THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

UZBEKISTAN STATE UNIVERSITY OF WORLD LANGUAGES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE THE SECOND FACULTY
THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH STYLISTICS

Pardaev Xasan Norim O'g'li

DISTRIBUTIONAL ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH NOUNS

5120100 - Philology and teaching languages (the English language) for granting bachelor`s degree

QUALIFICATION PAPER

THE QUALIFICATION PAPER IS ADMITTED TO DEFENCE
The Head of the Department of English Stylistic
_____ Glazirina.S.A
"_____" _____2016

SCIENTIFIC ADVISOR:
_____ Kasimova A.
"____" _____2016

Tashkent -2016

Contents

Introduction

Chapter I Review of the linguistic literature on the problems of English nouns in Modern English

1.1 Essential features of nouns in Present Day English

1.2 Different ways of forming nouns in English

1.3 Inflections of nouns

Chapter II Contextual analysis of the English Nouns used in A. Christie's works

2.1 Peculiar features of English nouns used in A. Christie's works

2.2 Classification of English nouns in Modern English

2.3 The Category of Number of English Nouns used A. Christie's works

Chapter III The essential problems of teaching English grammar

3.1 Different approaches to the teaching English grammar

3.2 The psychological characteristic of grammar skills

3.3 The content of teaching grammar

Conclusion

Bibliography

Introduction

Conditions of reforming of all education system the question of the world assistance to improvement of quality of scientific theoretical aspect of educational process is especially actually put. As President I.A. Karimov has declared in the program speech "Harmoniously development of generation a basis of progress of Uzbekistan": … all of us realize that achievement of great purposes put today before us noble aspirations it is necessary for updating a society". The effect and destines of our reforms carried out in the name of progress and the future results of our intentions are connected with highly skilled, conscious staff the experts who are meeting the requirements of time.[1]

This qualification paper is dedicated to the study of distributional contextual analysis of the English Nouns used in A. Christie's works. The development of English nouns as socio-historical and language category is closely connected with the main stages of social and economic development of mankind. English nouns have always drawn attention of simple inhabitants and professional researches. Today abstract nouns are studied by representatives of the diversified sciences (linguists, geographers, historians, ethnographers, psychologists, literary critics).

However first of all abstract nouns are steadfastly investigated by linguists as any name is the word entering into system of language, formed under laws of language and used in speech.

The subject matter of research is English nouns and their usage in English language. The analyzed products are on interesting source of enrichment of our knowledge in the field of linguistics.

The actuality of the qualification paper is that till now the problem of the nature and functioning of English nouns were not exposed to detailed research. As have caused a choice of a theme of our research.

[1] И.А. Каримов. Гармонично развитое поколение – основа прогресса Узбекистана. сит.1998 стр. 156-168.

The aim of our qualification paper is complex studying the use of English nouns and its properties in the context. According to this main aim following particular tasks are put forward:

1. To give general notes on English nouns;
2. To study the structural peculiarities of English nouns;
3. To analyze the English nouns of English language according to the morphological point of view;
4. To give the semantic classification to the English nouns in English;
5. To classify English nouns by linguistic-cultural side;

The main material of our qualification paper is illustrated with the examples taken from English literary texts. Also, we used information from websites.

The novelty of this qualification paper is determined by the concrete results of investigation which is distributing the ways of comparison of English nouns into various groups according to their structure and semantics.

The investigate the research work more clearly a lot of methods have been used in our qualification paper. They are: typological methods, linguistic-cultural methods, diachronic and synchronic studies morphological and semantic analyses.

The theoretical value of this qualification paper is that the theoretical position of this paper can be used in delivering lectures on theory of grammar, typology, interpretation of text and other courses.

The practical value of this qualification paper is that the practical results of the research can be used as the examples or tasks in seminars in theory of grammar of the English language.

Structurally, this qualification paper consists of introduction, three chapters with their paragraphs, conclusion and bibliography.

Chapter I Review of the linguistic literature on the problems of English nouns in Modern English

1.1 Essential features of nouns in Present Day English

The noun is a word expressing substance in the widest sense of the word.

In the concept of substance we include not only names of living beings (e. g. *boy, girl, bird)* and lifeless things (e. g. *table, chair, book),* but also names of abstract notions, i. *e.* qualities, states, actions, *(kindness, strengthsleep, fear, conversation, fight),* abstracted from their bearers[2].

The noun has the foilowing morphological characteristics:

1. Nouns that can be counted have two nam ben: singular and frfural (e. g, singular: *a girt* plural: *girls).*

2. Nouns denoting living beings (and some nouns denoting lifeless things) have two case form: the common case and the genitive case, It is doubtful whether the grammatical category of gender exists in Modern English for it is hardly ever expressed by means of grammatical forms.

There is practically only one gender-forming suffix in Modern English, the suffix *-ess,* expressing feminine gender- It is not widely

used, hen — heir-ss poet — poetess actor acti-ess waiter — waitr-ess host — bost-ew lion — lion-ess tiger — tigr-ess

the distinction of nouns into masculine, feminine aitd neuter, may be expressed lexically by means of different words or word-compounds;

father — mother man — woman boy — girl

gentleman — lady

husband —wife boy-friend — girl-friend

Very oflen personal or possessive pronouns indicate the gender of the noun.

The noun has certain syntactical characteristics.

The chief syntactical functions of the noun in the sentence are those of the

[2] Kaushanskaya V.L "A Grammar of the English language" M.1973, 186-203p

subject and the object. But It may also be used as an attribute or a predicative.

The sun was rising to all his splendid beauty. (A. Christie) (subject)

Troy and Yates followed the tourists. (A. Christie) (object)

He (Bostoney) was an architect ... (A. Christie) (predicative)

Mary brought in the fruit on a tray and with it a glass bowl, and a blue dish... (A. Christie) (attribute; the noon *glass* is used in the common case)

The hero and heroine, of course, just arrived from his father's yacht (A. Christie) (ATTRIBUTE; the noun *fat fur* Is used in the genitive case)

A noun preceded by a preposition (a prepositional phrase) may be used as attribute, prepositional indirect object, and adverbial modifier.

To the left were clean panes of glass.. (A. Christie) *(*attribute*)* Picket did not, answer, his throat felt too dry. He had heard of the police. (A. Christie) She went into the drawing-room and lighted the firs. (A. Christie)

(ADVERBIAL MODIFIER

Stop, everything, Laura!* cried Jose in astonishment. (A. Christie)

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

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

Morphological composition of-nouns.

According to their morphological composition we distinguish simple, derivative and compound nouns.

3. Simple nouns are nouns which have neither prefixes nor .suffixes. They are indecomposable: *chair, table, room, map, fish,*
work.-

4. Derivative nouns are nouns which have derivative elements (prefixes or suffixes or both): *reader, sailor, blackness, childhood, misconduct, Inexperience.*

Productive noun-forming suffixes are:

-*er:* reader, teacher, worker

-*ist:* telegraphist, dramatist -*ess:* heiress, hostess, actress -*ness*; carelessness, madness, blackness -ism: nationalism, Imperialism

Unproductive suffixes are:

-*hood:* childhood, manhood -*dom:* freedom

-*ship:* friendship, relationship -*merit:* development*:* importance -dependency -*ty:* cruelty

-*Ity:* generosity

3. Compound nouns are nouns built from two or more stems. Compound nouns often have one stress. The meaning of a compound often differs from the meanings of its elements[3].

The main types of compound nouns are as follows:

(a) noun-stem + noun-stem: *apple tree, snowball;*

(b) adjective-stem-f-noun-stem: *blackbird, bluebell;*

(c)verb-stem-(-noun-stem: *pickpocket;* the stem of a gerund or of a participle may be the firs I component of a compound noun: *dining-room, reading-hall, dancing-girl.*

[3] Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English.M-L., 1971., p.36-37

1.2 Different ways of forming nouns in English

A common noun is a word that names people, places, things, or ideas. They are not the names of a single person, place or thing. A common noun begins with a lowercase letter unless it is at the beginning of a sentence[4].

For example: - People:-

man, girl, boy, mother, father, child, person, teacher, student

Animals:- cat, dog, fish, ant, snake

Things:- book, table, chair, phone

Places:- school, city, building, shop

Ideas:- love, hate, idea, pride

Name for any individual of a class.

A common noun is a name possessed by *any* one of a class of persons, animals, or things.

Common, as here used, is from a Latin word which means *general, possessed by all*.

For instance, *road* is a word that names *any* highway outside of cities; *wagon* is a term that names *any* vehicle of a certain kind used for hauling: the words are of the widest application. We may say, *the man here*, or *the man in front of you*, but the word *man* is here hedged in by other words or word groups: the name itself is of general application.

These most common nouns include an example sentence to help the learner. We have tried to use the most common usage of each noun, and, when possible,

[4] Gindlina E.M. "All grammar of the English Language. L. 1971, 130-132p

contextual clues to help you learn common collocations (words that often go with each other).

While this list is helpful for a strong beginning, more advanced vocabulary building will help us quickly improve our English.

age	The age of my daughter is three.
air	The air is quite clear today.
anger	His anger knows no limits.
animal	I'm not sure of the name of that animal over there in that cage.
answer	He provided an excellent answer to my question.
apple	I love a good red apple after dinner.
area	This area is intended for recreation
arm	He put his arm out for inspection.
art	It would be difficult to live without art.
atom	One of the smallest elements is the atom.
baby	She put her baby into its crib.
back	I turned my back on that outrageous man.
ball	He hit the ball out of the park.
band	The band played until three in the morning.
bank	The bank closes at three in the afternoon.
bar	Let's go to the bar and get a beer.
base	He works at the base on the otherside of town.
bat	If you look up there you can see a bat flying between the trees.
bear	The bear is a dangerous but playful animal.
beauty	The countryside is splendid in its beauty.
bell	He rang the bell to signal the end of class.
bird	Do you know the name of that bird on that branch?
bit	Could you hand me that bit for this drill?

block	He picked up the block of wood and began to work on it.
blood	Look at the blood on the floor! What's happened?
blow	He received a mighty blow from his opponent in the boxing match.
board	Use that board over there to cover up the window.
boat	He bought a new boat for his birthday.
body	He left the body at the side of the road.
bone	I found a prehistoric bone in the desert.
book	You should read this book!
bottom	You will find the coin at the bottom of the lake.
box	I put the extra clothes into that box.
boy	Do you see that boy over there?
branch	There is a bird on that branch.
bread	Could you get some bread when you go to the supermarket?
break	I'll take a five minute break and then get back to work.
brother	My brother lives in Seattle.
call	Give me a call when you arrive.
camp	I set up camp at the edge of the wood.
capital	The capital of Washington state is Olympia.
captain	The captain told his crew to raise the sail.
car	He drove his car very fast.

They are called MATERIAL NOUNS. Such are *glass*, *iron*, *clay*, *frost*, *rain*, *snow*, *wheat*, *wine*, *tea*, *sugar*, etc.

They may be placed in groups as follows:—

(1) The metals: *iron*, *gold*, *platinum*, etc.

(2) Products spoken of in bulk: *tea*, *sugar*, *rice*, *wheat*, etc.

(3) Geological bodies: *mud*, *sand*, *granite*, *rock*, *stone*, etc.

(4) Natural phenomena: *rain*, *dew*, *cloud*, *frost*, *mist*, etc.

(5) Various manufactures: *cloth* (and the different kinds of cloth), *potash*, *soap*, *rubber*, *paint*, *celluloid*, etc.

NOTE.—There are some nouns, such as *sun*, *moon*, *earth*, which seem to be the names of particular individual objects, but which are not called proper names.

Words naturally of limited application not proper.

The reason is, that in proper names the intention is *to exclude* all other individuals of the same class, and fasten a special name to the object considered, as in calling a city *Cincinnati*; but in the words *sun*, *earth*, etc., there is no such intention. If several bodies like the center of our solar system are known, they also are called *suns* by a natural extension of the term: so with the words *earth*, *world*, etc. They remain common class names.

1.3 Inflections of nouns

Gender

What gender means in English. It is founded on sex.

In Latin, Greek, German, and many other languages, some general rules are given that names of male beings are usually masculine, and names of females are usually feminine. There are exceptions even to this general statement, but not so in English. Male beings are, in English grammar, always masculine; female, always feminine[5].

When, however, *inanimate* things are spoken of, these languages are totally unlike our own in determining the gender of words. For instance: in Latin, *hortus* (garden) is masculine, *mensa* (table) is feminine, *corpus* (body) is neuter; in German, *das Messer* (knife) is neuter, *der Tisch* (table) is masculine, *die Gabel* (fork) is feminine.

The great difference is, that in English the gender follows the *meaning* of the word, in other languages gender follows the *form*; that is, in English, gender depends on *sex*: if a thing spoken of is of the male sex, the *name* of it is masculine; if of the female sex, the *name* of it is feminine. Hence:

Definition.

Gender is the mode of distinguishing sex by words, or additions to words.

It is evident from this that English can have but two genders,—**masculine** and **feminine**.

Gender nouns. Neuter nouns.

[5] Sweet H.A. New English Grammar. Oxford 1990., p.142

All nouns, then, must be divided into two principal classes,—**gender nouns**, those distinguishing the sex of the object; and **neuter nouns**, those which do not distinguish sex, or names of things without life, and consequently without sex.

Gender nouns include names of persons and some names of animals; neuter nouns include some animals and all inanimate objects.

Some words either gender or neuter nouns, according to use.

Some words may be either gender nouns or neuter nouns, according to their use. Thus, the word *child* is neuter in the sentence, "A little *child* shall lead them," but is masculine in the sentence from Wordsworth, — I have seen A curious *child* ... applying to *his* ear
The convolutions of a smooth-lipped shell.

Of animals, those with which man comes in contact often, or which arouse his interest most, are named by gender nouns, as in these sentences:— Before the barn door strutted the gallant *cock*, that pattern of a husband, ... clapping *his* burnished wings.

Gunpowder ... came to a stand just by the bridge, with a suddenness that had nearly sent *his* rider sprawling over *his* head—*Id.*

Other animals are not distinguished as to sex, but are spoken of as neuter, the sex being of no consequence.

Not a *turkey* but he [Ichabod] beheld daintily trussed up, with *its* gizzard under *its* wing.—Irving.

He next stooped down to feel the *pig*, if there were any signs of life in *it*.—Lamb.

No "common gender."

According to the definition, there can be no such thing as "common gender:" words either distinguish sex (or the sex is distinguished by the context) or else they do not distinguish sex.

If such words as *parent*, *servant*, *teacher*, *ruler*, *relative*, *cousin*, *domestic*, etc., do not show the sex to which the persons belong, they are neuter words.

Put in convenient form, the division of words according to sex, or the lack of it, is,— (MASCULINE: Male beings.
Gender nouns { (FEMININE: Female beings.

Neuter nouns: Names of inanimate things, or of living beings whose sex cannot be determined.

The inflections for gender belong, of course, only to masculine and feminine nouns. *Forms* would be a more accurate word than *inflections*, since inflection applies only to the *case* of nouns.

There are three ways to distinguish the genders:—

(1) By prefixing a gender word to another word.

(2) By adding a suffix, generally to a masculine word.

(3) By using a different word for each gender.

Gender shown by Prefixes.

Very few of class I.

Usually the gender words *he* and *she* are prefixed to neuter words; as *he-goat—she-goat*, *cock sparrow—hen sparrow*, *he-bear—she-bear*.

One feminine, *woman*, puts a prefix before the masculine *man*. *Woman* is a short way of writing *wifeman*.

Gender shown by Suffixes.

By far the largest number of gender words are those marked by suffixes. In this particular the native endings have been largely supplanted by foreign suffixes.

Native suffixes.

The native suffixes to indicate the feminine were *-en* and *-ster*. These remain in *vixen* and *spinster*, though both words have lost their original meanings[6].

The word *vixen* was once used as the feminine of *fox* by the Southern-English. For *fox* they said *vox*; for *from* they said *vram*; and for the older word *fat* they said *vat*, as in *wine vat*. Hence *vixen* is for *fyxen*, from the masculine *fox*.

Spinster is a relic of a large class of words that existed in Old and Middle English,[1] but have now lost their original force as feminines. The old masculine answering to *spinster* was *spinner*; but *spinster* has now no connection with it.

The foreign suffixes are of two kinds:—

Foreign suffixes. Unaltered and little used.

(1) Those belonging to borrowed words, as *czarina*, *señorita*, *executrix*, *donna*. These are attached to foreign words, and are never used for words recognized as English.

Slightly changed and widely used.

(2) That regarded as the standard or regular termination of the feminine, *-ess* (French *esse*, Low Latin *issa*), the one most used. The corresponding masculine may have the ending *-er* (*-or*), but in most cases it has not. Whenever we adopt a new masculine word, the feminine is formed by adding this termination *-ess*.

[6] Strang B.M.H. Modern English Structure. London, 1959., p.190

Sometimes the *-ess* has been added to a word already feminine by the ending *-ster*; as *seam-str-ess*, *song-str-ess*. The ending *-ster* had then lost its force as a feminine suffix; it has none now in the words *huckster*, *gamester*, *trickster*, *punster*.

Ending of masculine not changed.

The ending *-ess* is added to many words without changing the ending of the masculine; as,—

- baron—baroness
- count—countess
- lion—lioness
- Jew—Jewess
- heir—heiress
- host—hostess
- priest—priestess
- giant—giantess

Masculine ending dropped.

The masculine ending may be dropped before the feminine *-ess* is added; as,—

- abbot—abbess
- negro—negress
- murderer—murderess
- sorcerer—sorceress

Vowel dropped before adding -ess.

The feminine may discard a vowel which appears in the masculine; as in—

- actor—actress

- master—mistress
- benefactor—benefactress
- emperor—empress
- tiger—tigress
- enchanter—enchantress

Empress has been cut down from *emperice* (twelfth century) and *emperesse* (thirteenth century), from Latin *imperatricem*.

Master and *mistress* were in Middle English *maister—maistresse*, from the Old French *maistre—maistresse*.

When the older *-en* and *-ster* went out of use as the distinctive mark of the feminine, the ending *-ess*, from the French *-esse*, sprang into a popularity much greater than at present.

Ending -ess *less used now than formerly.*

Instead of saying *doctress, fosteress, wagoness*, as was said in the sixteenth century, or *servauntesse, teacheresse, neighboresse, frendesse*, as in the fourteenth century, we have dispensed with the ending in many cases, and either use a prefix word or leave the masculine to do work for the feminine also.

Thus, we say *doctor* (masculine and feminine) or *woman doctor*, *teacher* or *lady teacher*, *neighbor* (masculine and feminine), etc. We frequently use such words as *author, editor, chairman*, to represent persons of either sex.

NOTE.—There is perhaps this distinction observed: when we speak of a female *as an active agent* merely, we use the masculine termination, as, "George Eliot is the *author* of 'Adam Bede;'" but when we speak purposely *to denote a distinction from a male*, we use the feminine, as, "George Eliot is an eminent *authoress*."

Gender shown by Different Words

In some of these pairs, the feminine and the masculine are entirely different words; others have in their origin the same root. Some of them have an interesting history, and will be noted below[7]:—

- bachelor—maid
- boy—girl
- brother—sister
- drake—duck
- earl—countess
- father—mother
- gander—goose
- hart—roe
- horse—mare
- husband—wife
- king—queen
- lord—lady
- wizard—witch
- nephew—niece
- ram—ewe
- sir—madam
- son—daughter
- uncle—aunt
- bull—cow
- boar—sow

Girl originally meant a child of either sex, and was used for male or female until about the fifteenth century.

[7] http://www.homeenglish.ru.

Drake is peculiar in that it is formed from a corresponding feminine which is no longer used. It is not connected historically with our word *duck*, but is derived from *ened* (duck) and an obsolete suffix *rake* (king). Three letters of *ened* have fallen away, leaving our word *drake*.

Gander and **goose** were originally from the same root word. *Goose* has various cognate forms in the languages akin to English (German *Gans*, Icelandic *gás*, Danish *gaas*, etc.). The masculine was formed by adding *-a*, the old sign of the masculine. This *gansa* was modified into *gan-ra*, *gand-ra*, finally *gander*; the *d* being inserted to make pronunciation easy, as in many other words.

Mare, in Old English *mere*, had the masculine *mearh* (horse), but this has long been obsolete.

Husband and **wife** are not connected in origin. *Husband* is a Scandinavian word (Anglo-Saxon *hūsbonda* from Icelandic *hús-bóndi*, probably meaning house dweller); *wife* was used in Old and Middle English to mean woman in general.

King and **queen** are said by some (Skeat, among others) to be from the same root word, but the German etymologist Kluge says they are not.

Lord is said to be a worn-down form of the Old English *hlāf-weard* (loaf keeper), written *loverd*, *lhauerd*, or *lauerd* in Middle English. **Lady** is from *hlæf̄dige* (*hlæf̄* meaning loaf, and *dige* being of uncertain origin and meaning).

Witch is the Old English *wicce*, but **wizard** is from the Old French *guiscart* (prudent), not immediately connected with *witch*, though both are ultimately from the same root.

Sir is worn down from the Old French *sire* (Latin *senior*). **Madam** is the French *ma dame*, from Latin *mea domina*.

Two masculines from feminines.

Besides *gander* and *drake*, there are two other masculine words that were formed from the feminine:—

Bridegroom, from Old English *bryd-guma* (bride's man). The *r* in *groom* has crept in from confusion with the word *groom*.

Widower, from the weakening of the ending *-a* in Old English to *-e* in Middle English. The older forms, *widuwa—widuwe*, became identical, and a new masculine ending was therefore added to distinguish the masculine from the feminine (compare Middle English *widuer—widewe*).

Special Lists

Material nouns and **abstract nouns** are always singular. When such words take a plural ending, they lose their identity, and go over to other classes[8].

Proper nouns are regularly singular, but may be made plural when we wish to speak of several persons or things bearing the same name; e.g., *the Washingtons*, *the Americas*.

Some words are **usually singular**, though they are plural in form. Examples of these are, *optics*, *economics*, *physics*, *mathematics*, *politics*, and many branches of learning; also *news*, *pains* (care), *molasses*, *summons*, *means*: as,— *Politics*, in its widest extent, is both the science and the art of government.—*Century Dictionary.*

So live, that when thy *summons comes*, etc.—Bryant.

It served simply as *a means* of sight.—Prof. Dana.

Means *plural*.

[8] http://www.homeenglish.ru.

Two words, **means** and **politics**, *may be plural* in their construction with verbs and adjectives:— Words, by strongly conveying the passions, by *those means* which we have already mentioned, fully compensate for their weakness in other respects.—Burke.

With great dexterity *these means* were now applied.—Motley.

By *these means*, I say, riches will accumulate.—Goldsmith.

Politics *plural*.

Cultivating a feeling that *politics* are tiresome.—G. W. Curtis.

The *politics* in which he took the keenest interest *were politics* scarcely deserving of the name.—Macaulay.

Now I read all the *politics* that *come* out.—Goldsmith.

Some words have no corresponding singular.

- aborigines
- amends
- annals
- assets
- antipodes
- scissors
- thanks
- spectacles
- vespers
- victuals
- matins
- nuptials
- oats

- obsequies
- premises
- bellows
- billiards
- dregs
- gallows
- tongs

Occasionally singular words.

Sometimes, however, a few of these words have the construction of singular nouns. Notice the following:— They cannot get on without each other any more than one blade of *a scissors* can cut without the other.—J. L. Laughlin.

A relic which, if I recollect right, he pronounced to have been *a tongs*.—Irving.

Besides this, it is furnished with *a forceps*.—Goldsmith.

The air,—was it subdued when...the wind was trained only to turn a windmill, carry off chaff, or work in *a bellows*?—Prof. Dana.

In Early Modern English *thank* is found.

What *thank* have ye?—*Bible*

Three words were *originally singular*, the present ending *-s* not being really a plural inflection, but they are regularly construed as plural: *alms, eaves, riches*.

two plurals.

A few nouns have **two plurals** differing in meaning.

- brother—brothers (by blood), brethren (of a society or church).
- cloth—cloths (kinds of cloth), clothes (garments).

- die—dies (stamps for coins, etc.), dice (for gaming).
- fish—fish (collectively), fishes (individuals or kinds).
- genius—geniuses (men of genius), genii (spirits).
- index—indexes (to books), indices (signs in algebra).
- pea—peas (separately), pease (collectively).
- penny—pennies (separately), pence (collectively).
- shot—shot (collective balls), shots (number of times fired).

In speaking of coins, *twopence*, *sixpence*, etc., may add *-s*, making a double plural, as two *sixpences*.

One plural, two meanings.

Other words have **one plural form with two meanings**,—one corresponding to the singular, the other unlike it.

- custom—customs: (1) habits, ways; (2) revenue duties.
- letter—letters: (1) the alphabet, or epistles; (2) literature.
- number—numbers: (1) figures; (2) poetry, as in the lines,—

I lisped in *numbers*, for the numbers came.
—Pope.
Tell me not, in mournful *numbers*.
—Longfellow.

Numbers also means issues, or copies, of a periodical.

- pain—pains: (1) suffering; (2) care, trouble,
- part—parts: (1) divisions; (2) abilities, faculties.

Two classes of compound words.

Compound words may be divided into two classes:—

(1) *Those whose parts are so closely joined as to constitute one word.* These make the last part plural.

- courtyard
- dormouse
- Englishman
- fellow-servant
- fisherman
- Frenchman
- forget-me-not
- goosequill
- handful
- mouthful
- cupful
- maidservant
- pianoforte
- stepson
- spoonful
- titmouse

(2) *Those groups in which the first part is the principal one, followed by a word or phrase making a modifier.* The chief member adds *-s* in the plural.

- aid-de-camp
- attorney at law
- billet-doux
- commander in chief
- court-martial
- cousin-german
- father-in-law
- knight-errant

- hanger-on

NOTE.—Some words ending in *-man* are not compounds of the English word *man*, but add *-s*; such as *talisman, firman, Brahman, German, Norman, Mussulman, Ottoman*.

Some groups pluralize both parts of the group; as *man singer, manservant, woman servant, woman singer*.

Two methods in use for names with titles.

As to plurals of **names with titles**, there is some disagreement among English writers. The title may be plural, as *the Messrs. Allen, the Drs. Brown, the Misses Rich*; or the name may be pluralized[9].

The former is perhaps more common in present-day use, though the latter is often found; for example,— Then came Mr. and Mrs. Briggs, and then *the three Miss Spinneys*, then Silas Peckham.—Dr. Holmes.

Our immortal Fielding was of the younger branch of the *Earls of Denbigh*, who drew their origin from the *Counts of Hapsburgh*.—Gibbon.

The *Miss Flamboroughs* were reckoned the best dancers in the parish.—Goldsmith.

The *Misses Nettengall's* young ladies come to the Cathedral too.—Dickens.

The *Messrs. Harper* have done the more than generous thing by Mr. Du Maurier.—*The Critic.*

A number of **foreign words** have been adopted into English without change of form. These are said to be *domesticated,* and retain their foreign plurals. Others

[9] Geoffrey L., A-Z of English grammar &usage. 1991., p.254

have been adopted, and by long use have altered their power so as to conform to English words. They are then said to be *naturalized*, or *Anglicized*, or *Englished*.

Domesticated words.

The domesticated words may retain the original plural. Some of them have a secondary English plural in *-s* or *-es*.

Anglicized words.

When the foreign words are fully naturalized, they form their plurals in the regular way; as,—

- bandits
- cherubs
- dogmas
- encomiums
- enigmas
- focuses
- formulas
- geniuses
- herbariums
- indexes
- seraphs
- apexes

Usage varies in plurals of letters, figures, etc.

Letters, figures, etc., form their plurals by adding *-s* or *'s*. Words quoted merely as words, without reference to their meaning, also add *-s* or *'s*; as, "His *9's* (or *9s*) look like *7's* (or *7s*)," "Avoid using too many *and's* (or *ands*)," "Change the *+'s* (or *+s*) to *-'s* (or *-s*)."

Personification

Just as abstract ideas are personified (Sec. 16), material objects may be spoken of like gender nouns; for example,—

"Now, where the swift *Rhone* cleaves *his* way."
—Byron.
The *Sun* now rose upon the right:
Out of the sea came *he*.
—Coleridge.
And haply the *Queen Moon* is on *her* throne,
Clustered around by all her starry Fays.
—Keats.
Britannia needs no bulwarks,
No towers along the steep;
Her march is o'er the mountain waves,
Her home is on the deep.
—Campbell.

This is not exclusively a poetic use. In ordinary speech personification is very frequent: the pilot speaks of his boat as feminine; the engineer speaks so of his engine; etc.

Effect of personification.

In such cases the gender is marked by the pronoun, and not by the form of the noun. But the fact that in English the distinction of gender is confined to difference of sex makes these departures more effective.

Name for a group or collection of objects.

Besides considering persons, animals, and things separately, we may think of them in groups, and appropriate names to the groups.

Thus, men in groups may be called a *crowd*, or a *mob*, a *committee*, or a *council*, or a *congress*, etc.

These are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS. They properly belong under common nouns, because each group is considered as a unit, and the name applied to it belongs to any group of its class[10].

Names for things thought of in mass.

The definition given for common nouns applies more strictly to class nouns. It may, however, be correctly used for another group of nouns detailed below; for they are common nouns in the sense that the names apply to *every particle of similar substance*, instead of to each individual or separate object.

WORDS AND WORD GROUPS USED AS NOUNS.

The noun may borrow from any part of speech, or from any expression.

Owing to the scarcity of distinctive forms, and to the consequent flexibility of English speech, words which are usually other parts of speech are often used as nouns; and various word groups may take the place of nouns by being used as nouns.

Adjectives, Conjunctions, Adverbs.

(1) *Other parts of speech* used as nouns:—

The great, the wealthy, fear thy blow.—Burns.

Every *why* hath a *wherefore*.—Shakespeare.

When I was young? Ah, woeful *When*!
Ah! for the change 'twixt *Now* and *Then*!
—Coleridge.

(2) *Certain word groups* used like single nouns:—

[10] Geoffrey L., A-Z of English grammar &usage. 1991., p.112

Too swift arrives as tardy as *too slow*.—Shakespeare.

Then comes the "*Why, sir*!" and the "*What then, sir*?" and the "*No, sir*!" and the "*You don't see your way through the question, sir*!"—Macaulay

(3) Any part of speech may be considered merely as a word, without reference to its function in the sentence; also titles of books are treated as simple nouns.

The *it*, at the beginning, is ambiguous, whether it mean the sun or the cold.—Dr BLAIR

In this definition, is the word "*just*," or "*legal*," finally to stand?—Ruskin.

There was also a book of Defoe's called an "*Essay on Projects*," and another of Dr. Mather's called "*Essays to do Good*."—B. FRANKLIN.

It is to be remembered, however, that the above cases are shiftings of the *use*, of words rather than of their *meaning*. We seldom find instances of complete conversion of one part of speech into another.

When, in a sentence above, the terms *the great*, *the wealthy*, are used, they are not names only: we have in mind the idea of persons and the quality of being *great* or *wealthy*. The words are used in the sentence where nouns are used, but have an adjectival meaning. In the other sentences, *why* and *wherefore*, *When*, *Now*, and *Then*, are spoken of as if pure nouns; but still the reader considers this not a natural application of them as name words, but as a figure of speech. NOTE.—These remarks do not apply, of course, to such words as become pure nouns by use. There are many of these. The adjective *good* has no claim on the noun *goods*; so, too, in speaking of the *principal* of a school, or a state *secret*, or a faithful *domestic*, or a *criminal*, etc., the words are entirely independent of any adjective force.

Chapter II Contextual analysis of the English Nouns used in A. Christie's works

2.1 Peculiar features of English nouns used in A. Christie's works

An English noun lexeme may contain four words at most (boy, boys, boy's, boys'). Each of these words, as we know, represents not only the lexeme, but a certain grammeme as well[11]. The grammeme represented by the word boy, for instance, includes all the English words having the two actual grammatical meanings of 'common case' and 'singular number' (girl, teacher, mile, etc.). The word book does not belong to this grammeme because it has only one actual grammatical meaning, that of 'singular number'. The meaning of 'common case' is only potential or oblique. So book represents another noun grammeme. The word England represents a different grammeme with the actual grammatical meaning of 'common case' (cf. England's) and the oblique grammatical meaning of 'singular number'.

If we assume that each grammatical meaning can be actual and oblique, there are four grammatical meanings of 'number', and they can be combined with four 'case' meanings each, to constitute 16 grammemes. In reality, however, the 'possessive case' meaning cannot be oblique in English, i. e. there are no words with the form and combinability of a 'possessive case' member of a case opposeme that have no 'common case' opposites. Nouns like St. Paul's, the baker's, denoting places, have certainly no opposites with the same lexical meaning and the 'common case' form, but their distribution resembles rather the distribution of 'common case' nouns (cf. at the baker's, from the baker's and at the shop, from Иге shop). If, however, we regard them as constituting a separate grammeme with the oblique meanings of 'singular number' and 'possessive case', we may speak of 13

[11] Harris Z.S. Co-occurrence and transformation in linguistic structure. "Language"., 1957., 302 p.

noun grammemes in English. In the table1 (appendix) they are represented by one word each.

The frequency of the occurrence of different grammemes in speech It goes without saying that when speaking about grammemes in speech we mean words representing these grammemes. is different. We have analysed several texts containing a total of 6,000 nouns and counted the occurrence of each grammeme. In the table 2 (Appendix) we give the results.

When analysing an opposeme of any category, we regard the grammatical meanings of its members as elementary, indivisible and unchangeable, determined only by the contrast with the opposite meanings. But in speech words are contrasted with other words not paradigmatically, in opposemes, but syntagmatically, in word-combinations. Depending on these combinations, grammatical meanings may vary considerably.

We must also take into consideration that single grammatical meanings may occur in speech only in case a word has but one such meaning. Otherwise all the grammatical meanings of a word go in a bunch characteristic of the grammeme to which the word belongs. So if we want to see the different shades a given grammatical meaning may acquire in speech, we are to analyse in a text the words of different grammemes containing that meaning. If, for instance, the variation of the 'singular' meaning is to be investigated we are to study the grammemes represented by the words boy, boy's, England, England's, book, milk, St. Paul's. We shall call them 'singular' grammemes for short.

The representatives of 'singular' grammemes constitute the bulk of nouns found in an English text (more than 70 per cent of the total number). Following is a brief summary of what a 'singular' noun may denote in speech.

1. One object. The plane struck a seagull. (A. Christie)

2. A unique object. Shakespeare's name will live forever. (A. Christie)

3. A whole class of objects. The English gentleman is dead. (A. Christie)

In this sense 'singularity' gets very close to 'plurality'. So close indeed, that sometimes 'singular' and 'plural' nouns are actually interchangeable[12].

Cf. The polar bear lives in the North.

Polar bears live in the North.

Here as elsewhere extremes meet.

4. A 'singular' collective noun stands for a group of beings or things viewed as an integrated whole, e. g. peasantry, humanity, mankind.

5. A 'singular' abstract or material noun may show some abstract concept or substance which is not associated with any idea of singularity.

I have accepted with tolerance the established conventions of syntax. (A. Christie)

Nouns representing 'plural' grammemes may denote:

1. Two or more homogeneous objects.

Molly was very proud to be able to decide such questions. (A. Christie)

2. A whole class of objects.

The Hindus and the Muslims liked and trusted him. (A. Christie)

Foreigners on the whole were very dangerous people. (A. Christie)

3. A number of objects similar, though not identical (the plural of approximation).

A woman in her late thirties.

[12] Кобрина Н.А. Корнеева Е.А. Оссовская М.И. Гузеева К.А “Грамматика английского языка. Морфология. Синтаксис”., Союз., С. Петербург., 1999., 496 ст.

4. Individual objects.

His trousers looked shabby. (A. Christie)

5. A mass of some substance.

A lion does not live on leavings. (A. Christie)

6. Boundless extension or repetition. The usage is aimed at producing a stylistic effect.

The snows of the Polar Region. The waters of the Danube.

Nouns representing 'common case' grammemes express a wide range of meanings, the exhaustive examination of which is hardly feasible. Here are some of them.

1. A doer of an action or the carrier of some property.

The young worker challenged the Prime Minister to go and meet Britain's jobless young people. (A. Christie)

2. A recipient of some action.

He wanted to employ the axioims of arithmetic. (A. Christie)

3. The person (or thing) for whom something is done.

He gave M a r y по time to change her mind. (A. Christie)

4. An instrument. When so used, the 'common case' noun is mostly associated with a preposition,

e. g. to cut with a knife.

5. Circumstances of different events. When so used, the 'common case' noun is mostly introduced by a preposition.

Time: Every Saturday night she bought a joint of meat. (A. Christie)

Place: I arrived at P a r k Lane. (A. Christie)

Manner: Everything went off without a hitch. (A. Christie) etc.

6. A property or characteristic of some substance.

The house committee was ready to act. (A. Christie)

7. A person or thing as an object of comparison.

That monster of a dog.

As we have seen, 'possessive case' nouns occur a great deal less frequently than their opposites Some linguists regard the possessive case as a disappearing case (see, for instance, M. Bryant. A Functional English Grammar. Boston, 1945, p. 36). Others (Ch. Barber. Linguistic change in Present-Day English. Edinburgh, 1964, p. 132) speak of "the spreading of the 's-genitive at the expense of the of-genitive"[13]..

The range of meaning of the possessive case is incomparably narrower than that of the common case. Yet linguists point out a number of meanings a 'possessive case' noun may express in speech .

a) possession, belonging (Peter's bicycle)

b) personal or social relations (Peter's wife)

c) authorship (Peter's poem)

d) origin or source (the sun's rays)

e) kind or species (ladies' hats)

[13] Bryant M.A Functional English Grammar. N.Y., 1945. 290 p.

f) the relation of the whole to its part (Peter's hand)

g) subjective relations (Peter's arrival)

h) objective relations (Peter's being sent)

i) characteristic (her mother's care), (rather rare)

j) measure (a night's reflection; a mile's distance).

Sometimes the relations of a 'possessive case' noun are ambiguous. The relation in her daughter's loss may be interpreted either as subjective or as objective. This can be accounted for by the fact that her daughter's loss may be regarded as a transformation (or a transform) of two different sentences.

Her daughter lost == daughter's loss

Her daughter was lost == daughter's loss

In other words, having no voice distinctions, the noun loss may correspond to both the active and the passive voice of the verb.

Since both 'possessive case' and 'common case' nouns may have right-hand connections with other nouns, it is interesting to see the difference between the two combinations in speech. This is what W. N. Francis writes on the subject The Structure of American English. New York, 1958.: "Nouns make up a considerable number (as many as 25 per sent) of the single-word modifiers of nouns[14].

Possessive Noun-adjunct

child's play child psychology

a dog's life the dog days

[14] Close R.A. A Reference Grammar for students of English. Ldn., 1977., 320 p.

a day's work the day shift'

my father's house a father image

that woman's doctor that woman doctor

The last pair illustrates vividly the difference in meaning there may be between these two structures of modification. The formal difference between them may be described as follows: a construction with of may be substituted for the possessive construction, and the determiner Article, possessive or demonstrative pronoun, etc. attached to the noun. (if there is one) will then go with the modifying noun; on the other hand, some other kind of construction must be substituted for the noun-adjunct, and the determiner goes with the head noun. In the following illustrations the symbol > means "transforms into"

My father's house > house of my father

that father image > that image like (a) father

that woman's doctor > doctor of that woman

that woman doctor > that doctor who is a woman.

As we see, the relations expressed by a 'possessive case' noun can usually be rendered by its 'common case' opposite preceded by of (the so-called 'of-phrase'). The 'possessive case' noun and the corresponding of-phrase are synonymous, but to a certain extent only.

Unlike the possessive case, the o/-phrase is freely used with all nouns irrespective of their lexical meanings. Its range of meaning is much wider than that of the possessive case. Thus, besides the 'possessive case' relations already mentioned it may show the relations of appraisal (a man of strong will), of material (a table of oak), of composition (a group of children), etc.

The of-phrase is believed to sound more formal than the possessive case. In formal style it is more common than the possessive.

E. g. Head of a girl (in a picture or sculpture exhibition programme), not a girl's head.

In the Russian language a noun in the genitive case may be adnominal and adverbial, i.e. it can be attached to a noun and to a verb.

E.g. дом отца, боюсь грозы.

The possessive case is practically adnominal, as in Tom's departure.

In sentences like The idea is George's, where George's is not followed by a noun, it is sometimes called the 'independent possessive'. But in reality it is not independent, as it refers to some noun, usually mentioned previously (the word idea in the sentence above). Therefore such possessives are called 'anaphorical'. But this term would be misapplied in cases like George's was a brilliant idea, where the noun idea follows the possessive.

Seeing that there is exact parallelism with the use of the so-called absolute possessive pronouns (The idea is mine. Mine was a brilliant idea), we shall call such possessives absolute[15].

In Modern English there exists a peculiar construction which is a combination of the possessive case and the of-phrase. The construction makes it possible to place an article, a demonstrative pronoun, etc. before the modified noun. Cf. John's friend and a (the, that) friend of John's. The possessive case in the construction is absolute. Cf. a (the, that) friend of yours.

The construction usually has a partitive meaning. A friend of Mary's -- one of Mary's friends. It may also be used for stylistic purposes mostly with ironic

[15] Geoffrey L., A-Z of English grammar &usage. 1991., 280 p.

colouring. That long nose of John's. In cases like I dined at my aunt's or a garden party at Brown's the possessive case is really independent. It does not refer to any other noun, and does not correspond to an absolute possessive pronoun. The meaning of the independent possessive is that of locality. It denotes the house, shop, cathedral, place of business, etc. of the person denoted by the noun. E. g. the baker's, draper's, watchmaker's, etc., also St. Paul's .

2.2 Classification of English nouns in Modern English

Nouns fall under two classes: (A) proper nouns; (B) common nouns.

A. Proper nouns are individual names given to separate persons or things. As regards their meaning proper nouns may be personal names *(Mart/, Peter, Shakespeare),* geographical names *(Moscow, London, the Caucasus),* the names of the months and of the days of the week *(February, Monday),* names of ships, hotels, dubs etc[16].

A large number of, nouns now proper were originally common nouns *(Brown. Smith, Mason).*

Proper nouns may change their meaning and become common nouns: George went over to the table and look a sandwich and a glass of champagne. (A .Christie)

Proper nouns are individual, names given to separate persons or things. As regards their meaning proper nouns may be personal names (Mary, Peter, Shakespeare), geographical names (Moscow, London, the Caucasus), the names of the months and of the days of the week (February, Monday), names of ships, hotels, clubs, etc.

A large number of nouns now proper were originally common nouns (Brown, Smith, Mason).

Proper nouns may change their meaning and become common nouns:

«George went over to the table and took a sandwich and a glass of champagne. (A. Christie)

[16] Kaushanskaya V.L "A Grammar of the English language" M.1973, 186-203p

The name *proper* is from Lat. *proprius* Vne's a *proper name* means one's own individual name, as distinct from a common name, that can be given to a whole of Individuals. Ttir Tjarou common is front Lat. communis and means that, which is shared by several things or individuals possessing some common characteristic.

B. Common nouns are names that can be applied to any individual of a class of persons or things (e. *g. man, dog, book),* collections of similar individuals or things regarded as a single unit (e. g. *peasantry, family),* materials (e, g. *snow, iron, cotton)* or abstract notions (e. g. *kindness, development).*

Thus there are different groups of common nouns: class nouns, collective nouns; nouns of material and abstract nouns.

Nouns may also he classified from another point of view: nouns denoting things (the word *thing* is used in a broad sense) that can be counted are called countable nouns; nouns denoting things that cannot be counted are called uncountable nouns.

1. Class nouns denote persons or things belonging to a class. They are count ah les and have two numbers: singular and plural They are generally used with an article[17].

'Well, sir," said Mrs. Parker, "l wasn't in the shop above a great deal." (A. Christie)

Lie goes to the part of the town where the shops are. (A. Christie)

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

[17] Khaimovich B.S. Rogovskaya B.I."A Course in English Grammar"M.,1966., p.287

Thus there are different groups of common nouns: class nouns, collective nouns, nouns of material and abstract nouns.

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

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

He goes to the part of the town where the shops are. (A. Christie)

2. Collective nouns denote a number or collection of similar individuals or things as a single unit.

Collective nouns fall under the following groups:

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

It was not restful, that green foliage. (A. Christie)

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

(b) nouns which are singular in form though plural in meaning:

police, poultry, cattle, people, gentry They are usually called nouns of multitude. When the subject of the sentence is a noun of multitude the verb used as predicate is in the plural:

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

Unless cattle are in good condition in calving, milk production will never reach a high level. (Agricultural Gazette)

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

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

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

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

2. Collective nouns denote a number or collection of similar, individuals or things regarded as a single unit.

Collective nouns fall under the following groups:

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

It not restful, that green foliage. (A. Christie)

Machinery new to the industry in Australia upas introduced for preparing land. (Agricultural Guazette)

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

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

There was coffee still in the urn. (A. Christie)

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

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

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

Compare:

- To the left were clean panes of glass. (A. Christie)

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

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

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

Therefore when the youngsters saw that mother looked neither frightened nor offended, they gathered new courage. (A. Christie)

Accustomed to John Reed's abuse - I never had an idea of plying it. (A. Christie)

It's these people with fixed ideas. (A. Christie)

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

beauty a beauty beauties

sight a sight sights

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

She was a beauty. (A. Christie)

… but she isn't one of those horrid regular beauties. (A. Christie)

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

I had no idea the police *were so* devilishly prudent (A. Christie). Unless cattle *are* in good condition In calving, milk production wifl never reach a high level. *(Agricultural Gazette)* The weather was warm and the people were sitting at their doors. (A. Christie)

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

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

Accordingly they were soon afoot, and walking in the direction of tie scene of action, towards which crowd of people were already pouring from a variety (A. Christie)

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

There was a scent of honey from earlie lime-trees in flower. (A. Christie)

There was coffee still in the urn. (A. Christie)

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

... that his senior counted upon him in this enterprise, and bad consigned a quantity, of select wines to him... (A. Christie)

Nouns of material may turn into class nouns thus becoming countable) when they come to express an individualobject of definite shape. Compare: " To the left were clean panes of glass. (A. Christie)

He came in here," said the waiter - looking at the light through the tumbler, "ordered a glass of this ale. (A. Christie)

But the person in the glass made a face at her, and Miss Moss went ont. *(A. Christie)*

4. Abstract nouns denote some quality, state, action or idea: *kindness, sadness, fight.* They are usually uncountable, though some of them may he countable (e. g. *Idea, hour).*

Therefore when the youngsters saw that mother looked neither frightened nor offended, they gathered new courage. (A. Christie) .. Accustomed to John Reed's abuse — I never had an Idea of replying to it (A. Christie) It's these people with fixed Idea? (A. Christie)

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

beauty a beauty beauties
sight a sight sights

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

She was a beauty. (A. Christie)

... but she isn't one of those horrid regular beauties. (A. Christie)

The category of number

English countable nouns have two numbers —the singular and the plural.

The main types of the plural forms of English nouns ere as follows[18]:

1. The generally for forming the plural of English nouns is by adding the ending *-s (-es)* to the singular; *-s* is, pronounced in different ways;

{iz] after sibilants: nosesj horses$_t$ bridges.

[zJ after voiced consonants other than sibilants and after vowels: *flowers, beds, doves, bees, boys.*

Js] after voiceless consonants other tbati sibilants: *caps, books, hats, cliffs.*

[18] Ganshina M.A., Vasilevskaya M.A. English Grammar. 1964., p.267

2. If the noun ends in *-s, -ss, -x, -sh*$_t$ -eft, or *-tch*, the plural is formed by adding *-es* to the singular:-

bns—-bases box — boxes bench—benches

glass — glasses brush — brushes , match — matches

3. If the noun ends in *-y* preceded by a consonant, *y* is changed into *i* before *-es*

fly —-flies army — armies, lady — ladies

In proper names, however, the plural is formed by adding the ending to the singular: *Mary, Marys.*

Note. — U the baa! –y is preceded by a vowel the plural & formed by simply adding to the singular,

day — days monkey — monkeys play—plays toy —

toy a key — keys boy — boys

4. If the noun ends in -o preceded by a consonant, the plural is generally formed by adding -es. Only a few nouns ending In & preceded by a consonant form the plural in cargo — cargoes hero —heroes potato — potatoes echo — echoes

b u t piano —pianos solo — solos photo

— photos

All nouns ending in o preceded by a vowel Form the plural in -s and not in *-es.*

cuckoo —cuckoos portfolio —- portfolios

There are a few nouns ending in -o which form the plural both in -s and *-es:*

mosquito — mosquitos *or* mosquitoes

5. With certain nouns the final voiceless consonants are changed into the corresponding voiced consonants when the noun takes the plural form.

(a) The following nouns ending in (in some cases followed by a mute *e)* change it into *v* (both in spelling and pronunciation) in the plural:

wife — wives thief — thieves
knife—knives call —calves
life —lives half —halves
sheaf — sheaves shelf — shelves
leaf — leaves wolf — wolves

There are some nouns ending in -f which have two forms in the plural:

scarf—scarfs *or* scarves wharf — wharfs *or* wharves

(b) Nouns ending in -ih ftf] after long vowels change it into [d] in pronunciation (which does not affect their spelling).

bath fbctO] — baths [bftfc] path [pafl] — paths [pad] oath [ou&] —oaths [oudi]

But [ft] is always retained alter consonants (including *r)* and short vowels:

smith - smiths [smitis] month—months [rainfls] myth — myths | mi birth — births health — healths [hetfs]

(c) One noun ending in [s] chants it into [2] (in pronunciation):

house [halts] — houses

The plural forms of some nouns are survivals of earlier formations.

1. There are seven nouns which form the plural by changing the root vowel:

man — men goose — geese
.. woman — women motise— mice foot — feet
louse — lice
tooth — teeth

2. There are two nouns which form the plural in *-en:*

ox — oxen child — children

Note.— The noun *brother* has. beside its usual plural form *brothers,* another plural form *brethren,* which is hardly ever used in colloquial language. . It belongs to the elevated style and denotes people of the same creed . and not relationship. The noun *cow* has, beside its usual plural form *cotes,* a plural kine, which sometimes occurs in poetry.

3. In some nouns the plural form does not differ from the singular; *deer*$_t$ s*heep, swine, fish, trout.*

III. Some words borrowed from Latin or Greek keep their Latin or Greek plural forms: e. g. *phenomenon, phenomena* datum, data; crisis, crises; stimulus, stimuli-, formula, formulae; index, indices*. Some of these nouns, have acquired English plural forms: *memorandums, formulas, indexes, terminuses,* etc,

The tendency to use the foreign plural is still strong in the technical language of science, but in fiction and colloquial English there is an evident inclination to give to certain words the regular English plural forms in -s. Thus in some cases two plural forms are preserved *{formulae, formulas; antennae, antennas).*

IV. In compound nouns the plural is formed in different ways[19].

1. As a rule a compound noun forms the plural by adding to the head-word:

editor-In-cblef — editors-in-chief brollier-in-law — brothers-in-law looker-oil —lookers-on

2. In some compound nouns the final element takes the plural form:'

lady-bird — lady-birds

3. If there is no noun-stem in the compound, *-s* is added to the last element:

forget-me-not — forget - me-not s- merry-go-round— merry-go-rounds

V. Some nouns have only the plural form:

1. *Trousers, spectacles, breeches, scissors, tongs, fetters.* These are for the most part names of things which imply plurality or consist of two or more parts.

[19] Zandvoorf R.W. a Handbook of English Grammar 1957., p.219

2. *Billiards, barracks, works.* These nouns may be treated as singulars. We may say: *a chemical works, a bar racks* etc.

3. Words like *phonetics, physics, politics, optics,* etc. are usually treated as singulars except in some special cases.

It *teas* not practical politics? (A. Christie) All party politics *are* top dressing. (A. Christie)

4: The word *news* is treated as a singular.

When she goes to make little purchases, there *is no* eews for ber. (A. Christie)

The news be gave them to lie read in the lamentations. (A. Christie)

The category of case. .. .

Case indicates that relations of the noun (or pronoun) to the other words in the sentence.

English nouns denoting living beings (and some nouns denoting lifeless things) have two cases, an uninflected form called the common case and an inflected form called the genitive case.

1. The genitive case is formed by adding *-s* (the apostrophe s) to the noun is the singular and only ' (the apostrophe) to plural forms ending in -s.

SINGULAR; *& girl's* book PLURAL; a *girls'* school

Note Z— Nouns ending in *-s* form the genitive case in two ways: *Dickens' novels, Dickens's novels.*

The pronunciation of the genitive case ending follows the same rules as the pronunciation of the plural ending:

[iz] after sibilants: *prince's, judge's, witch's,* etc. ' [i] after voiced consonants other than sibilants and after vowels: *boy's, man's, king's.*

[is] after voiceless consonants other than sibilants: *Smith's, count's, bishop's.*

Note. — With nouns ending in *-s* and forming the genitive case In two way a *(Dickens' novels, Dickens's novels)* the ending h pronounced [IZ] whether

the letter s Is written or l

2. Sometimes the apostrophe *s* may refer to a whole group of words (the group-genitive): *Jane and Mary's* room. The last word of the group need not even be a noun: I shall be back *in an hour or two's* time.

As to its use the genitive case falls under:

(A) The Dependent Genitive.

(B) The Absolute Genitive.

The Dependent Genitive is used with the noun it modifies and comes before it.

The Absolute Genitive may be used without any noun or be separated from the noun it modifies,

A. The Dependent Genitive.

1, The chief meaning of the genitive case is that of possession:

... young man and a girl came out of the solicitor's office. *(Braine)*

He stayed at Fanny's fiat. (A. Christie)

2. Very close to the meaning of possession is that of a part to . a whole:

A faint smile had come on Victorne's lace — she was adding up the money she might earn. (A. Christie)

His sister's eyes fixed on him which a certain astonishment, obliged her at last to look at Fleur. (A. Christie)

3. The Dependent Genitive may express the doer of an action (the ao-called subjective genitive) or show that some person is the object of the action (the so-called objective genitive):

It was Tom's step, then, that Maggie heard on the steps. *(Eliot)*

Gwendolen's reception in the neighborhood fulfilled her uncle's expectations. (A. Christie)

4. The noun in the genitive case may denote qualitative relations:

He looked ever so much smarter in his new officer's clothes with the *little*

blue chevron... (A. Christie)

The use of the genitive case of nouns denoting inanimate things and abstract notions is rather limited.

The genitive case of nouns denoting inanimate things may denote the relations between a part and the whole.

the sudden shaking of an aspen's leaves in the puffs of breeze that rose along thte river... (A. Christie)

He stepped on the truck's running board hanging on with his left aim. (A. Christie)

The genitive case of expressing time, space and weight is widely used.

From the depot he was sent to the officers' training camp with two days' leave (A. Christie).

And both quite took to him a gata and during his month's leave gave him a good time. (A. Christie)

There is a remnant still of the last year's golden dusters.. (A. Christie)

The three of us had had dinner, and walked down past the theatre to the river's edge. (A. Christie)

B. The Absolute Genitive.

1. The Absolute Genitive may be used anaphorically[20].

Mrs. Moss's face bore a faded resemblance to ber brother's- *(tliot)*

The face Michael drew began by being Victoriana’s and ended by being Fleers. (A. Christie)

2. The Absolute Genitive may have local meaning: the stationer's, the baker's, the tobacconist's, my uncle's, etc.

[20] Harris Z.S. Co-occurrence and transformation in linguistic structure. “Language”., 1957., p.241

On her way bank lie usually bought a slice of honey-cake at the baker's. (A. Christie)

"My dear" said the Jane collar she secured Iron Partridge's, "1 took you beautifully." (A. Christie)

The Absolute Genitive may be introduced by the preposition *of*. She is a relation of the Colonel's. (A. Christie)

2.3 The Category of Number of English Nouns used A. Christie's works

The category of number of English nouns is the system of opposites (such as girl - girls, foot - feet, etc.) showing whether the noun stands for one object or more than one, in other words, whether its grammatical meaning is 'oneness' or 'more-than-oneness' of objects.

The connection of the category with the world of material reality, though indirect, is quite transparent. Its meanings reflect the existence of individual objects and groups of objects in the material world.

All number opposites are identical in content: they contain two particular meanings of 'singular' and 'plural' united by the general meaning of the category, that of 'number'. But there is a considerable variety of form in number opposites, though it is not so great as in the Russian language.

An English noun lexeme can contain two number opposites at most (toy - boys, boy's - boys'). Many lexemes have but one oppose me (table - tables) and many others have no opposites at all (ink, news).

In the opposite boy - boys 'singularity' is expressed by a zero morpheme and 'plurality' is marked by the positive morpheme /-z/, in spelling - .s. In other words, the 'singular' member of the opposite is not marked, and the 'plural' member is marked[21].

In the opposite boy's - boys' both members have positive morphemes -`s, - s', but these morphemes can be distinguished only in writing. In the spoken language their forms do not differ, so with regard to each other they are unmarked. They can be distinguished only by their combinability (cf. a boy's head, boys' heads).

In a few noun lexemes of foreign origin both members of a number opposite are marked, e.g. symposium - symposia, genus - genera, phenomenon-phenomena,

[21] Ganshina M.A., Vasilevskaya M.A. English Grammar. 1964., 360 p.

etc. But in the process of assimilation this peculiarity of foreign nouns gets gradually lost, and instead of medium - media a new opposite develops, medium - mediums; instead of formula - formulae, the usual form now is formula - formulas. In this process, as we see, the foreign grammatical morphemes are neglected as such. The `plural' morpheme is dropped altogether. The 'singular' morpheme becomes part of the stem. Finally, the regular - s ending is added to form the 'plural' opposite. As a result the 'singular' becomes unmarked, as typical of English, and the 'plural' gets its usual mark, the suffix - s.

Since the 'singular' member of a number opposite is not marked, the form of the opposite is, as a rule, determined by the form of the 'plural' morpheme, which, in its turn, depends upon the stem of the lexeme.

In the overwhelming majority of cases the form of the 'plural' morpheme is /-s/, /-z/, or /-z/, in spelling - (e) s, e. g, books, boys, matches.

With the stem ox - the form of the 'plural' morpheme is - en /-n/.

In the opposite man-men the form of the 'plural' morpheme is the vowel change /? > e/. In woman - women ii is /u > i/, in foot - feet it is /u - i:/, etc.

In child - children the form of the 'plural' morpheme is complicated. It consists of the vowel change /ai > i/ and the suffix - ren.

In sheep - sheep the 'plural' is not marked, thus coinciding in form with the 'singular'. They can be distinguished only by their combinability: `one sheep', `five sheep', `a sheep was…', `sheep were…', `this sheep', `these sheep'. The 'plural' coincides in form with the 'singular' also in `deer, fish, carp, perch, trout, cod, salmon', etc

All the 'plural' forms enumerated here are forms of the same morpheme. This can be proved, as we know, by the identity of the 'plural' meaning, and the

complementary distribution of these forms, i.e. the fact that different forms are used with different stems.

As already mentioned B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar. 1966 p. 48, with regard to the category of number English nouns fall into two subclasses: countable and uncountable. The former have number opposites, the latter have not. Uncountable nouns are again subdivided into those having no plural opposites and those having no singular opposites[22].

Nouns like milk, geometry, self-possession having no plural opposites are usually called by a Latin name - singularia tantum. Nouns like outskirts, clothes, goods having no singular opposites are known as pluralia tantum.

As a matter of fact, those nouns which have no number opposites are outside the grammatical category of number. But on the analogy of the bulk of English nouns they acquire oblique (or lexicon-grammatical) meanings of number. Therefore singularia tantum are often treated as singulars and pluralia tantum as plurals.

This is justified both by their forms and by their combinability.

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

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

When combinability and form contradict each other, combinability is decisive, which accounts for the fact that `police' or `cattle' are regarded as plurals, and `measles', `mathematics as singulars.

The lexicon-grammatical meaning of a class (or of a subclass) of words is, as we know, an abstraction from the lexical meanings of the words of the class, and

[22] Khaimovich B.S. Rogovskaya B.I.”A Course in English Grammar”M.,1966., 297 p.

depends to a certain extent on those lexical meanings. Therefore singularia tantum usually include nouns of certain lexical meanings. They are mostly material, abstract and collective nouns, such as sugar, gold, butter, brilliance, constancy, selfishness, humanity, soldiery, peasantry.

Yet it is not every material, abstract or collective noun that belongs to the group of singularia tantum (e. g. a plastic, a feeling, a crowd) and, what is more important, not in all of its meanings does a noun belong to this group.

As we have already seen B.S. Khaimovich, B.I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar. 1966 p. 49, variants of the same lexeme may belong to different subclasses of a part of speech. In most of their meanings the words joy and sorrow as abstract nouns are singularia tantum[23].

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

But when concrete manifestations are meant, these nouns are countable and have plural opposites, e. g. the joys and sorrows of life.

Likewise, the words copper, tin, hair as material nouns are usually singularia tantum, but when they denote concrete objects, they become countable and get plural opposites: a copper - coppers, a tin - tins, a hair - hairs.

Similarly, when the nouns wine, steel, salt denote some sort or variety of the substance, they become countable.

E.g. an expensive wine - expensive wines.

All such cases are not a peculiarity of the English language alone. They are found in other languages as well. Cf. дерево - деревья and дерево.is a material noun, платье - платья and платье as a collective noun.

[23] Khaimovich B.S. Rogovskaya B.I."A Course in English Grammar"M.,1966., 297 p.

`Joy' and `a joy', `beauty' and `a beauty', `copper' and `a copper', `hair' and `a hair' and many other pairs of this kind are not homonyms, as suggested by some grammarians Л.С. Бархударов, Д.А. Штелинг. Грамматика английского языка. М., 1960, p. 35, but variants of lexemes related by internal conversion[24].

If all such cases were regarded as homonyms, the number of homonyms in the English language would be practically limitless. If only some of them were treated as homonyms, that would give rise to uncontrolled subjectivity.

The group of pluralia tantum is mostly composed of nouns denoting objects consisting of two or more parts, complex phenomena or ceremonies, e. g. tongs, pincers, trousers, nuptials, obsequies. Here also belong some nouns with a distinct collective or material meaning, e.g. clothes, eaves, sweets.

Since in these words the - s suffix does not function as a grammatical morpheme, it gets lexicalized and develops into an inseparable part of the stem Л. С. Бархударов, Д. А. Штелинг, op. cit., p. 36.. This, probably, underlies the fact that such nouns as mathematics, optics, linguistics, mumps, measles are treated as singularia tantum.

Nouns like police, militia, cattle, poultry are pluralia tantum, judging by their combinability, though not by form O. Jespersen. Essentials of English Grammar. Lnd., 1943, p. 208..

People in the meaning of «народ» is a countable noun. In the meaning of «люди» it belongs to the pluralia tantum. Family in the sense of «a group of people who are related» is a countable noun. In the meaning of «individual members of this group» it belongs to the pluralia tantum. Thus, the lexeme family has two variants:

Sg. PL

[24] Barhudarov L.S «Language and translation»M. 1975., 270 p.

1) family families

2) - family

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

Those were the oldest families in Jorkshire. (A. Christie)

Her family were of a delicate constitution. (A. Christie)

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

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

Thus, the lexeme has three variants:

Sg. Pl.

1) colour colours

2) colour -

3) - colours.

When grammarians write that the lexical meanings of some plurals differ from those of their singular opposites В. Н. Жигадло, И. П. Иванова, Л. Л. Иофик, op. cit., p. 30., they simply compare different variants of a lexeme.

Sometimes variants of a lexeme may belong to the same lexico-grammatical subclass and yet have different forms of number opposemes.

Cf. brother (son of same parents) - brothers

brother (fellow member) - brethren

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

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

A collective noun is a word that designates a group of objects or beings regarded as a whole, such as «flock», «team», or «corporation». Although many languages treat collective nouns as singular, in others they may be interpreted as plural. In British English, phrases such as the committee are meeting are common (the so-called agreement in sensu «in meaning», that is, with the meaning of a noun, rather than with its form). The use of this type of construction varies with dialect and level of formality.

All languages are able to specify the quantity of referents. They may do so by lexical means with words such as English a few, some, one, two, five hundred. However, not every language has a grammatical category of number. Grammatical number is expressed by morphological and/or syntactic means. That is, it is indicated by certain grammatical elements, such as through affixes or number words. Grammatical number may be thought of as the indication of semantic number through grammar. Languages that express quantity only by lexical means lack a grammatical category of number. For instance, in Khmer, neither nouns nor verbs carry any grammatical information concerning number: such information can only be conveyed by lexical items such as khlah 'some', pii-bey 'a few', and so on.

Most languages of the world have formal means to express differences of number. The most widespread distinction, as found in English and many other languages, involves a simple two-way number contrast between singular and plural (car / cars; child / children, etc.). Other more elaborate systems of number are described below.

Chapter III The essential problems of teaching English grammar

3.1 Different approaches to the teaching English grammar

Language is the chief means by which the human personality exercises itself and fulfills its basic need for social interaction with other persons. Robert Lado wrote that language functions owing to the language skills. A person who knows a language perfectly uses a thousand and one grammar lexical, phonetic rules when he is speaking. Language skills help us to choose different words and models in our speech[25].

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

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

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

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

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

[25] http:www.adroad languages.com.at. english.

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

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

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

A command of English as is envisaged by the school syllabus cannot be ensured without the study of grammar. Pupils need grammar to be able to aud, speak, read, and write in the target language.

3.2 The psychological characteristics of grammar skills

To develop one's speech means to acquire essential patterns of speech and grammar patterns in particular. Children must use these items automatically during speech-practice. The automatic use of grammar items in our speech (oral and written) supposes mastering some particular skills – the skills of using grammar items to exdivss one's own thoughts, in other words to make up your sentences. We must get so-called reproductive or active grammar skills[26].

A skill is treated as an automatic part of awareness. Automatization of the action is the main feature of a skill. The nature of Automatization is characterized by that psychological structure of the action which adopts to the conditions of performing the action owing frequent experience. The action becomes more frequent, correct and accurate and the number of the operations is shortened while forming the skill the character of awareness of the action is changing, i.e. fullness of understanding is paid to the conditions and quality of performing to the control over it and regulation.

To form some skills is necessary to know that the process of the forming skills has some steps:

- Only some definite elements of the action are automatic.
- The Automatization occurs under more difficult conditions, when the child can't concentrate his attention on one element of the action.
- The whole structure of the action is improved and the automatization of its separate components is completed.

What features do the productive grammar skills have?

During our speech the reproductive grammar skills are formed together with lexis and intonation, they must exdivss the speaker's intentions. The actions in the structural setting of the lexis must be learnt. The characteristic feature of the reproductive grammar skills is their flexibility. It doesn't depend on the level of Automatization, i.e. on perfection of skill here mean the original action: both the structure of sentence, and forms of the words are reproduced by the speaker using

[26] http:// www/answers/ com/ topic/ english.

different lexical material. If the child reproduces sentences and different words, which have been learnt by him as “a ready-made thing” he can say that there is no grammar skill. Learning the ready-made forms, word combinations and sentences occurs in the same way as learning lexis. The grammar skill is based on the general conclusion. The grammar action can and must occur only in the definite lexical limits, on the definite lexical material. If the pupil can make up his sentence frequently, accurately and correctly from the grammatical point of view, he has got the grammar skill.

Teaching grammar at school using the theoretical knowledge brought some critical and led to confusion. All the grammatical rules were considered to be evil and there were some steps to avoid using them at school. But when we learn grammatical items in models we use substitution and such a type of training gets rid of grammar or “neutralizes” it. By the way, teaching the skills to make up sentences by analogy is a step on the way of forming grammar skills. It isn’t the lexical approach to grammar and it isn’t neutralization of grammar, but using basic sentences in order to use exercises by analogy and to reduce number of grammar rules when forming the reproductive grammar skills.

To form the reproductive grammar skills we must follow such steps:

- Selection the model of sentence.
- Selection the form of the word and formation of wordforms.
- Selection the auxiliary words-divposition, articles, and etc. and their combination with principle words.

The main difficulty of the reproductive (active) grammar skills is to correspond the purposes of the statement, communicative approach (a questionèan answer and so on), words, meanings, exdivssed by the grammatical patterns. In that case we use basic sentences, in order to answer the definite situation. The main factor of the forming of the reproductive grammar skill is that pupils need to learn the lexis of the language. They need to learn the meanings of the words and how they are used. We must be sure that our pupils are aware of the vocabulary they need at their level and they can use the words in order to form their own sentence.

Each sentence contains a grammar structure. The mastering the grammar skill lets pupils save time and strength, energy, which can give opportunity to create. Learning a number of sentences containing the same grammatical structure and a lot of words containing the same grammatical form isn't rational. But the generalization of the grammar item can relieve the work of the mental activity and let the teacher speed up the work and the children realize creative activities. The process of creation is connected with the mastering of some speech stereotypes the grammatical substrat is hidden in basic sentences. Grammar is divsented as itself. Such a divsentation of grammar has its advantage: the grammar patterns of the basic sentences are connected with each other. But this approach gives pupils the opportunity to realize the grammar item better. The teaching must be based on grammar explanations and grammar rules. Grammar rules are to be understood as a special way of exdivssing communicative activity. The reproductive grammar skills suppose to master the grammar actions which are necessary for exdivssing thoughts in oral and written forms. The automatic perception of the text supposes the reader to identify the grammar form according to the formal features of words, word combinations, sentences which must be combined with the definite meaning. One must learn the rules in order to identify different grammatical forms. Pupils should get to know their features, the ways of exdivssing them in the language. We teach children to read and aud by means of grammar. It reveals the relation between words in the sentence. Grammar is of great important when one teaches reading and auding. The forming of the perceptive grammar and reproductive skills is quite different. The steps of the work is mastering the reproductive skills differ from the steps in mastering the perceptive skills. To master the reproductive grammar skills one should study the basic sentences or models. To master the perceptive grammar skills one should identify and analyze the grammar item. Though training is of great importance to realize the grammar item.

3.3 The content of Teaching Grammar

Before speaking about the selection of grammar material it is necessary to consider the concept “grammar”, what it meant by “grammar”. By grammar one can mean adequate comdivhension and correct usage of words in the act of communication, that is, intuitive knowledge of the grammar of the language. It is a set of reflexes enabling a person to communicate with his associates[27]. Such knowledge is acquired by a child in the mother tongue before he goes to schools. This “grammar” functions without the individual’s awareness of technical nomenclature; in other words, he has no idea of the system of the language, and to use all the word-endings for singular and plural, for tense, and all the other grammar rules without special grammar lessons only due to the abundance of auding and speaking. His young mind grasps the facts and “makes simple grammar rules” for arranging the words to exdivss carious thoughts and feelings. This is true because sometimes little children make mistakes by using a common rule for words to which that rule cannot be applied. For example, a little English child might be heard to say Two mans comed instead of Two men come, because the child is using the plural “*s”* rule for man to which the rule does not apply, and the past tense ed rule for come which does not obey the ordinary rule for the past tense formation. A little Russian child can say ножов instead of ножей using the case-ending “ов” for ножи to which it does not apply. Such mistakes are corrected as the child grows older and learns more of his language. By “grammar” we also mean the system of the language, the discovery and description of the nature of language itself. It is not a natural grammar, but a constructed one. There are several *constructed grammars: traditional, structural, and transformational grammars*. Traditional grammar studies the forms of words (morphology) and how they are put together in sentences (syntax); structural grammar studies structures of various levels of the language (morpheme level) and syntactic level; transformational grammar studies basic structures and transformation rules. What we need is simplest and shortest grammar that meets the requirements of the

[27] http://www.homeenglish.ru.

school syllabus in foreign languages. This grammar must be simple enough to be grasped and held by any pupil. We cannot say that this problem has been solved. Since graduates are expected to acquire language proficiency in aural comdihension, speaking and reading grammar material should be selected for the purpose. There exist principles of selecting grammar material both for teaching speaking knowledge (active minimum) and for teaching reading knowledge (passive minimum), the main one is the principle of frequency, i.e., how frequently this or that grammar item occurs. For example, the Present Simple (Indefinite) is frequently used both in conversation and in various texts. Therefore it should be included in the grammar minimum. For selecting grammar material for reading the principle of polysemia, for instance, is of great importance.

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

Plurals of
The 3d person singular of Present Simple (Indefinite)

For example, -s (es)

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

Conclusion

The noun in Modern English has only two grammatical categories, number and case. The existence of case appears to be doubtful and has to be carefully analysed.

The Modern English noun certainly has not got the category of grammatical gender, which is to be found, for example, in Russian, French, German and Latin. Not a single noun in Modern English shows any peculiarities in its morphology due to its denoting a male or a female being. Thus, the words *husband* and *wife* do not show any difference in their forms due to the peculiarities of their lexical meanings.

Certain nouns denoting groups of human beings *(family, government, party, clergy,* etc.) and also of animals *(cattle, poultry,* etc.) can be used in two different ways: either they are taken to denote the group as a whole, and in that case they are treated as singulars, and usually termed "collective nouns" (in a restricted sense of the term); or else they are taken to denote the group as consisting of a certain number of individual human beings (or animals), and in that case they are usually termed "nouns of multitude".

The difference between the two applications of such nouns may be briefly exemplified by a pair of examples: *My family is small,* and *My family are good speakers.* It is quite obvious here that in the one sentence the characteristic "small" applies to the family as a whole, while in the other sentence the characteristic "good speakers" applies to every single member of the family ("everyone of them is a good speaker" is what is meant, but certainly not "everyone of them is small"). The same consideration would also apply to such sentences as *The cattle were grazing in the field.* It is also quite possible to say, *Many cattle were grazing in the field,* where the use of *many* (not *much)* clearly shows that *cattle* is apprehended as a plural.

The following bit of dialogue is curious, as the noun *board,* which is the subject of the first sentence, is here connected with a predicate verb in the

singular, but is replaced by a plural pronoun. With the noun *people* the process seems to have gone further than with any other noun of this kind. There is, on the one hand, the noun *people,* singular, with its plural *peoples* (meaning 'nations'), and there is, on the other hand, the noun *people* apprehended as a plural *(There were fifty people in the hall)* and serving as a kind of plural to the noun *person (There was only one person in the hall). People* can of course be modified by the words *many* and *few* and by cardinal numerals *(twenty people).*

In the following sentence the word *people* is even modified by the phrase attribute *one or two,* although the numeral *one* in itself could not possibly be an attribute to the noun *people* in this sense: *One or two people looked at him curiously, but no one said anything.* Strictly speaking we might expect the phrase *one man or two people;* however, this variant does not appear to be used anywhere. The perfect possibility of the phrase *two people* appears to be sufficient ground for making the phrase *one or two people* possible as well.

Abstract nouns are names of qualities, conditions, or actions, considered abstractly, or apart from their natural connection.

When we speak of a *wise man,* we recognize in him an attribute or quality. If we wish to think simply of that quality without describing the person, we speak of the *wisdom* of the man. The quality is still there as much as before, but it is taken merely as a name. So *poverty* would express the condition of a poor person; *proof* means the act of proving, or that which shows a thing has been proved; and so on.

Bibliography

1. I. Aznaurova E.S. "Translation Theory and Practice" Tashkent 1989, 244 p.
2. Barhudarov L.S «Language and translation»M. 1975., 270 p.
3. Bach E. An introduction to Transformational grammar. N.Y.1964., 300 p.
4. Bloomfield L. Language. M.1968., 280 p.
5. Blokh. M.Y."A Course in theoretical English grammar" M.1983, 382 p.
6. Bryant M.A Functional English Grammar. N.Y., 1945. 290 p.
7. Close R.A. A Reference Grammar for students of English. Ldn., 1977., 320 p.
8. Buranov J.B. Hoshimov U.H Muminov O.M. " Normative course of English Grammar" Ukituvchi 1989., 180 p.
9. Comissarov V.N. " Theoretical and Practical translation from English into Russian" M. 1965., 263 p.
10. Comissarov V.N. Retsker Ya. R. Handbook of translation from English into Russian"M. 1965., 240 p.
11. Ilyish B.The structure of modern English M-L. 1965., 365 p.
12. Irisqulov M., Kuldashev A. Theoretical grammar of the English language. Tashkent., 2008. 280 p.
13. FedorovA. V." The basis of translation theory" M. 1983., 200 p.
14. Fiterman AM " The problem of translation of the material of the contemporary English language"M. 1974., 260 p.
15. Gindlina E.M. "All grammar of the English Language. L. 1971, 278 p.
16. Hockett Ch. A Course in Modern Linguistics. N.Y.,1958., 290 p.
17. Harris Z.S. Co-occurrence and transformation in linguistic structure. "Language"., 1957., 302 p.
18. Khaimovich B.S. Rogovskaya B.I."A Course in English Grammar"M.,1966., 297 p.

19. Кобрина Н.А. Корнеева Е.А. Оссовская М.И. Гузеева К.А “Грамматика английского языка. Морфология. Синтаксис”., Союз., С. Петербург., 1999., 496 ст.

20. Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English.M-L., 1971., 365 p.

21. Irtenyeva N., Shapkin A., Blokh M., “English syntax” M., 1968., 180 p.

22.Kachalova K.N."Practice grammar of the English language"Bishkek 1999., 360 p.

23.Kaushanskaya V.L "A Grammar of the English language" M.1973, 319 p.

24.Levitskaya T.K. " English grammar" M. 1975., 280 p.

25.Murphy Raymond " English Grammar in use" Cambridge 1985., 178 p.

26.RodjerN. Bell" Translation, theory and practice" London, New York 1995., 238 p.

27.Sheytcher " Other translations and linguistics " M. 1974., 190 p.

28.Sweet H.A. New English Grammar. Oxford 1990., 270 p.

29.Zandvoorf R.W. a Handbook of English Grammar 1957., 350 p.

30.Strang B.M.H. Modern English Structure. London, 1959., 260 p.

31.Roberts P. English Sentences. New York, 1962., 240 p.

32.Long R. B. A grammar Of Contemporary English. Chicago, 1965., 320 p.

33. Ganshina M.A., Vasilevskaya M.A. English Grammar. 1964., 360 p.

34.Curme G.O. Grammar of the English Language. New York. 1935., 280 p.

35. Geoffrey L., A-Z of English grammar &usage. 1991., 280 p.

36. Jacobs, R., English Syntax. Oxford. 1995., 340 p.

37. McCawley J., The syntactic phenomena of English. Chicago.1998., 290 p.

38. Nosek, J., Contribuition to the syntax of new English.Moscow.1988, 302 p.

39.Rogova,G.V.,“Methods of teaching English”; M.,1970., 280 p.

40. Harmer, J, “The practice English language teaching”; Ldn.,1991, 190 p.

41. Синявская, Е.В. и др., “Вопросы методики обучения иностранным языком за рубежом.” М., Просвещение, 1978., 280 p.

42. Bennett, William Arthur.,”Aspects of Language and language teaching.”; London-New York., Cambridge univ. 1998., 304 p.

43. Lado Robert., “English pattern practices. Establishing the patterns as habits.”; The univ. of Michigan, 1997., 190 p.

44. http:www.adroad languages.com.at. english.

45. http:// www/answers/ com/ topic/ english.

46. http://www.homeenglish.ru.