, all exercises for assimilating the language material being limited to translation from the mother tongue into the foreign language into mother tongue.⁴⁰

Main features of the grammar-translation method are as follows:

- a) demand for grammatical analyses;
- b) supposition that grammatical categories can be determined in general terms with reference to meaning, grammatical categories being basis of all languages.

By this principle the best way to say a sentence in a foreign language is to start with a sentence in the mother tongue, analyze it grammatically into components. This method considers that syntax is universal for all languages. Some patterns of a foreign language that do not correspond to the patterns of the native language are regarded as “exceptions”.

The grammar-translation method had been widely used by the 19th century. As a result of the development in pedagogics, psychology and linguistics this method was altered in many terms at the end of the 19th century and in the beginning of the 20th century.

Chomsky’s methods of teaching grammar

⁴⁰Rogova G V. Methods of Teaching English. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1975. – p. 11

Chomsky states that language study could not take place through conventional formation, because language is rather complicated to be learned in such a manner, significantly given the brief time available. There must be, Chomsky reasoned, some innate capacity that humans possessed which predisposed them to look for basic patterns in language. Furthermore, people could create and comprehend novel utterances—utterances they could not possibly have encountered in the language that was spoken to them.

This reflection was supported by arguments from children learning English as a native language. Overgeneralization errors such as seated and sleep were common in children's speech. Such mistakes suggested that children were not repeating what was said to them, but rather were attempting to induce the rules for the past tense from the language to which they were exposed. Thus, through a process of detecting patterns in the input language, forming hypotheses based on these about how the language worked, testing these hypotheses and revising them in light of contradictory evidence, little by little the grammar of the native language would be acquired.

By the very term inter language we can see that it was considered to be a language in its own right, subject to the same constraints as any other natural language. Moreover, any point along the Inter language continuum was held to be fully describable by grammatical rules.

One cannot fail to note that viewing language acquisition as a process of rule formation had tremendous implications for the role of the learners. Rather than being seen as passive imitators of carefully controlled language input, learners were seen to be active agents involved in a process of "creative construction." Errors were not something to be avoided, but rather were regarded as welcome signs that learners were actively testing hypotheses. Rather than seeing the native language as a source of interference, the native language was a source of hypotheses about how the target language functioned.

Therefore, language learning was seen to be a natural, cognitive process with learners ultimately responsible for their own learning. With this shift of focus to the active role of the learner, another serious question motivated much research: the differential success question. Why was it, second-language acquisition researchers asked, that while all children with normal faculties were able to achieve native-speaker status, rarely (if ever) were second-language learners able to attain the same level of achievement? During the years that followed, many factors were hypothesized to enhance or inhibit the second language acquisition capability of learners: social, motivational, affective, aptitude, personality, experiential, instructional, biological, and cognitive (see, for example, Schumann 1978). It has also been suggested that successful language learners employ more effective learning strategies than less successful learners (Rubin 1975) and that more success in language learning might be achieved if teachers engaged in learner training as well as language training (Wenden 1985). From this recent suggestion, we see that in 1987 learners are still seen to be the bearers of responsibility for how much learning takes place.

What has changed since Chomsky first proposed it, however, is the view that language learning is solely a process of rule formation. While still assigning to the learner an active role of sifting through incoming data and testing hypotheses which eventually lead to the restructuring of the learner's inter language, the view of what the learner tests hypotheses about has shifted some. Working within the framework of Universal Grammar proposed by Chomsky's (1981) Government-Binding Theory, second-language researchers (e.g., White 1985) have been exploring the idea that grammar acquisition involves setting or fixing the parameters of principles of the Universal Grammar in a manner consistent with the data of a particular language

The Direct method

The direct method appeared as a reaction against the grammar-translation method. It began to be widely used in schools in the 1870's. The rapid development of industry and colonial expansion required plenty of officials who had a practical skills of the language, people who could speak and write a foreign language and be able to communicate with foreigners. Thus practical mastery of a rapid development of pedagogic, psychology, namely, apperceptive psychology, and foreign language becomes the main object of teaching this subject at school.

The linguistics promoted the appearance of new methods. The characteristic features of the direct method are as follows:

(1) the practical direction in the teaching of foreign language which is understood as teaching language skills and speaking in particular, therefore spoken language becomes the basis of teaching;

(2) the ignoring of the existence of the mother tongue as it is assumed that learning the mother tongue and learning a foreign language are similar processes, merely undertaken at different ages;

(3) restricted application or very often complete elimination of translation as a means of teaching a language which plays a leading part in the grammar-translation method; instead of translation, visual aids and various oral and written exercises are recommended on a large scale;

(4) the inductive approach to teaching grammar , the learner may discover the rules of grammar for himself after he has become acquainted with many examples (in the grammar-translation method the rule is first stated, and then sentences embodying the rule are studied; later the rule is put into practice by writing new sentences, generally by translating sentences from the mother tongue into the foreign language);

(5) great care in teaching pronunciation throughout the course, and especially the first weeks and months; correct pronunciation must be constantly practised since comprehension and speaking is possible if the learner has adequate pronunciation in the target language;

(6) great attention to the subjects of the texts, especially a topical arrangement of the material with the purpose of ensuring speech development. The method is called direct because in teaching a foreign language an attempt is made to establish a direct connection between a foreign word and the thing or notion it denotes without the aid of the native language.⁴¹

The teachers who accepted the method, involve the pupil from the first step of learning a new language in conversation and supply meaning by referring directly to objects and picture charts; they express the meaning of sentences in order to make themselves understood. The direct method had ready supporters in a short time thanks to its effectiveness. It stimulated enormously the pupil's interest to learn and make progress.

Changes in teaching

In the 1960`s, it was felt that students were not learning enough realistic, situational language using these methods, and that they consequently did not know how to communicate in real-life situations. An increase in travel around this time probably gave an opportunity to indicate these shortcomings.

Since the introduction of the communicative approach in the 1970`s, it has become a more or less standard method for teaching foreign languages, with many countries adopting the approach at primary or secondary levels of education.

Communicative language teaching makes use of real-life or simulated real-life situations in order to promote effective language use. The teacher sets

⁴¹Rogova G V. *Methods of Teaching English*. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1975. – p. 14

up a situation that is likely to happen in real life and motivates the students to act a task. Appropriate language is pre-taught using a variety of techniques, and practiced in context.

Explanation and demonstration take the place of translation for new vocabulary items. The target language is used for all classroom interaction, the classroom itself being a real-life situation in which effective communication takes place. Students are encouraged to ask questions, interact with each other and take control of activities to reach their own outcomes.

Learning is seen as the responsibility of the learner, and the teachers find themselves talking less and listening more than in a traditional classroom. The teacher sets up an activity and then allows the learners to perform – the performance of the activity is the immediate goal, with feedback and further input from the teacher coming later. With the communicative approach, language is seen as a tool for interaction - it is not simply a subject for academic study and analysis. Students look at the use of language both from a linguistic point of view (grammar, lexis, collocation, etc) and from a social or situational point of view (who is speaking, why are they speaking, what is appropriate in this context, etc). Because of the increased encouragement to participate fully, students gain confidence through direct experience in what they can achieve, motivating them to use the language more frequently and allowing them to learn more quickly.

Although it is quite demanding for students to keep up in conversation with them, they take it as an advantage in their studies. Most English learners are actually familiar with the fact that the best way to advance their learning skills is adjusting to it in an English speaking environment.

Here we come the main matter of modern teaching problems.

As it happened in many parts of the world, in our country English languageteachers have changed, or are changing, from atraditional approach to teaching formal grammarrules to a more communicative approach toteaching how to use grammar meaningfully incontext. What is the reason for changing teaching methods used for a long time effectively? Let us listen to specialists' opinion on this matter. When asked why this is happening,English teachers studying in the UK answered asfollows:

- A new series of textbooks was introduced, and we had to use them.
- I noticed that children in my class can do the grammar exercises, but they don't use this grammar well if they want to say something for themselves.
- I wanted the children in my class to enjoygrammar more. Most of them don't like rules very much. They find them boring.
- I was very good at English at school, but when I came to England I couldn't understand what people said, and I often didn't know what to say.
- In my country we need better English to develop international business contexts.
- In my country we want to expand tourism, so the government wants more people to be able to be able to use English to speak to tourists from many countries.
- My department head studied in England and she taught us all about thecommunicative approach.
- The Ministry of Education told us we haveto change the way we teach.

The same with our condition we think. So this era of intellectual and information technologies is needs new approaches to teaching foreign languages. Time is always demanding modifications.

3.2 Using interactive methods in teaching declarative sentences

This paragraph researches practical methods of teaching grammar mostly focusing on teaching declarative sentences. In previous paragraph we reviewed traditional methods and their development. This time we study effective modern methods in practice.

Objectives of Teaching Grammar:

1. It helps to use the language effectively.
2. Knowledge of the underlying 'rules' of grammar is provided.
3. To develop students insight into the structure of English language.
4. To enable the students to assimilate the correct patterns of the language.
5. To teach grammar as a rule governed behaviour.
6. To develop the mental abilities of reasoning and correct observation.
7. To develop a scientific attitude in pupils.

Principles of Teaching Grammar:

1. To let the pupils absorb grammatical items in the initial stages.
2. Grammar should not begin on abstract lines and principles.
3. Grammar points should begin with language.
4. Try to teach grammar and usage simultaneously.
5. Attention should be paid to the meaning of the structure.
6. Grammar should not be taught as an intellectual exercise.

In order to understand a language and to express 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 relationship 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.⁴²

Let us have an example in order to understand the importance of grammar in learning foreign language.

When I walked through the door, they greeted me.

It was Bella who was dancing with me.

Carlisle asked Bella how she is doing.

These two sentences include some grammar difficulties which special for the English language. Complex sentences and indirect speech in English are rather different from the Uzbek language. They are complex sentence in English, but the difference between the structures is large. We learn grammar so that we understand the meaning easily.

The chief difficulty in learning a new language is that of changing form the grammatical mechanism of the native language to that of the new language. Obviously, each language has its own system of word order to form sentences. As we mentioned above in English declarative sentences word order is strict. Inversion is very rare in English and we can find it only in poetry. Moreover, word order in English rather differs from that in Uzbek as well.

He examined my arm again.

Umeninggo 'limni yana bir borte kshirib ko'rdi.

I am trying to understand what you are thinking.

Men sen nimani o'ylayotganingni tushunishga harakat qilyapman.

⁴²Rogova G V. Methods of Teaching English. – Ленинград: Просвещение, 1975. – p. 134

As we can see word order is an important problem in teaching English to Uzbek learners.

Expected role of Grammar:

- It should assist in learning the language.
- The goal is to learn the language.
- Enable the children to learn the language straight away.
- A good deal of practice in all the four skills is given.
- The children learn the language in a natural way.
- The learner can use grammar as a tool.

Contents of Grammar curriculum in different stages.

□□ During the primary level, the functions of words and the way they are used are taught.

□□ During the secondary level, sentence patterns, phrase patterns are taught.

□□ At the senior stage, analysis, syntheses, transformation of sentences are taught.

Deductive method of teaching grammar

- It consists on grammar-based language learning.
- The motto is: grammar first, language next.
- Examples flow down from universal rules.
- The approach is: general to particular.
- The teacher states the rules with examples.
- Children who already learnt some language.

What kind of exercises and activities should we use in teaching declarative sentences? When teaching students about declarative sentences, teachers may want to share few examples similar to these:

His face was absurdly handsome. (statement)

Charlie sent me to look for you. (statement)

London is situated on the Thames.

London is the capital of the UK. (both are fact)

Though declarative sentences are the most common and students usually have an essay time identifying them, a careful review and check for mastery is important. Sometimes students simply look for a period at the end of a sentence to determine if it is declarative. However, this is not a sound strategy because imperative sentences can end with a full stop as well.

In order to improve students' grammar skills the game "Noughts and crosses" is useful to make declarative sentences. This game can be played at a very simple level or a more complex one, depending on individual abilities. It is a good example of teacher-made material which suits specific needs:

Noughts and crosses

1. Teacher draws a box like the following one on the board:

2. The two teams – noughts (0) and crosses (x) – have to try and complete a horizontal, vertical or diagonal row of noughts or crosses by taking it in turns to come to the front and fill in one of the boxes. A completed grid might look like this:

X	x	0
	0	
0		X

3. In spite of noughts and crosses sentences is used in grammar class. For example first team will write affirmative declarative sentences, the latter team will write negative declarative sentences (interrogatives or imperatives):

My name is Sam		
	It was cold	I'm right
<i>I'm not hurt</i>	<i>I don't know</i>	<i>I'm not leaving</i>

True/False quiz

Teacher hands round copies of questions like the following and allows some time for preparation of the answers. The question should be of variety difficulty, and consultation amongst members of the same team should be encouraged.

1. *In the UK, people drive on the left-hand side of the road.*
2. *If you go to Oxford, you will see Buckingham Palace.*
3. *The head of the government in Britain is called the president.*
4. ...

and so on

Let the players choose the questions they would like to answer when it's their turn. By allowing consultation and choice support can be provided for weaker students in this game. If the statement is false let the student correct.

What did they say?

The aim of this game is to give students practice in paraphrasing the main points of a spoken message in their own language and to increase their awareness of communicative equivalences in L1 (English) and L2 (Uzbek).

There are three participants in this game. The first participant speaks both L1 (English) and L2 (Uzbek), the second participant only speaks English and the third one only speaks Uzbek. Student 1 asks student 2 anything about him and his family, country, hobby etc. The dialogue can be as follows:

S1 (in Uzbek): Where are you from?

S3 (in Uzbek): I'm from Uzbekistan.

S1 (in English): He says he is from Uzbekistan.

S2 (in English): Ask him if he likes it here.

S1 (in Uzbek): Do you like it here?

S3 (in Uzbek): Yes, it's very hot.

S1 (in English): He says it's very hot.

...

This game can be played without using Uzbek as well. We can organize telephone conversation in English. Student 1 does not need to translate sentences into English but to change into indirect speech.

Many lessons are based on that well-trying formula "text+questions" whereby a listening or reading text is presented, vocabulary items are more or less checked or explained, and the main business of the lesson is covered by comprehension questions which are typically of the kinds mentioned in numbers 1-6 of the questionnaire at the beginning of this chapter. In audio-lingual approaches to language teaching, for example, one of the teacher's main roles is to ask comprehension questions of this sort. Even at its best, the audio-lingual approach allows only quick and articulate students to build their confidence. Little allowance is made for differences in either learning style or proficiency level amongst students.⁴³

Although Yes/No and Wh questions are in practice they are often used as testing device. In this term, such questions do not include the weak learner from full participation in the activity, and draw a hierarchy of good and bad learners, failures and successes. Plenty of the exercises based on traditional question types place the learner in a psychological corner, where anxiety is increased and the fear or failure may lead to verbal paralysis.

Let us take this simple text to compare traditional and non-traditional drills:

My name is Bella. I get up at 6.30 every morning. I have breakfast with my family at 7 o'clock. I go to school at 8 o'clock. My mother goes to work at

⁴³Prodromou L. Mixed Ability Classes. – London: Macmillan Publishers, 1992. – p. 74

9.30. *I have lunch at 12 o'clock. I go to the library with Mary at 1 o'clock. I come home at 4 o'clock. I go to bed at 9 p.m.*

In traditional questionnaire a teacher may ask the students the following questions:

What time does Bella get up?

Where does she go after the classes?

What time does Bella's mother go to work?

...

In this case only the quick students can answer and there is no chance for slower one to express his feeling. We can use substitution tables that work on the principle of the rapid production of a maximum number of correct sentences.

This table shows content of the text:

Bella	gets up	at 6.30
She	has breakfast	at 7 o'clock
Bella's mother	goes to work	at 9 o'clock
Mary	goes to the library	at 1 o'clock.

In order to involve all the students in the activity a teacher draw the second table on the board. Student write their own order of the day. For example:

Dilshod	gets up	at 7 o'clock
Madina	has breakfast	at 7.45
Sanjar
...

In this activity all the learners can participate actively. There appears confidence in themselves and their knowledge in their mind. Teacher should support weak learners all the time.

Prodromou classifies basic types of exercise into closed-ended and open-ended exercises. An open-ended exercise can be defined as one that allows the learners to work in their own way, at their own pace, within the framework of one and the same lesson.⁴⁴

CLOSED	OPEN
Yes/No questions	Prediction
“wh” questions	Matching
Multiple choice	Re-ordering
Gap-filling	Use of charts
Dictation	Labelling diagrams
Drills	Describe and draw

It is normal for teachers to work with the exercises that exist in their textbook or which have proved successful for them in the past. However, it is also important to broaden one’s current materials as it can be difficult struggle working with a limited set of exercises in the face of the complex and unpredictable problems of a mixed ability class. Prediction is used to let the students express their ideas and thought open.

A mixed ability approach to prediction from headlines and titles encourages students to draw on their knowledge of the language, their own experience, their knowledge of the world and of other subjects.

⁴⁴Prodromou L. Mixed Ability classes. – London: Macmillan Publishers, 1992. – p. 73

ROBOT MANAGER
RUNS FACTORY

KINGS and QUEENS
to be OLD-FASHIONED

If a student, in an attempt to say something relevant to the subject, offers the wrong word but the right idea or, embarrassed, says the word in their mother tongue, then the teacher's response to this should be positive and encouraging. Indeed, such instances should be accepted by the teacher as useful opportunities to supply the right word in English. In this way, the student can be seen to be making a useful contribution to the lesson, rather than holding the class up; a weakness is transformed into an integral part of the lesson and made strength.

Another type of prediction method is to use words, phrases or sentences to refer to the text. Writing some words or sentences on the board, a teacher asks students' opinion what the text is about. By this interactive method all the students can involve the class. Here are some examples to use this method:

1. *money, standard of living, brilliant, business, salary*
2. *community, contacts, strangers, street, acquaintance*
3. *Other people's mobile ring tones drives me mad...*
4. *extreme commuting, journey to work, rush-hour traffic*
5. ...

The kind of prediction exercise in which a weak learner can probably best excel is that based on pictures of different kinds, whether these be cartoons, photographs or textbook illustrations. A picture is universal and cross boundaries in a way that words can not. One do not have to have good language skills to guess what a picture is about, whether on its or together with a text, and students will derive confidence from this fact.

Describing a picture.

This activity is useful to improve students' imagination and language skills. Teacher describes a picture which the class has to draw. The students compare their pictures and highlight any differences between them. They share their findings. Teacher compares drawings with original picture. By this activity students can take an active part in the lesson.

Getting to know each other better.

This kind of exercises are more appropriate for later on in a language course, when the students have grown more familiar and confident with each other. The teacher asks the students to write down information based on between two and four topics from a list such as the following:

<p><i>My favourite TV programme is</i> _____</p> <p><i>My favourite school subject is</i> _____</p> <p><i>My favourite sport is</i> _____</p> <p><i>My favourite film is</i> _____</p> <p><i>The person I most dislike is</i> _____</p> <p>...</p>
--

The students go round the class to find the people who have at least one answer in common with their own.

Photographic memory

It is a good way to improve learners' memory skills.

1. The teacher asks the students to find a photograph from the family album or a magazine and bring it to class.
2. Working in pairs, the students write a brief description of the photograph they have chosen.
3. The teacher collects the description in with their respective photographs.
4. The students try and remember as much as they can about their picture, in order to describe it again as accurately as possible in writing.

Making a story

This activity helps the students to improve creative proficiencies. The teacher write the first sentence on the board. Students should continue the story. For example, the teacher writes:

*In sunny day I was walking in the forest alone... or
It was windy dark night...*

After some time each student tells their own story depending on their imagination, beginning with that sentence. Moreover, the teacher can use another version of this activity. It is *Finishing the story*.

One fine day...

Yesterday it was rainy, so I took my umbrella with me. When I got to work, I parked my car and went into the office. There was a lot of work to do. I felt lazy, so I sat down and made a few telephone calls. I tried to waste time without doing my business. Soon, it was time to eat. I had a lovely big lunch. When I got back to the office, my boss met me at the door...

We can use problem solving texts as well. For example:

Many years ago, a merchant owed a huge sum of money to a money-lender. The money-lender was old and ugly, and he wanted to marry merchant's beautiful daughter. He said he would forget the merchant's debt if he could have his daughter instead.

What would you do if you were the merchant (daughter)?

Non-traditional activities mentioned above serve to involve weak learners as well as strong learners effectively. With the help those activities all the students can take part actively in the lesson.

CONCLUSION

As Wilkins says: “Grammar is the means through which linguistic creativity is ultimately achieved.” Grammar is the total mechanism which a language possesses and through which its users are able to communicate with each other. That is why grammar plays a great role in language system.

Regardless of different points of view, grammar takes an important place in foreign language teaching. However, in the terms of changing existed approaches to teaching language in all spheres, in our opinion, attitude to teaching grammar is happening to reform. As all the fields of our life need more professionals who can communicate in English today, modern world is demanding new approaches to teaching.

Although grammar has been studied for a long time in both theory and practice, there is no unique thoughts and hypothesis by linguists. As well as there are achievements in theoretical English, there are many works to do in the future. Moreover, we have large experience in teaching foreign languages, but we should develop in that and accept new technologies and methods as well.

In our investigation, we tried to study problems of sentence focusing on declaratives. As a result, we can say that sentence problem has not been solved yet. It needs more investigations since there is no satisfactory definition of the notion “sentence” and its classification.

We have agreed that there are four types of sentence according to the purpose of communication. Declarative sentences are very common ones in English. Though, word order in declarative sentences is extremely strict and there does not almost exist inversion in English, short answers are widely used in colloquial speech. The structure of English simple sentences is not so much complicated. But there are impersonal sentences in English which do not exist in Uzbek and there is no alternation in our native language like the sentences

beginning with “it” and “there” Elliptical and one-member sentences are often used to refer to the whole meaning of sentence.

As we investigated substitution and ellipsis are widely used in order to shorten the sentence as much as possible. Uzbek people come across difficulties to understand the meaning of an utterance in English. It is particularly seen in comprehending complex sentences.

The function of declarative sentence is to state or inform something. That’s why any word or phrase which refers to the statement is considered as one-member declarative sentence.

For example: *Morning... Rainy day... Tashkent...*

As semantics is what it means, declarative sentences are statements which asserts or disclaim any kind of information. According to its meaning we divide them into affirmatives and negatives. We investigated them in the second chapter together with structure and function of declarative sentence.

What about problems of teaching sentences to non-native speakers, methodology of teaching grammar needs to renew, we think. Traditional ways of teaching a foreign language especially grammar is getting old. New age of information and technologies demands for new approaches to language teaching. Traditional methods make weak learners much weaker and lazier. They are good for active learners. But shy students stay in the corners, according to psychological approach involving all the students in lesson is more important.

Modern teacher should be aware of information technologies and new techniques of teaching. Teaching methods are changing all over the world and teachers prefer to use interactive methods rather than traditional ones.

In our country school pupils are taught for English from the first year of school. Teaching a foreign language to children at this age is more difficult than conducting a class where there are teenagers or adults. Teaching children needs additional principles of methodology which is waiting to be worked out.

We overviewed some useful and effective ways of teaching which teachers can use in language classes. They are mainly games and interactive methods which helps to encourage even bad learners.

In this research we critically analyzed current ways of teaching regardless of where they are used. Most teachers do not pay attention to individual skills of weak students. They are common to work with excellent learners and not to motivate others to study. This attitude causes to increase difference between good and weak learners.

The main thing we are going to conclude is as follows:

- Investigations on linguistics especially on grammar should be continued and solve several problems;
- Communicative types of sentences, their structural, functional and semantic peculiarities should be studied comparing Uzbek and English;
- Language methodology should be worked out from the psychological point of view.

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