

Model of Teaching Technology
in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 1. The place of the English language in genetic and morphological typology of languages

2 hours	The number of students -75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
Plan of lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Language families and groups 2. The Germanic group of languages 3. The typology of different systems, languages 4. Language and speech. 5. The concept of grammar. Two types of grammar.
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about world languages, language families and groups, with the knowledge of the German language group, language and speech. Theoretical understanding of grammar, and forming the subject of its imagination.
Pedagogical tasks To help students to memorize the material of the lecture and to be able to explain to others the contents of the course. To form the ability of students to explain practical knowledge by using theoretical knowledge.	Educational results Students will learn from this topic <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 General information about language families and groups. 2. The information about the Germanic languages group. 3. The information about the genetics of the various systems of languages. 4. Language and speech. The difference between them. 5. The concept of grammar. Two types of grammar.
Teaching methods	Problematic lecture
The form of teaching	Interactive form of education
Training instruments	A) Course books B) manuals V) handouts G) posters

	D) additional material in DVD format
Teaching conditions	Lecture hall
Monitoring and evaluation report	<p>The quality of students` recording of lecture materials is evaluated up to 2 points depending on the size of the entire text.</p> <p>The lecturer evaluates the knowledge according to the achievements of the student.</p>

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic "The place of the English language in genetic and morphological typology of languages".

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Germanic, Indo-European, typology, related, non-related etc. linguistic, language family, language group, etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.

Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 1. THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN MORPHOLOGICAL AND GENETIC TYPOLOGY OF LANGUAGES

Problems to be discussed

- 1. Definitions to the term "grammar". Two types of grammar.*
- 2. Language families and groups*
- 3. Germanic group of languages*
- 4. The typology of non-related languages*
- 5. Language and speech.*

Key words: Germanic, Indo-European, typology, related, non-related.

The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of linguistics. A question comes immediately to mind: what does this study involve?

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of **practical** grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of **theoretical** grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

Most of the world's languages belong to language families. A language family is a group of languages related by descent from a common ancestor, called the proto-language of that family. The major of that is Indo-European family. It is divided into several groups, which are also united genetically. One of them is Germanic group. English belongs to Germanic branch of Indo-European family. Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types –synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of "internal" grammar of the word. Here most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of "external" grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytical –the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing.

The morphemic structure of the English language

Problems to be discussed

- What operation is called "Morphemic analysis"?
- Morpheme-morph-allomorph
- Types of morphemes from the point of view of their:
 - a) function
 - b) number correlation between form and meaning

There are many approaches to the questions mentioned above. According to Zellig Harris "The morphemic analysis is the operation by which the analyst isolates minimum meaningful elements in the utterances of a language, and decides which occurrences of such elements shall be regarded as occurrences of "the same" element".

The general procedure of isolating the minimum meaningful elements is as follows:

Step 1. The utterances of a language are examined (obviously) not all of them, but a sampling which we hope will be statistically valid. Recurrent partials with constant meaning (ran away in John ran away and Bill ran away) are discovered; recurrent partials not composed of smaller ones (way) are alternants or morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are counted for. Every utterance is composed entirely of morphs. The division of a stretch of speech between one morph and another, we shall call a cut.

Step 2. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they: have the same meaning;

never occur in identical environments and

have combined environments no greater than the environments of some single alternant in the language.

Step 3. The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics

Compare the above said with the conception of Ch. Hockett.

Ch. Hockett :

Step 1. All the utterances of the language before (us) the analyst recorded in some phonemic notation.

Step 2. The notations are now examined, recurrent partials with constant meaning are discovered; those not composed of smaller ones are morphs. So are any partials not recurrent but left over when all recurrent ones are accounted for: therefore every bit of phonemic material belongs to one morphs or another. By definition, a morph has the same phonemic shape in all its occurrences; and (at this stage) every morph has an overt phonemic shape, but a morph is not necessarily composed of a continuous uninterrupted stretch of phonemes. The line between two continuous morphs is a cut.

Step 3. Omitting doubtful cases, morphs are classed on the basis of shape and canonical forms are tentatively determined.

Step 4. Two or more morphs are grouped into a single morpheme if they fit the following grouping - requirements:

they have the same meaning;

they are in non-contrastive distribution;

the range of resultant morpheme is not unique.

Step 5. It is very important to remember that if in this procedure one comes across to alternative possibilities, choice must be based upon the following order of priority:

tactical simplicity

morphophonemic simplicity

conformity to canonical forms.

Thus the first cut of utterance into the smallest meaningful units is called morph. The morphs that have identical meanings are grouped into one morpheme. It means the morphs and morphemes are speech and language units that have both form (or shape) and meanings. The smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme while the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. There's a notion of allomorph in linguistics. By allomorphs the linguists understand the morphs that have identical meanings and that are grouped into one morpheme. There may be another definition of the allomorphs: the variants (or options, or alternants) of a morpheme are called allomorphs.

Compare the above said with Harris's opinion.

Some morphs, however, and some may be assigned simultaneously to two (or more) morphemes. An empty morph, assigned to no morpheme. (All the empty morphs in a language are in complementary distribution and have the same meaning (none). They could if there were any advantages in it, be grouped into a single empty morpheme (but one which had the unique characteristic of being tactically irrelevant), must have no meaning and must be predicable in terms of non-empty morphs. A portmanteau morphs must have the meanings of two or more morphemes simultaneously, and must be in non-contrastive distribution with the combination of any alternant of one of the member morphemes and any alternant of the other (usually because no such combination occur).

The difference in the phonemic shape of morphs as alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this (in some cases already partly accomplished in Step 1) constitutes morphophonemics.

In particular, portmanteaus are compared with the other alternants of the morphemes involved, and if resemblances in phonemic shape and the number of cases warrant, morphs of other than overt phonemic content are recognized, some of the portmanteaus being thus eliminated.

The Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be classified from different view-points:

functional

number correlation between form and content

From the point of view of function they may be lexical and grammatical. The lexical morphemes are those that express full lexical meaning of their own and are associated with some object, quality, action, number of reality, like: lip, red, go, one and so on. The lexical morphemes can be subdivided into lexical - free and lexical - bound morphemes. The examples given above are free ones; they are used in speech independently. The lexical-bound ones are never used independently; they are usually added to some lexical-free morphemes to build new words like-friend-ship, free-dom, teach-er, spoon-ful and so on. Taking into account that in form they resemble the grammatical inflections they may be also called lexical - grammatical morphemes. Thus lexical - bound morphemes are those that determine lexical meanings of words but resemble grammatical morphemes in their

dependence on lexical - free morphemes. The lexical - bound morphemes are means to build new words.

The grammatical morphemes are those that are used either to connect words in sentences or to form new grammatical forms of words. The content of such morphemes are connected with the world of reality only indirectly therefore they are also called structural morphemes, e.g., shall, will, be, have, is, - (e)s, -(e)d and so on. As it is seen from the examples the grammatical morphemes have also two subtypes: grammatical - free and grammatical - bound. The grammatical - free ones are used in sentences independently (I shall go) while grammatical - bound ones are usually attached to some lexical - free morphemes to express new grammatical form, like: girl's bag, bigger room, asked.

From the point of view of number correlation between form and content there may be overt, zero, empty and discontinuous morphemes.

By overt morpheme the linguists understand morphemes that are represented by both form and content like: eye, bell, big and so on.

Zero morphemes are those that have (meaning) content but do not have explicitly expressed forms. These morphemes are revealed by means of comparison:

ask – asks

high -higher

In these words the second forms are marked: "asks" is a verb in the third person singular which is expressed by the inflection "s". In its counterpart there's no marker like "s" but the absence of the marker also has grammatical meaning: it means that the verb "ask" is not in the third person, singular number. Such morphemes are called "zero". In the second example the adjective "higher" is in the comparative degree, because of the "- er" while its counterpart "high" is in the positive degree, the absence of the marker expresses a grammatical meaning, i.e. a zero marker is also meaningful, therefore it's a zero morpheme.

There are cases when there's a marker which has not a concrete meaning, i.e. there's neither lexical nor grammatical meaning like: statesman. The word consists of three morphemes: state - s - man. The first and third morphemes have certain meanings. But "s" has no meaning though serve as a connector: it links the first morpheme with the third one. Such morphemes are called empty. Thus empty morphemes are those that have form but no content.

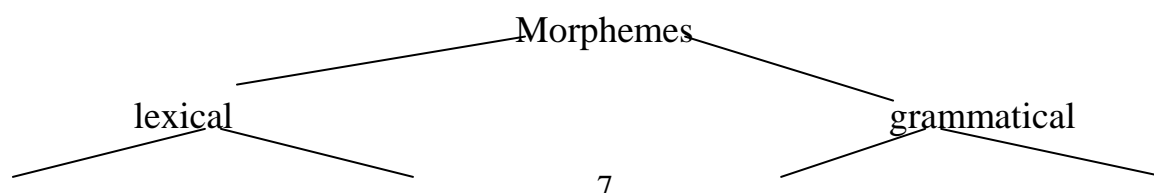
In contemporary English there are cases when two forms express one meaning like:

He is writing a letter

Two morphemes in this sentence "is" and "- ing" express one meaning: a continuous action. Such morphemes are called discontinuous.

Thus there are two approaches to classify morphemes: functional and number correlation between form and content.

The first one can be shown in the following scheme:



free

bound

free

bound

free

bound

free

bound

- free

Literature

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Glossary

1. **Germanic.** Relating to the family of languages that includes English, German, Dutch, and other northern European languages.
2. **Indo-European.** Indo-European languages are a large family of European and Asian languages that includes English, Italian, Greek, Hindi, and Russian
3. **Typology.** A system for arranging things, or the use of such a system.
4. **Related.** Belonging to the same family.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2

Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 2: Speech and language levels and their units

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Speech and Language levels</i> 2. <i>Primary and secondary levels</i> 3. <i>A description of the levels` units of language and speech</i> 4. <i>The differences between Language and Speech.</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about language and speech.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Speech and language groups and general information on the main indicators of their units. 2) the primary and secondary levels on the definition of information. 3) a description of the levels of language and speech units

	4) information about the difference between language and speech.
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic "Speech and language levels".

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture: 1. Language and speech levels 2. Primary and secondary levels	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.

	<p>3. Units of levels</p> <p>4. Differences between language and speech.</p> <p>The subject is written on the screen, or as a poster hanging on the board.</p> <p>There is a projector or a poster, written in chalk on the board.</p>	
Stage 3	<p>The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture:</p> <p>Level, basic, non-basic, unit, phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, minor, major, emic, ethic etc.</p>	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	<p>The lecturer begins his lecture.</p> <p>When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.</p>	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 2. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH LEVELS

Problems to be discussed

1. *Language and speech levels*
2. *Primary and secondary levels*
3. *Units of levels*
4. *The difference between language and speech*

Key words: Level, basic, non-basic, unit, phoneme, morpheme, lexeme, minor, major, emic, ethic.

Language (Speech) is divided to certain strata or levels. The linguists distinguish basic and non-basic (sometimes they term them differently: primary and secondary) levels. This distinction depends on whether a level has got its own unit or not. If a level has its own unit then this level is qualified as basic or primary. If a level doesn't have a unit of its own then it is a non - basic or secondary level. Thus the number of levels entirely depend on how many language (or speech) units in language. There's a number of conceptions on this issue: some scientists say that there are four units (phoneme/phone; morpheme/morph; lexeme/lex and sentence), others think that there are five units like phonemes, morphemes, lexemes, word -combinations (phrases) and sentences and still others

maintain that besides the mentioned ones there are paragraphs, utterances and texts. As one can see there's no unity in the number of language and speech units. The most wide - spread opinion is that there are five language (speech) units and respectively there are five language (speech) levels, they are: phonetic/phonological; morphological; lexicological, syntax - minor and syntax - major. The levels and their units are as follows:

1. phonological/phonetical level: phoneme/phone
2. morphological level: morpheme/morph
3. lexicological level: lexeme/lex
4. Syntax - minor: sentence
5. Syntax - major: text

Thus, non - basic or secondary level is one that has no unit of its own. Stylistics can be said to be non - basic (secondary) because this level has no its own unit. In order to achieve its aim it makes wide use of the units of the primary (basic) levels. The stylistics studies the expressive means and stylistic devices of languages. According to I.R. Galperin "The expressive means of a language are those phonetic means, morphological forms, means of word -building, and lexical, phraseological and syntactical form, all of which function in the language for emotional or logical intensification of the utterance. These intensifying forms of the language, wrought by social usage and recognized by their semantic function have been fixed in grammars, dictionaries".(12)

"What then is a stylistic device (SD)? It is a conscious and intentional literary use of some of the facts of the language (including expressive means) in which the most essential features (both structural and semantic) of the language forms are raised to a generalized level and thereby present a generative model. Most stylistic devices may be regarded as aiming at the further intensification of the emotional or logical emphasis contained in the corresponding expressive means".(12)

When talking about the levels one has to mention about the distinction between language and speech because the linguistics differentiates language units and speech units.

The main distinction between language and speech is in the following:

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete;
- 2) language is common, general for all the bearers while speech is individual;
- 3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes;
- 4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tend to be openness and endless.

It is very important to take into account these distinctions when considering the language and speech units. There are some conceptions according to which the terms of "language levels" are substituted by the term of "emic level" while the "speech levels" are substituted by "ethic levels". Very often these terms are used interchangeably.

The lowest level in the hierarchy of levels has two special terms: phonology and phonetics. Phonology is the level that deals with language units and phonetics

is the level that deals with speech units. The lowest level deals with language and speech units which are the smallest and meaningless. So, the smallest meaningless unit of language is called phoneme; the smallest meaningless unit of speech is called phone. As it's been said above the language units are abstract and limited in number which means that phonemes are abstract and that they are of definite number in languages. The speech units are concrete, changeable and actually endless. This means that language units (phonemes) are represented in speech differently which depends on the person that pronounces them and on the combinability of the phoneme.

Phonemes when pronounced in concrete speech vary from person to person, according to how he has got used to pronounce this or that sound. In linguistic theory it is explained by the term "idiolect" that is, individual dialect. Besides, there may be positional changes (combinability): depending on the sounds that precede and follow the sound that we are interested in the pronunciation of it may be different, compare: *low* and *battle*. The sound "l" will be pronounced differently in these two words because the letter "l" in the first word is placed in the initial position and in the second word it stands after the letter "t". So we face "light" (in the first word) and "dark" version (in the second case). These alternants are said to be in the complimentary distribution and they are called allophones (variants, options or alternants) of one phoneme. Thus allophone is a variant of a phoneme.

The second level in the hierarchy of strata is called morphological. There's only one term for both language and speech but the units have different terms: morpheme for language and morph for speech. This level deals with units that are also smallest but in this case they are meaningful. So the smallest meaningful unit of language is called a morpheme and the smallest meaningful unit of speech is called a morph. The morphs that have different forms, but identical (similar) meanings are united into one morpheme and called "allomorphs". The morpheme of the past tense has at least three allomorphs, they are. /t/, /d/, /id/ - Examples: worked, phoned and wanted. The variant of the morpheme depends on the preceding sound in the word.

The third level is lexicological which deals with words. Word may be a common term for language and speech units. Some linguists offer specific terms for language and speech: "lexeme" for language and "lex" for speech.

The correlation between "lexeme" and "lex" is the same as it is between "phoneme" and "phone" and "morpheme" and "morph". "Lexeme" is a language unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function. "Lex" is a speech unit of the lexicological level which has a nominative function.

Thus, both lexeme and lex nominate something or name things, actions phenomena, quality, quantity and so on.

Examples: tree, pen, sky, red, worker, friendship, ungentlemanly and so on. An abstract lexeme "table" of language is used in speech as lex with concrete meaning of "writing table", "dinner table", "round table", "square table", and so on. There may be "allexes" like allophones and allomorphs. Allexes are lexes that

have identical or similar meanings but different forms, compare: start, commence, begin.

To avoid confusion between "morpheme" and "lexemes" it is very important to remember that morphemes are structural units while lexemes are communicative units: morphemes are built of phonemes and they are used to build words - lexemes. Lexemes take an immediate part in shaping the thoughts, that is, in building sentences. Besides, lexemes may consist of one or more morphemes. The lexeme "tree" consists of one morpheme while the lexeme "ungentlemanly" consists of four morphemes: un - gentle - man - ly.

The next level is syntax - minor which deals with sentences. The term "Syntax - minor" is common one for both language and speech levels and their unit "sentence" is also one common term for language and speech units. The linguistics hasn't yet worked out separate terms for those purposes.

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

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

In the same way the level syntax - major can be explained. The unit of this level is text - the highest level of language and speech. "Syntax- major" represents both language and speech levels due to the absence of separate term as well as "text" is used homogeneously for both language and speech units.

The language and speech units are interconnected and interdependent. This can easily be proved by the fact that the units of lower level are used to make up or to build the units of the next higher level: phones are used as building material for morphs, and morphs are used to build lexes and the latter are used to construct sentences. Besides, the homonyms that appear in the phonetical level can be explained on the following higher level, compare: - "er" is a homonymous morph. In order to find out in which meaning it is used we'll have to use it on the lexicological level; if it is added to verbs like "teacher", "worker" then it will have one meaning but if we use it with adjectives like "higher", "lower" it will have another meaning. Before getting down to "the theoretical grammar" course one has to know the information given above.

The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics. **Language** is a collective body of knowledge, it is a set of basic elements, but these elements can form a great variety of combinations. In fact the number of these combinations is endless. Speech is closely connected with

language, as it is the result of using the language, the result of a definite act of speaking. Speech is individual, personal while language is common for all individuals. The distinction between language and speech was made by Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar usually credited with establishing principles of modern linguistics:

- 1) language is abstract and speech is concrete
- 2) language is common, general for bearers while speech is individual
- 3) language is stable, less changeable while speech tends to changes
- 4) language is a closed system, its units are limited while speech tends to be openness and endless. To illustrate the difference between language and speech let us compare a definite *game of chess* and *a set of rules* how to play chess.

Language is opposed to speech and accordingly language units are opposed to speech units. The language unit *phoneme* is opposed to the speech unit - *sound*: phoneme /s/ can sound differently in speech - /s/ and /z/. The *sentence* is opposed to the *utterance*; the *text* is opposed to the *discourse*.

A linguistic unit can enter into relations of two different kinds. It enters into paradigmatic relations with all the units that can also occur in the same environment. PR are relations based on the principles of similarity. They exist between the units that can substitute one another. For instance, in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* is in paradigmatic relations with the words *bottle*, *cup*, etc. The article *A* can enter into PR with the units *the*, *this*, *one*, *same*, etc. According to different principles of similarity PR can be of three types: **semantic**, **formal** and **functional**.

a) Semantic PR are based on the similarity of meaning: *a book to read = a book for reading*. *He used to practice English every day - He would practice English every day*.

b) Formal PR are based on the similarity of forms. Such relations exist between the members of a paradigm: *man - men; play - played - will play - is playing*.

c) Functional PR are based on the similarity of function. They are established between the elements that can occur in the same position. For instance, noun determiners: *a, the, this, his, Ann's, some, each*, etc.

PR are associated with the sphere of 'language'.

A linguistic unit enters into **syntagmatic** relations with other units of the same level it occurs with. SR exist at every language level. E.g. in the word-group *A PINT OF MILK* the word *PINT* contrasts SR with *A*, *OF*, *MILK*; within the word

PINT - *P*, *I*, *N* and *T* are in **syntagmatic** relations. SR are linear relations, that is why they are manifested in speech. They can be of three different types: **coordinate**, **subordinate** and **predicative**.

a) Coordinate SR exist between the homogeneous linguistic units that are equal in rank, that is, they are the relations of independence: *you* and *me*; They were *tired* but *happy*.

b) Subordinate SR are the relations of dependence when one linguistic unit depends on the other: *teach* κ *er* – morphological level; *a smart student* - word-group level; predicative and subordinate clauses - sentence level.

c) Predicative SR are the relations of interdependence: primary and secondary predication.

As mentioned above, SR may be observed in utterances, which is impossible when we deal with PR. Therefore, PR are identified with 'language' while SR are identified with 'speech'.

The grammatical structure of language is a system of means used to turn linguistic units into communicative ones, in other words - the units of language into the units of speech. Such means are inflexions, affixation, word order, function words and phonological means.

Generally speaking, Indo-European languages are classified into two structural types - synthetic and analytic. Synthetic languages are defined as ones of 'internal' grammar of the word - most of grammatical meanings and grammatical relations of words are expressed with the help of inflexions. Analytical languages are those of 'external' grammar because most grammatical meanings and grammatical forms are expressed with the help of words (*will do*). However, we cannot speak of languages as purely synthetic or analytic - the English language (Modern English) possesses analytical forms as prevailing, while in the Ukrainian language synthetic devices are dominant. In the process of time English has become more analytical as compared to Old English. Analytical changes in Modern English (especially American) are still under way.

As the word is the main unit of traditional grammatical theory, it serves the basis of the distinction which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax. Morphology deals with the internal structure of words, peculiarities of their grammatical categories and their semantics while traditional syntax deals with the rules governing combination of words in sentences (and texts in modern linguistics). We can therefore say that the word is the main unit of morphology.

It is difficult to arrive at a one-sentence definition of such a complex linguistic unit as the word. First of all, it is the main expressive unit of human language which ensures the thought-forming function of the language. It is also the basic nominative unit of language with the help of which the naming function of language is realized. As any linguistic sign the word is a level unit. In the structure of language it belongs to the upper stage of the morphological level. It is a unit of the sphere of 'language' and it exists only through its speech actualization. One of the most characteristic features of the word is its indivisibility. As any other linguistic unit the word is a bilateral entity. It unites a concept and a sound image and thus has two sides - the content and expression sides: concept and sound form.

Answer the following questions

1. *How is the word "level" translated into your mother tongue?*
2. *Why do we have to stratify language and speech?*
3. *What is the difference between primary and secondary levels?*
4. *Do all the linguists share the same opinion on the stratification of language?*
5. *How many basic or primary levels are there in language and speech?*
6. *What's the difference between language levels and speech levels?*
7. *Are there special terms for language and speech levels?*
8. *What does phonetical - phonological level study?*
9. *What does morphological level study?*
10. *What does lexicological level study?*
11. *What does syntax - minor study?*
12. *What does syntax - major study?*
13. *Do the levels function separately in speech or they function as one body?*
14. *What is the function of the word "allo"?*

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Glossary

1. **level.** *Part/stage of system (language).*
2. **unit.** *Individual part.*
3. **phoneme.** *Individual speech sound that makes one word different from another.*
4. **morpheme.** *The smallest unit of meaning in a language.*
5. **lexeme.** *A word or a group of words that has a meaning that cannot be understood from the meaning of the parts of which it consists.*

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions

		were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 3: The problem of grammatical categories

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>the grammatical structure of a language</i> 2. <i>the morphemic structure of the English language</i> 3. <i>the types of morphemes</i> 4. <i>what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?</i> 5. <i>the types of grammatical categories.</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about grammatical category .
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) general information about grammatical category. 2) information about the grammar and logical categories. 3) grammatical categories and types of information.

Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “The problem of grammatical categories”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Opposition, category, linguistics phenomenon, logical and grammatical category, the	The students take notes of the presented information.

	paradigmatic correlation etc.	
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 3. THE PROBLEM OF GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Problems to be discussed

1. *the grammatical structure of a language*
2. *the morphemic structure of the English language*
3. *the types of morphemes*
4. *what linguistic phenomenon is called a "grammatical category"?*
5. *the types of grammatical categories.*

Key words: *Opposition, category, linguistics phenomenon, logical and grammatical category, the paradigmatic correlation etc.*

The grammatical signals have a meaning of their own independent of the meaning of the notional words. This can be illustrated by the following sentence with nonsensical words: **Woggles ugged diggles.**

According to Ch. Fries (32) the morphological and the syntactic signals in the given sentence make us understand that “several actors acted upon some objects”. This sentence which is a syntactic signal, makes the listener understand it as a declarative sentence whose grammatical meaning is actor - action - thing acted upon. One can easily change (transform) the sentence into the singular (A woggle ugged a diggle.), negative (A woggle did not ugg a diggle.), or interrogative (Did a woggle ugg a diggle?) All these operations are grammatical. Then what are the main units of grammar - structure.

Let us assume, for example, a situation in which are involved a man, a boy, some money, an act of giving, the man the giver, the boy the receiver, the time of the transaction - yesterday...

Any one of the units man, boy, money, giver, yesterday could appear in the linguistic structure as subject.

The man gave the boy the money yesterday.

The boy was given the money by the man yesterday.

The money was given the boy by the man yesterday.

The giving of the money to the boy by the man occurred yesterday.

Yesterday was the time of the giving of the money to the boy by the man.

"Subject" then is a formal linguistic structural matter.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of a syntactic construction shows the relation between the words in it.

We have just mentioned here "grammatical meaning", "grammatical utterance".

The whole complex of linguistic means made use of grouping words into utterances is called a grammatical structure of the language.

All the means which are used to group words into the sentence exist as a certain system; they are interconnected and interdependent. They constitute the sentence structure.

All the words of a language fall, as we stated above, under notional and functional words.

Notional words are divided into four classes in accord with the position in which they stand in a sentence.

Notional words as positional classes are generally represented by the following symbols: N, V, A, D.

The man landed the jet plane safely

N V A N D

Words which refer to class N cannot replace word referring to class V and vice versa. These classes we shall call grammatical word classes.

Thus, in any language there are certain classes of words which have their own positions in sentences. They may also be considered to be grammatical means of a language.

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

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

W. Francis: "The Structure of American English".

The Structural grammarian regularly begins with an objective description of the forms of language and moves towards meaning.

An organized whole is greater than the mere sum of its parts. (23), (30)

The organized whole is a structural meaning and the mere sum of its parts is a lexical meaning.

Five Signals of Syntactic Structure

1. Word Order - is the linear or time sequence in which words appear in an utterance.

2. Prosody - is the over-all musical pattern of stress, pitch, juncture in which the words of an utterance are spoken

3. Function words - are words largely devoid of lexical meaning which are used to indicate various functional relationships among the lexical words of an utterance

4. Inflections - are morphemic changes - the addition of suffixes and morphological means concomitant morphophonemic adjustments - which adopt words to perform certain structural function without changing their lexical meanings

5. Derivational contrast - is the contrast between words which have the same base but differ in the number and nature of their derivational affixes

One more thing must be mentioned here. According to the morphological classification English is one of the flexional languages. But the flexional languages fall under synthetical and analytical ones. The synthetical-flexional languages are rich in grammatical inflections and the words in sentences are mostly connected with each-other by means of these inflections though functional words and other grammatical means also participate in this. But the grammatical inflections are of primary importance. The slavonic languages (Russian, Ukraine...) are of this type.

The flectional-analytical languages like English and French in order to connect words to sentences make wide use of the order of words and functional words due to the limited number of grammatical flexions. The grammatical means - order of words – is of primary importance for this type of languages.

Lexical and Grammatical Meaning

In the next chapter we shall come to know that some morphemes are independent and directly associated with some object of reality while others are depended and are connected with the world of reality only indirectly. Examples:

desk-s; bag-s; work-ed; lie-d ...

The first elements of these words are not dependent as the second elements.

Morphemes of the 1st type we'll call lexical and meanings they express are lexical. The elements like -s, -ed, -d are called grammatical morphemes and meanings they express are grammatical.

Thus, lexical meaning is characteristic to lexical morphemes, while grammatical meanings are characteristic to grammatical morphemes.

Grammatical meanings are expressed not only by forms of word – changing, i.e. by affixation but by free morphemes that are used to form analytical word-form, e.g. He will study, I shall go.

The meaning of *shall*, *will* considered to be grammatical since comparing the relations of *invite - invited - shall invite* we can see that the function of *shall* is similar to that of grammatical morphemes -s, -ed.

1. The notion of 'grammatical meaning'.

The word combines in its semantic structure two meanings - lexical and grammatical. **Lexical** meaning is the individual meaning of the word (e.g. *table*). **Grammatical** meaning is the meaning of the whole class or a subclass. For example, the class of nouns has the grammatical meaning of thingness. If we take a noun (*table*) we may say that it possesses its individual lexical meaning (it corresponds to a definite piece of furniture) and the grammatical meaning of

thingness (this is the meaning of the whole class). Besides, the noun '*table*' has the grammatical meaning of a subclass - countableness. Any verb combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of verbality - the ability to denote actions or states. An adjective combines its individual lexical meaning with the grammatical meaning of the whole class of adjectives - qualitiveness - the ability to denote qualities. Adverbs possess the grammatical meaning of adverbiality - the ability to denote quality of qualities.

There are some classes of words that are devoid of any lexical meaning and possess the grammatical meaning only. This can be explained by the fact that they have no referents in the objective reality. All function words belong to this group - articles, particles, prepositions, etc.

The grammatical meaning may be explicit and implicit. The **implicit** grammatical meaning is not expressed formally (e.g. the word *table* does not contain any hints in its form as to it being inanimate). The **explicit** grammatical meaning is always marked morphologically - it has its marker. In the word *eats* the grammatical meaning of plurality is shown in the form of the noun; *eat's* - here the grammatical meaning of possessiveness is shown by the form's; *is asked* - shows the explicit grammatical meaning of passiveness.

The implicit grammatical meaning may be of two types - general and dependent. The general grammatical meaning is the meaning of the whole word-class, of a part of speech (e.g. nouns - the general grammatical meaning of thingness). The **dependent** grammatical meaning is the meaning of a subclass within the same part of speech. For instance, any verb possesses the dependent grammatical meaning of transitivity/in-transitivity, terminativeness/non-terminativeness, stativeness/non-stativeness; nouns have the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness and animate-ness/inanimateness. The most important thing about the dependent grammatical meaning is that it influences the realization of grammatical categories restricting them to a subclass. Thus the dependent grammatical meaning of countableness/uncountableness influences the realization of the grammatical category of number as the number category is

realized only within the subclass of countable nouns, the grammatical meaning of animateness/inanimateness influences the realization of the grammatical category of case, teminativeness/non-terminativeness - the category of tense, transitivity/intransitivity - the category of voice.

Grammatical categories are made up by the unity of identical grammatical meanings that have the same form (e.g. singular : plural). Due to dialectal unity of language and thought, grammatical categories correlate, on the one hand, with the conceptual categories and, on the other hand, with the objective reality.

It follows that we may define grammatical categories as references of the corresponding objective categories. For example, the objective category of **time** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **tense**, the objective category of **quantity** finds its representation in the grammatical category of **number**. Those grammatical categories that have references in the objective reality are called **referential** grammatical categories. However, not all of the grammatical categories have references in the objective reality, just a few of them do not correspond to anything in the objective reality.

They are called **significational** categories. To this type belong the categories of **mood** and **degree**. Speaking about the grammatical category of mood we can say that it has **modality** as its conceptual correlate. It can be explained by the fact that it does not refer to anything in the objective reality - it expresses the speaker's attitude to what he says.

Any grammatical category must be represented by at least two grammatical forms (e.g. the grammatical category of number singular and plural forms). The relation between two grammatical forms differing in meaning and external signs is called **opposition** - book::books (unmarked member/marked member). All grammatical categories find their realization through oppositions, e.g. the grammatical category of number is realized through the opposition singular::plural.

Taking all the above mentioned into consideration, we may define the grammatical category as the opposition between two mutually exclusive form-classes (a form-class is a set of words with the same explicit grammatical meaning).

Means of realization of grammatical categories may be synthetic (*near - nearer*) and analytic (*beautiful- more beautiful*).

5. Transposition and neutralization of morphological forms.

In the process of communication grammatical categories may undergo the processes of transposition and neutralization.

Transposition is the use of a linguistic unit in an unusual environment or in the function that is not characteristic of it (*He is a lion*). In the sentence *He is coming tomorrow* the paradigmatic meaning of the continuous form is reduced and a new meaning appears - that of a future action. Transposition always results in the neutralization of a paradigmatic meaning. **Neutralization** is the reduction of the opposition to one of its members: custom :: customs - x :: customs; x:: spectacles.

language.

There are many conceptions on the problem today. According to B. Golovin (13) “a grammatical category is a real linguistic unity of grammatical meaning and the means of its material expression”. It means that in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be a grammatical meaning and grammatical means.

M.Y. Blokh (6), (7) explains it as follows: “As for the grammatical category itself, it presents, the same as the grammatical “form”, a unity of form (i.e. material factor), and meanings (i.e. ideal factor) and constitutes a certain signemic system.

More specifically the grammatical category is a system of expressing a generalized grammatical meaning by means of paradigmatic correlation of grammatical forms.

The paradigmatic correlations of grammatical forms in a category are exposed by the so - called “grammatical oppositions”.

The opposition (in the linguistic sense) may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the

basis of contrast while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The grammatical categories are better to explain by comparing them with logical categories. The grammatical categories are opposed to logical ones. The logical categories are universal for all the languages. Any meanings can be expressed in any language. For instance there's a logical category of possession. The meaning of possession can be expressed in all the languages, compare: My book (English) - Моя книга (Russian) - Менинг китобим (Uzbek).

As it is seen from the examples the meaning of possession in English and Russian is expressed, by the possessive pronouns (lexical means) while in Uzbek it can be expressed either by the help of a discontinuous morpheme (...нинг ...им) or by one overt morpheme (...им). This category is grammatical in Uzbek but lexical in the other two languages. Thus the universal logical categories can be expressed by grammatical and non - grammatical (lexical, syntactic) means. The grammatical categories are those logical ones that are expressed in languages by constant grammatical means.

The doctrines mentioned above one - side approach to the problem. It is a rather complicated issue in the general linguistics. But unfortunately we don't have universally acknowledged criteria to meet the needs of individual languages.

One of the most consistent theories of the grammatical categories is the one that is suggested by L. Barkhudarov. (2), (3)

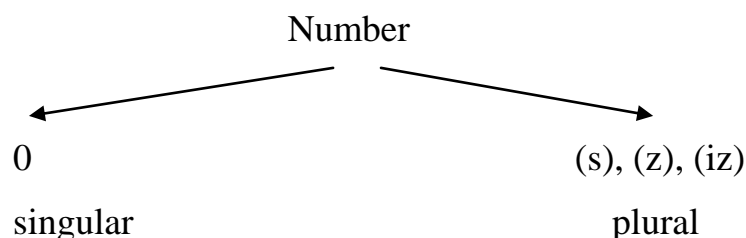
According to his opinion in order to call a linguistic phenomenon a grammatical category there must be the following features:

- general grammatical meaning;
- this meaning must consist of at least two particular meanings;
- the particular meanings must be opposed to each - other:
- the particular meanings must have constant grammatical means to express them.

Thus, any linguistic phenomenon that meets these requirements is called a grammatical category. English nouns have a grammatical category of number. This category has all the requirements that are necessary for a grammatical category:

1. it has general grammatical meaning of number;
2. it consists of two particular meanings; singular and plural;
3. singular is opposed to plural, they are antonymous;
4. singular and plural have their own constant grammatical means:

singular is represented by a zero morpheme and plural has the allomorphs like (s), (z), (iz). There are some other means to express singular and plural in English but they make very small percentage compared with regular means. Schematically this can be shown as follows:



Another example. In English adjectives there's one grammatical category - the degrees of comparison. What features does it have?

1. It has a general grammatical meaning: degrees of comparison;
2. The degrees of comparison consist of three particular meanings: positive, comparative and superlative;
3. They are opposed to each - other;
4. They have their own grammatical means depending on the number of syllables in the word.

If in the category of number of nouns there are two particular meanings, in the grammatical category of degrees of comparison there are three.

Thus, a grammatical category is a linguistic phenomenon that has a general grammatical meaning consisting of at least two particular meanings that are opposed to each - other and that have constant grammatical means of their own to express them.

Answer the following questions

- *What do you understand by “grammatical structure of a language”?*
- *What is the difference between synthetic and analytical languages?*
- *What are the basic grammatical means of the English language?*
- *Describe all the grammatical means of English.*
- *Compare the grammatical structure of English with the grammatical structure of your native language?*
- *What is the difference between lexical and grammatical meanings?*
- *Why do we categorize the grammatical meanings?*
- *Is there one conception of grammatical categories that is shared by all the scientists or are there many approaches?*
- *Whose conceptions on grammatical category do you know?*
- *What are the main requirements for the grammatical category?*
- *Comment the grammatical categories of case of nouns; voice, aspect, order of verbs.*
- *What types of grammatical categories do you know?*

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Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “A history of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
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Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

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0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 4: The problem of parts of speech. Noun. Adjective.

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative-innovative
The plan of the lecture	<p><i>1. Modern criteria on separation words into parts of speech</i></p> <p><i>3. Structural approach on separation words into parts of speech</i></p> <p><i>4. Notional and functional words</i></p> <p><i>5. Noun as an independent part of speech</i></p> <p><i>6. Adjective as an independent part of speech</i></p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the problem of parts of speech of the English language, Noun. Adjective.
<p>Pedagogical tasks:</p> <p>It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.</p>	<p>The results of the lesson:</p> <p>Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics:</p> <p>1) general information about parts of speech.</p> <p>2) information about notional and functional words.</p> <p>3) Noun and Adjective as an</p>

	independent parts of speech information
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic The problem of parts of speech. Noun. Adjective

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Tendency, pre- structural tendency, post-structural	The students take notes of the presented information.

	tendency, declinable, indeclinable, notional, functional etc.	
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 4. THE PROBLEM OF PARTS OF SPEECH

Problems to be discussed

- 1. contemporary criteria for classifying words to parts of speech*
- 2. structural approach to the classification of words (the doctrine of American descriptive School)*
- 3. notional and functional parts of speech*
- 4. nouns as a part of speech*
- 5. the grammatical categories of nouns*
number
case
- 6. the meaning of gender in Modern English*
- 7. gender and sex*
- 8. the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech*
- 9. the types of adjectives*
- 10. the grammatical category of degrees of comparison*
- 11. the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives*
- 12. substantivation of adjectives*

Key words: *Tendency, pre-structural tendency, post-structural tendency, declinable, indeclinable, notional, functional.*

A thorough study of linguistic literature on the problem of English parts of speech enables us to conclude that there were three tendencies in grouping English words into parts of speech or into form classes:

1. Pre - structural tendency;
2. Structural tendency;
3. Post - structural tendency;

1. Pre - structural tendency is characterized by classifying words into word - groups according to their meaning, function and form (H. Sweet, O. Jespersen, O. Curme, B. Ilyish and other grammarians).

2. The second tendency is characterized by classification of words exclusively according to their structural meaning, as per their distribution (Ch. Fries, W. Francis, A. Hill and others).

3. The third one combines the ideas of the two above-mentioned tendencies. They classify words in accord with the meaning, function, form; stem-building means and distribution (or combinability). To this group of scientists we can refer most Russian grammarians such as: Khaimovitch and Rogovskaya (22), L. Barkhudarov and Shteling (4) and others. (25)

One of the central problems of a theoretical Grammar is the problem of parts of speech. There is as yet no generally accepted system of English parts of speech. Now we shall consider conceptions of some grammarians.

H. Sweet's (42) classification of parts of speech is based on the three principles (criteria), namely meaning, form and function. All the words in English he divides into two groups: 1) noun-words: nouns, noun-pronouns, noun-numerals, infinitive, gerund; 2) verbs: finite verbs, verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle)

I. Declinable Adjective words: adjective, adjective pronouns, adjective-numeral, participles

II. Indeclinable: adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection

As you see, the results of his classification, however, reveal a considerable divergence between his theory and practice. He seems to have kept to the form of words. Further, concluding the chapter he wrote: "The distinction between the two classes which for convenience we distinguish as declinable and indeclinable parts of speech is not entirely dependent on the presence or absence of inflection, but really goes deeper, corresponding, to some extent, to the distinction between head-word and adjunct-word. The great majority of the particles are used only as adjunct-words, many of them being only form-words, while declinable words generally stand to the particles in the relation of headwords.

O. Jespersen. (34)

According to Jespersen the division of words into certain classes in the main goes back to the Greek and Latin grammarians with a few additions and modifications.

He argues against those who while classifying words kept to either form or meaning of words, he states that the whole complex of criteria, i.e. form, function and meaning should be kept in view. He gives the following classification:

1. Substantives (including proper names)

2. Adjectives

In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns".

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)

4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids")

5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions- coordinating and subordinating - and interjections).

As it is seen from his classification in practice only one of those features is taken into consideration, and that is primarily form. Classes (1-4) are declinable while particles not. It reminds Sweet's grouping of words. The two conceptions are very similar.

Tanet R. Aiken kept to function only. She has conceived of a six-class system, recognizing the following categories: absolute, verb, complement, modifiers and connectives.

Ch. Fries' (31), (32) classification of words is entirely different from those of traditional grammarians. The new approach - the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution - makes it possible for Fries to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four form - classes, designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of function words, designated by letters. The form-classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call noun and pronouns (1st class), verb (2nd class), adjective and adverbs, though Fries warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms.

The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions but certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. In the following examples:

1. Woggles ugged diggles
2. Uggs woggled diggs
3. Diggles diggled diggles

The woggles, uggs, diggles are "thing", because they are treated as English treats "thing" words - we know it by the "positions" they occupy in the utterances and the forms they have, in contrast with other positions and forms. Those are all structural signals of English. *So Fries comes to the conclusion that a part of speech in English is a functioning pattern.*¹ All words that can occupy the same "set of positions" in the patterns of English single free utterances (simple sentences) must belong to the same part speech.

Fries' test-frame-sentences were the following:

Frame A

The concert was good (always)

Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax (suddenly)

Frame C

The team went there

Fries started with his first test frame and set out to find in his material all the words that could be substituted for the word concert with no change of structural meaning (The materials were some fifty hours of tape-recorded conversations by some three hundred different speakers in which the participants were entirely unaware that their speech was being recorded):

The concert was good

¹ «the difference between nouns and verbs lies not in what kinds of things they stand for, but in what kinds of frames they stand in: *I saw Robert kill Mary. I witnessed the killing of Mary by Robert*” “Language process” Vivien Tartter. N.Y., 1986, p.89

food
coffee
taste.....

The words of this list he called class I words.

The word “was” and all the words that can be used in this position he called class 2 words.

In such a way he revealed 4 classes of notional words and 15 classes of functional words.

These four classes of notional words contain approximately 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary items. In other words our utterances consist primarily of arrangements of these four parts of speech.

Functional words are identified by letters

Class	A	Words
the		concert was good
the	a/an	every
no	my	our
one	all	both
that	some	John's

All the words appearing in this position (Group A) serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners".

The author enumerates fourteen more groups of function words among which we find, according to the traditional terminology

Group B - modal verbs	Group I - interrogative pr-nx and adverbs
Group C - n.p.not	Group J - subordinating conj-s
Group D - adverbs of degree	Group K- interjections
Group E - coordinating conj-s.	Group L- the words yes and no
Group F - prepositions	Group M - attention giving signals look, say, listen
Group G - the aux-v. do	Group N - the word please
Group H - introductory there	Group O - let us, let in request sentences.

The difference between the four classes of words and function words are as follows:

1. The four classes are large in number while the total number of function words amounts to 154.
2. In the four classes the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which these words appear. In the fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meanings which these words signal.
3. Function words must be treated as items since they signal different structural meanings:

The boys were given the money.

The boys have given the money. (32)

Russian grammarians in classifying words into parts of speech keep to different concepts;

A.I. Smirnitsky identifies three criteria. The most important of them is the syntactic function next comes meaning and then morphological forms of words. In his opinion stem-building elements are of no use. His word-groups are:

Notional words

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Numerals
4. Pronouns
5. Adverbs
6. Verbs

Function words

- link - verbs
- prepositions
- conjunctions
- modifying function words
- (article, particle)
- only, even, not

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya identify five criteria

1. Lexico - grammatical meaning of words

2. Lexico - grammatical morphemes (stem - building elements)
3. Grammatical categories of words.
4. Their combinability (unilateral, bilateral)
5. Their function in a sentence.

Their Classification

1. Nouns
2. Adjectives
3. Pronouns
4. Numerals
5. Verbs
6. Adverbs
7. Adlinks (the cat. of state) Ex. asleep, alive
8. Modal words
9. Prepositions
10. Conjunctions
11. Particles (just, yet, else, alone)
12. Interjections
13. Articles
14. Response words (yes, no)

As authors state the parts of speech lack some of those five criteria. The most general properties of parts of speech are features 1, 4 and 5. ***B. A. Ilyish (15) distinguishes three criteria:***

1. meaning; 2. form, 3. function. The third criteria is subdivided into two:
 - a) the method of combining the word with other ones
 - b) the function in the sentence.

a) has to deal with phrases; b) with sentence structure. B. A. Ilyish considers the theory of parts of speech as essentially a part of morphology, involving, however, some syntactical points.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Nouns | 7. Adverbs |
| 2. Adjective | 8. Prepositions |
| 3. Pronoun | 9. Conjunctions |
| 4. Numerals | 10. Particles |
| 5. Statives (asleep, afraid) | 11. Modal words |
| 6. Verbs | 12. Interjections |

L. Barkhudarov, D. Steling (4). Their classification of words are based on four principles. But the important and characteristic feature of their classification is that they do not make use of syntactic function of words in sentences: meaning, grammatical forms, combinability with other words and the types of word - building (which are studied not by grammar, but by lexicology).

1. Nouns
2. Articles
3. Pronouns
4. Adjectives
5. Adverbs
6. Numerals
7. Verbs
8. Prepositions
9. Conjunctions
10. Particles
11. Modal words
12. Interjections

We find another approach of those authors to the words of English.

All the words are divided into two main classes:

notional words and function - words: connectives, determinatives

Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:

1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;
2. determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

The consideration of conceptions of different grammarians shows that the problem of parts of speech is not yet solved. There's one point which is generally accepted: in M-n English there are two classes of words-notional and functional - which are rather distinct.

The Noun

In most cases in treating parts of speech in English we shall keep to the conception of scientists that we refer to post-structural tendency. It's because they combine the ideas of traditional and structural grammarians.

The nouns are classified into a separate word - group because:

1. they all have the same lexical - grammatical meaning :
substance / thing
2. according to their form - they've two grammatical categories:
number and case
3. they all have typical stem-building elements:
- er, - ist, - ship, - merit, -hood ...
4. typical combinability with other words:
most often left-hand combinability
5. function - the most characteristic feature of nouns is - they can be observed in all syntactic functions but predicate.

Some words about the distribution of nouns. Because of the fact that nouns express or denote substance / thing, their distribution is bound with the words which express the quality of substance, their number, their actions and their relation to the other words /nouns/ in English.

When the quality of nouns are described we make use of adjectives:

big, red apple

energetic crisis

a long, dusty track and others.

When the quantity and order of nouns are described the numerals are to be used:

the six continents

25th anniversary

12 students....

When we denote the action of substances we make use of the verbs:

An apple-tree grows in the garden

Russia assisted India in Mounting Bokaro Steel Plant

When the relation of nouns to other words are described we make wide use of prepositions

a window of the school

to the park

at the construction of the bridge

In all these cases with the exception of verbs the noun is characterized with left-hand combinability / in overwhelming majority/. So far as to the verbs are concerned they may both precede and follow them.

The Problems of Number and Case in Modern

English Nouns

Number is a grammatical category of nouns which denotes the number of objects, expressed by a word.

In English there are two numbers: singular and plural. The formal signal of the singular number is a zero morpheme, while the usual signal of plurality -/e/s.

The formation of plural by means -/e/s is considered to be productive, but in Modern English there are some non-productive types of plural number, as for instance:

- a) suffix - en : ox - oxen
- b) variation of vowels in the root of a word:
tooth-teeth; goose-geese; mouse-mice; man-men,
- c) variation of vowels of the root suffix- "ren" children;
- d) homonymous forms for both sing and plural:
sheep – sheep
deer – deer
swine – swine

With regard to the category of number English nouns fall under two sub-classes: countable and uncountable. The latter is again subdivided into those having no plural form and those having no singular. The former type is called Pluralia tantum: clothes, goods, the latter - singularia tantum: milk, water.

The Category of Case in Nouns

The problem of the number of cases in English has given rise to different theories which were based on the different ways of approaching the description of English grammatical structure.

Case is an indication of a relation in which the noun stands to some other word.

H. Sweet's conception of the number of cases in English doubtful. He is not sure whether in English there are five or two cases.

O. Curme distinguishes four cases:

1. Nominative-performs 3 functions:

subject, predicate and direct object

2. Accusative - performs 3 functions: object, adverbial modifier, predicate.

The dog bit my brother /obj./

He stayed an hour /adverbial acc/

I believed to be him /predicate/

3. Dative: When an action directed toward smb:

He makes coat for John.

4. Genitive: girl's ...

O. Jespersen distinguishes two cases: common and genitive.

M. Bryant is of the same opinion:

H. Whitehall distinguishes two cases in nouns on analogy with the pronouns which can substitute for them: nominative and objective.

B.A. Ilyish considers that – 's is no longer a case inflexion in the classical sense of a word. Unlike such classical inflections, -'s may be attached:

a) to adverbs: yesterday's events

b) to a word group: Mary and John's apartment

c) to a whole clause: the man I saw yesterday's son.

Ilyish concludes that the – 's morpheme gradually develops into a "form-word", a kind of particle serving to convey the meanings of belonging, possession”.

G.U. Vorontsova does not recognize -'s as case morpheme. She treats it as a "postposition", "a purely syntactical form - word resembling a preposition", used as a sign of syntactical dependence".

To Khaimovich and Rogovskaya -'s still function as a case morpheme, because:

1. The-'s morpheme is mostly attached to individual nouns, not noun groups /in 96 %/.

2. It's general meaning – “the relation of a noun to another word” - is a typical case meaning.

3. The fact that -'s occurs, as a rule, with a more or less limited group of words bears testimony to its not being a "preposition like form word". The use of the preposition is determined, chiefly by the noun it introduces: on /in/ under the table ...

4. oxen's - cows' /z/, /θ/ and /of/ alternants: identical meanings and in complementary distribution.

5. -'s not a "preposition like word" since it has no vowel as it is found in other prepositions in English.

The Adjectives

Problems to be discussed:

- the characteristic features of the adjectives as a part of speech
- the types of adjectives
- the grammatical category of degrees of comparison
- the means of formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives
- substantivization of adjective Pronouns
- general characteristics of this class of words
- the difference between pronouns and other parts of speech
- the personal pronouns
- the possessive pronouns
- the reflexive pronouns

The characteristic features of the adjective as a part of speech are as follows:

1. their lexical-grammatical meaning of attributes or we may say that they express property of things /persons/;

2. from the morphological view point they have the category of degrees of comparison;

3. from the point of view of their combinability they combine with nouns, as it has already been stated above, they express the properties of things. The words that express things we call nouns. It seems to be important to differentiate the combinability of a word with other words and reference of a word of a part of speech to another part of speech. We put this because adjectives modify nouns but they can combine with adverbs, link verbs and the word "one":

a white horse. The horse is white.

The sun rose red. The sun rose extremely red.

4. the stem-building affixes are: -ful, -less, -ish, -ous, -ive, -ir, un-, -pre-, in- ...;

5. their syntactic functions are: attribute and predicative

It is important to point out that in the function of an attribute the adjectives are in most cases used in pre-position; in post- position they are very seldom: time immemorial; chance to come.

The category of comparison of adjectives shows the absolute or relative quality of a substance.

The Grammatical Category of Degrees of Comparison

Not all the adjectives of the English language have the degrees of comparison. From this point of view they fall under two types:

- 1) comparable adjectives
- 2) non- comparable adjectives

The non-comparable adjectives are relative ones like golden, wooden, silk, cotton, raw and so on.

The comparable ones are qualitative adjectives. The grammatical category of degrees of comparison is the opposition of three individual meanings:

- 1) positive degree
- 2) comparative degree
- 3) superlative degree

The common or basic degree is called positive which is expressed by the absence of a marker. Therefore we say that it is expressed by a zero morpheme. So far as to the comparative and superlative degrees they have special material means. At the same time we'll have to admit that not all the qualitative adjectives form their degrees in the similar way. From the point of view of forming of the comparative and superlative degrees of comparison the qualitative adjectives must be divided into four groups. They are:

1) One and some two syllabic adjectives that form their degrees by the help of inflections - er and -est respectively,

short - shorter - the shortest

strong - stronger - the strongest

pretty - prettier - the prettiest

2) The adjectives which form their degrees by means of root-vowel and final consonant change:

many - more - the most

much - more - the most

little - less - the least

far - further - the furthest

(farther - the farthest)

3) The adjectives that form their degrees by means of suppletion

good - better - the best

bad - worse - the worst

Note: The two adjectives form their degrees by means of suppletion. It concerns only of the comparative degree (good - better; bad - worse). The suppletive degrees of these adjectives are formed by root - vowel and final consonant change (better - the best) and by adding "t" to the form of the comparative degree (in worse - the worst).

4) Many - syllabic adjectives which form their degrees by means of the words "more" and "most":

interesting - more interesting - the most interesting

beautiful - more beautiful - the most beautiful

So far we have not been referring to the works of grammarians on the problem since the opinions of almost all the grammarians coincide on the questions treated. But so far as to the lexical way of expressing the degrees is concerned we find considerable divergence in its treatment. Some authors treat more beautiful, the most beautiful not as a lexical way of formation of the degrees of comparison but as analytical forms. Their arguments are as follows:

1. More and -er identical as to their meaning of “higher degree”;
2. Their distribution is complementary. Together they cover all the adjectives having the degree of comparison.

Within the system of the English Grammar we do not find a category which can be formed at the same time by synthetic and analytical means. And if it is a grammatical category it cannot be formed by several means, therefore we consider it to be a free syntactic unit which consists of an adverb and a noun.

Different treatment is found with regard to the definite and indefinite articles before most: the most interesting book and a most interesting book.

5) Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: One must not forget that more and most are not only word-morphemes of comparison. They can also be notional words. Moreover they are poly- semantic and poly-functional words. One of the meanings of most is “very, exceedingly”. It is in this meaning that the word most is used in the expression a most interesting book”.

As has been stated we do not think that there are two homonymous words: most - functional word; most - notional word.

There is only one word - notional /adverb/ which can serve to express the superlative degree by lexical means and since it's a free combination of three notional words any article can be used according to the meaning that is going to be expressed. The difference in the meaning of the examples above is due to the difference in the means of the definite and indefinite articles. **Substantivization of Adjectives**

As is known adjectives under certain circumstances can be substantivized, i.e. become nouns.

B. Khaimovich states that "when adjectives are converted into nouns they no longer indicate attributes of substances but substances possessing these attributes.

B. Khaimovich speaks of two types of substantivization full and partial. By full substantivization he means when an adjective gets all the morphological features of nouns, like: native, a native, the native, natives. But all the partial substantivization he means when adjectives get only some of the morphological

features of nouns, as far instance, the adjective “rich” having substantivized can be used only with the definite article: the rich.

B. Ilyish is almost of the same opinion: we shall confine ourselves to the statement that these words are partly substantivized and occupy an intermediate position.

More detailed consideration of the problem shows that the rich and others are not partial substantivization. All the substantivized adjectives can be explained within the terms of nouns.

Answer the following questions

- 1. What are the most important characteristic features of adjectives?*
- 2. Why do we have to differentiate the qualitative and relative adjectives?*
- 3. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives formed?*
- 4. What adjectives form their degrees by both inflections and words more and most?*
- 5. Are there adjectives that form their degrees of comparison by means of suppletion?*
- 6. What do you understand by substantivization?*
- 7. Are the words "more" and "most" lexical or grammatical means when, they form the degrees of comparison of adjectives?*
- 8. What adjectives form their comparative and superlative by root-vowel and final-consonant change?*

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Glossary

Function words. *Function words are those which do not have full lexical meaning and cannot be used as an independent part of sentences. According to their function these words, as has been mentioned, are subdivided into connectives and determinatives:*

1. connectives form phrases as to believe in something or as in the hall. To connectives authors refer: prepositions, conjunctions, modal and link verbs;

2.determinatives are words which define the lexical meaning of notional words (they either limit them, or make them more concrete). These words include articles and particles.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “Theoretical grammar of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2

Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 5: Verb as a part of speech in modern English

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<p><i>1. The characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech</i></p> <p><i>2. verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech</i></p> <p><i>3. the types of verbs</i></p> <p><i>4. the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.</i></p>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about verbs of the English language.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) verbs as a part of speech. 2) types of verbs
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional

	materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “Verb as a part of speech in modern English”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Regular verbs. Notional verbs. Function verbs. Link verbs. Modal verbs. Auxiliaries.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.

Stage 5	<p>The lecturer begins his lecture.</p> <p>When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.</p>	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 5. VERB AS A PART OF SPEECH IN MODERN ENGLISH

Problems to be discussed

1. *the characteristic features of verbs as a part of speech*
2. *verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech*
3. *the types of verbs*
4. *the grammatical categories of verbs: voice, mood, tense, number and others.*

Key words: *Regular verbs. Notional verbs. Function verbs. Link verbs. Modal verbs. Auxiliaries.*

Verb as a Part of Speech

Words like *to read, to live, to go, to jump* are called verbs because of their following features.

1. they express the meanings of action and state;
2. they have the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, aspect, voice, mood, order and posteriority most of which have their own grammatical means;
3. the function of verbs entirely depends on their forms: if they in finite form they fulfill only one function – predicate. But if they are in non-finite form then they can fulfill any function in the sentence but predicate; they may be part of the predicate;
4. verbs can combine actually with all the parts of speech, though they do not combine with articles, with some pronouns. It is important to note that the combinability of verbs mostly depends on the syntactical function of verbs in speech;
5. verbs have their own stem-building elements. They are:
postfixes: -fy (simplify, magnify, identify...)
-ize (realize, fertilize, standardize...)

-ate (activate, captivate...)

prefixes: re- (rewrite, restart, replant...)

mis- (misuse, misunderstand, misstate...)

un- (uncover, uncouple, uncrown...)

de- (depose, depress, derange...) and so on.

The Types of Verbs

The classification of verbs can be undertaken from the following points of view:

1) meaning

2) form - formation;

3) function.

I. There are three basic forms of the verb in English: infinitive, past indefinite and PII. These forms are kept in mind in classifying verbs.

II. There are four types of form-formation:

1. affixation: reads, asked, going ...

2. variation of sounds: run – ran, may – might, bring – brought ...

3. suppletive ways: be – is – am – are – was; go – went ...

4. analytical means: shall come, have asked, is helped ...

There are productive and non-productive ways of word-formation in present-day English verbs.

Affixation is productive, while variation of sounds and suppletion are non-productive.

Notional and Functional Verbs

From the point of view of their meaning verbs fall under two groups: notional and functional.

Notional verbs have full lexical meaning of their own. The majority of verbs fall under this group.

Function verbs differ from notional ones of lacking lexical meaning of their own. They cannot be used independently in the sentence; they are used to furnish certain parts of sentence (very often they are used with predicates).

Function verbs are divided into three: link verbs, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs.

Link verbs are verbs which having combined with nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases and so on add to the whole combination the meaning of process.

In such cases they are used as finite forms of the verb they are part of compound nominal predicates and express voice, tense and other categories.

Modal verbs are small group of verbs which usually express the modal meaning, the speaker's attitude to the action, expressed by the notional verb in the sentence. They lack some grammatical forms like infinitive form, grammatical categories and so on. Thus, they do not have all the categories of verbs. They may express mood and tense since they function as parts of predicates. They lack the non-finite forms.

Besides in present-day English there is another group of verbs which are called auxiliaries. They are used to form analytical forms of verbs. Verbs: to be, to do, to have and so on may be included to this group.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

From the point of view of the formation of the Past Tense verbs are classified into two groups:

1) Regular verbs which form their basic forms by means of productive suffixes-(e)d. The majority of verbs refer to this class.

2) Irregular verbs form their basic forms by such non-productive means as:

a) variation of sounds in the root:

should - would - initial consonant change

begin - began - begun - vowel change of the root

catch - caught - root - vowel and final consonant change

spend - spent - spent - final consonant change;

b) suppletion:

be – was / were

go – went

c) unchanged forms:

cast - cast - cast

put - put – put

By suppletion we understand the forms of words derived from different roots.

A. Smirnitsky (20) gives the following conditions to recognize suppletive forms of words;

1. when the meaning of words are identical in their lexical meaning.
2. when they mutually complement one another, having no parallel opposeemes.
3. when other words of the same class build up a given opposeemes without suppletivity, i.e. from one root. Thus, we recognize the words *be - am, bad - worse* as suppletive because they express the same grammatical meanings as the forms of words: *light – lighter, big – bigger, work – worked*.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

Verbs can also be classified from the point of view of their ability of taking objects. In accord with this we distinguish two types of verbs: transitive and intransitive. The former type of verbs are divided into two:

- a) verbs which are combined with direct object: to have a book to find the address
- b) verbs which take prepositional objects: to wait for, to look at, talk about, depend on...

To the latter type the following verbs are referred:

- a) verbs expressing state: be, exist, live, sleep, die ...
- b) verbs of motion: go, come, run, arrive, travel ...
- c) verbs expressing the position in space: lie, sit, stand ...

As has been told above in actual research work or in describing linguistic phenomena we do not always find hard-and-fast lines separating one phenomenon

from the other. In many cases we come across an intermediate stratum. We find such stratum between transitive and intransitive verbs which is called causative verbs, verbs intransitive in their origin, but some times used as transitive: *to fly a kite, to sail a ship, to nod approval ...*

The same is found in the construction "cognate object": *to live a long life, to die the death of a hero ...*

The Grammatical Categories of Verbs

Grammatical categories of verbs

In this question we do not find a generally accepted view-point. B.A. Ilyish (15) identifies six grammatical categories in present-day English verb: **tense, aspect, mood, voice, person and number**.

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

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

Two of them-voice (ask - be asked), order (ask - have asked) are found in all the verbids, and the third aspect (ask - to be asking) – only in the infinitive.

They distinguish the following grammatical categories: **voice, order, aspect, mood, posteriority, person, number**.

The Category of Voice

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

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

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

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

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

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

I was asked 3 questions by the examiner.

Three questions were asked by the examiner.

Words me and three questions are called retained objects.

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

H. Whitehall (43)

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

Different treatment of the problem is found in theoretical courses written by Russian grammarians

The most of them recognize the existence of the category of voice in present-day English. To this group of scientists we refer A.I. Smirnitsky (20), L. Barkhudarov, L. Steling (14), Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's (22) according to their opinion there are two active and passive voices. But some others maintain that there are three voices in English. Besides the two mentioned they consider the reflexive voice which is expressed by the help of semantically weakened self-pronouns as in the sentence:

He cut himself while shaving.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

To ask- to be asked

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

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

Different opinions are observed as to the P II.

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

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

- 1) it does not convey the idea of action, but that of state, the result of an action:
- 2) The sentence correspond rather *He has fulfilled his duty*, as the perfective meaning of Participle II is particularly prominent.

The Grammatical Category of Mood

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

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

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

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

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

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

Thought -form fact mood

The thought- form is divided into 3 moods:

1. conditional mood-the combination of should and would with the infinitive, when used in the principle clause of conditional sentences.
2. permissive mood-the combination of may/might with the infinitive.
3. compulsive mood-the combination of the finite form of the verb "to be" with the supine. If it were to rain I do not know what shall we do.

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

He distinguishes three moods:

1. Indicative Mood. This form represents something as a fact, or as in close relation with reality, or in interrogative form inquires after a fact.
2. Subjunctive Mood. There are two entirely different kinds of subjunctive forms: the old simple subjunctive and newer forms consisting of a modal auxiliary and a dependent infinitive of the verb to be used.
3. The function of the Subjunctive is to represent something not as an actual reality, but as formed in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, thought, sometimes with more or less hope of realization. The present subjunctive is associated with the idea of hopelessness, likelihood, while the past subjunctive indicates doubt, unlikelihood, unreality;

I desire that he go at once.

I fear he may come too late.

I would have bought it if I had had money.

Mood is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action expressed by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view. The three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive are found in almost all the

grammars of Russian grammarians. We say «almost» because Barkhudarov and Steling (4) consider only the first and third.

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

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

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

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

According to Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) the grammarians are unanimous about the meaning of the Subjunctive Mood. While in all other respects opinions differ. It seems interesting to compare the opinions of Whitehall (43) (above) and Khaimovich on the problem: “The system of the subjunctive mood in Modern English has been and still is in a state of development. There are many elements in it which are rapidly falling into disuse and there are new elements coming into use”.

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

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

Other Categories of the Verbs

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

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

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

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

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

present perfect = preterite κ preterite;

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

future perfect = pre - future κ future

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

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

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

He will have informed his friends by the time they (the quests) arrived.

He had informed his friends when the quests arrived.

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

I have lived my life.

I have lived here a good many years.

The first is complete and second is incomplete. As one can see there's no difference in the form of verbs. He makes his division because of different distribution of the tense forms. But one point is clear in his conception. He considers continuous tense to be also incomplete as for instance:

The clock is striking twelve while.

The clock has struck twelve. (complete)

Continuous Tenses are opposed to Point-Tenses:

I've been writing letters all day.

We set out for Germany.

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

He goes to Germany twice a year.

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

I write my letters in the evenings.

I am writing a letter.

Q. Jespersen (34):

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

A_____O_____C

A

Before past	Past	After past
-------------	------	------------

B

Present

Future

Before future	Future	After future
---------------	--------	--------------

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

I work - I have worked.

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

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

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

Present: I work – I am working

Past: I worked – I was working.

Future: I'll work – I'll be working.

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

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

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

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

The Category of Posteriority

This category is distinguished by B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya. As they put it this category is the system of two member opposition: *shall come* - *should come*. *will come* - *would come*

their meaning is: **absolute and relative** posteriority.

When posteriority is expressed in relation to the moment of speech it is called absolute. If posteriority is with regard to some other moment then it is relative.

If we accept this category, according to the definition of the grammatical category it is expressed by auxiliary verbs shall and will for absolute posteriority and should and would for relative. Shall and will cannot denote at the same time, two meanings: those of tense and posteriority, if in this case - there are two meanings then we must admit that the auxiliaries will- would, shall-should consist of two morphemes each. Applying the usual procedure we cut the words into w-ill and w-ould; sh-all and sh-ould; w-w and sh-sh are combined into morphemes of tense, and ill-all as allmorphs of the morpheme of absolute posteriority while ould-ould - as morpheme of relative posteriority.

The Categories of Number and Person

The category of person is the system of two member opposition. It is available only in the Present Tense in singular number. B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that “the third person with a positive morpheme being opposed to the first person with a zero morpheme”. In the future tense sh- of the first person is opposed to w- of the second and third persons.

A similar treatment of the problem is observed in works of L.S. Barkhudarov (2), (4), who opposes third person to the common person (1st, 2nd persons) because “almost all the verbs in the 1st and 2nd persons have a zero marker”.

So far as to the category of number is concerned many grammarians consider that it is in its purity represented only in the verb “to be”, for other verbs the opposition of the 3rd person singular, to 3rd person plural accepted (in the present-tense).

Self control questions

- 1. What are the most important features of verbs?*
- 2. Why do some scientists say that verbs are "System of systems"?*
- 3. Why do they say that verbs are morphologically most developed part of speech?*

4. *What are the criteria for classification of verbs?*
5. *What is the difference between finite and non-finite forms of the verb?*
6. *What verbs are called non-finite?*
7. *What verbs are called irregular?*
8. *How many basic forms of the verb do you know?*
9. *What is the difference between terminative and non-terminative verbs?*
10. *What is the difference between notional and functional verbs?*
11. *What functional verbs do you know?*
12. *What is the difference between auxiliary and link-verbs?*
13. *What are the peculiar features of modal verbs? Why are they called defective?*
14. *How many grammatical categories of the verb do you know?*
15. *Which grammatical category of the verb is the most intricate and why?*
16. *Do English verbs have the reciprocal and reflexive voices?*

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Glossary

1.Regular verbs. Regular verbs which form their basic forms by means of productive suffixes-(e)d. The majority of verbs refer to this class.

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6.Auxiliaries. In present-day English there is another group of verbs which are called auxiliaries. They are used to form analytical forms of verbs. Verbs: to be, to do, to have and so on may be included to this group.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject "Theoretical grammar of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of	Points	Total number
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		evaluations		of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 6: The subject matter of the “Adverbs. Statives. Pronouns”

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>what words are called adverbs</i> 2. <i>the types of adverbs</i> 3. <i>the grammatical category of degrees of comparison of adverbs</i> 4. <i>what words are called statives Why are they called so</i> 5. <i>pronouns</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about Adverbs, Statives, Pronouns.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) general information about Adverbs.. 2) information about Statives. 3) information about Pronouns .
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts,

	posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Lecture 6. ADVERBS. STATIVES. PRONOUNS

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Statives, adverbs, types of adverbs, circumstantial, qualitative, quantitative, pronouns, etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his	The students attentively

	<p>lecture.</p> <p>When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.</p>	<p>listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.</p>
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 6. ADVERBS. STATIVES. PRONOUNS

Problems to be discussed

1. *what words are called adverbs*
2. *the types of adverbs*
3. *the grammatical category of degrees of comparison of adverbs*
4. *what words are called statives Why are they called so*
5. *pronouns*

Key words: *Statives, adverbs, types of adverbs, circumstantial, qualitative, quantitative, pronouns, etc.*

The adverb is separated into a special part of speech because of the following facts:

1. Meaning: they express the degree of a property, property of an action, circumstances under which an action takes place.
2. Form: they have the degrees of comparison.
3. Stem-building elements: - ly, -ways, -wards, ...
4. Combinability: bilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks: e.g. He was hard asleep.
5. Function: Adverbial modifiers.

According to the meaning adverbs fall under three subclasses:

1. qualitative
2. quantitative
3. circumstantial

Qualitative adverbs usually modify verbs.

Adverbs like: badly, quickly, slowly, steadily, comparatively may be referred **to** this type of adverbs.

They denote the quality of actions:

Ex: Clay collapsed on the sand beside Cathie, a wet arm playfully snatching her towel away.

I want to go home, she said determinedly.

The Qualitative adverbs are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix – ly. Like adjectives the qualitative adverbs have distinctions of degree. These adverbs can both precede and follow the verbs.

Quantitative adverbs show the degree, measure, quantity of an action and state. To this subclass adverbs like *very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly,*

quite, utterly may be referred. Ex. She had told herself before that it would be foolish to fall in love with Rob. And she had finally done it.

Her gaze trailed around the room again, stopping at the partially opened double doors that led into the parlour.

Some part of her was walking with him because of that strange, intimate look they had exchanged – a look that Cathie would rather forget, but warmth was too fresh. J. Daiby.

If the combinability of the qualitative adverbs is bound with verbs only the combinability of the quantitative adverbs are more extensive: they can modify verbs, the words of category of state, adjectives, adverbs, numerals and nouns.

Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote in most cases local and temporal circumstances attending an action. Accordingly they are divided into two groups:

a) adverbs of time and frequency /today, tomorrow, often, again, twice .../.

b) adverbs of place and direction: upstairs, behind, in front of, ... Ex. They stood outside the door, giving me directions. Now and then they deliberately refused to jump up and find himself something to do when the unpleasant sensations clutched at him.

She waited in front of the window and when he came down he thrust a small dark blue box into her hands. L.Wright

Thus, circumstantial adverbs denote the time and place the action took place. Therefore unlike the previous subclasses the circumstantial adverbs can occupy any position in the sentence.

Some circumstantial adverbs can have the degrees of comparison: often, late, near and so on.

Special attention should be given to the fact that some circumstantial adverbs may be preceded by prepositions: from now on, up to now, from there and so on.

The So-Called Phrasal Verbs

One of the fundamental problems within the adverbs is the problem connected with such groups of verbs as: to give in, to get down, to dream about and so on. In most cases the meaning of such groups as above does not depend on the meaning of their components. The thing here is: are the second elements prepositions, adverbs or some other parts of speech? This problem has become acute in Modern English.

The prevailing view here is that they are adverbs. But there are other views like Palmer's – "prepositions like adverbs"; Amosova's "postpositives" (1), Ilyish's "half-word, half-morphemes" (15) and so on. None of these suggestions can be accepted. They are not adverbs because other adverbs do not fulfill such functions, i.e. they do not change the meaning of the preceding word; they are not postpositives, because postpositives in other languages do not serve to build new words, and at last they are not grammatical morphemes and consequently the whole group can not be a word since in English no discontinuous word is found as, for instance, bring them up. The word them breaks the unity. The problem remains unsolved. For the time being, the most acceptable theory is the theory expressed by B.A. Ilyish in his latest grammar. He refers them very cautiously, with doubts, to phraseology and thus it should be the subject-matter of the lexicology.

Some foreign Grammarians (28), (37) give different treatment to phrasal verbs. According to their opinion phrasal verb is an umbrella term for different kinds of multi – word verbs (including phrasal – prepositional and prepositional verbs). Such verbs are of typical and frequent occurrence in all types of English, but most especially in every day spoken English.

Phrasal verbs are often of particular difficulty experienced by learners of English. There are several reasons for this. One reason is that in many cases, even though students may be familiar with both the verb in phrasal verb and with the particle, they may not understand the meaning of the combination, since it can differ greatly from the meanings of the two words used independently. The fact that phrasal verbs often have a number of different meanings adds to this complexity additional difficulty.

There are some particular grammatical problems associated with phrasal verbs. For example, there are restrictions on the positions in which an adverb can be placed in relation to the object of a verb. Some particles, such as *about*, *over*, *round* and *through* can be used as both adverbs and prepositions in particular phrasal verbs combinations, although in other combinations they are used either as adverb or preposition. Some phrasal verbs are not normally used with pronouns as objects, others are normally used with pronouns as objects.

There are other difficulties such as the fact that there are frequently strong collocation associations between phrasal verbs and other words. Thus, in some cases a particular word or small set of words is the only one normally found as the subject or object of a particular verb.

According to our classification all phrasal verbs fall under 3 main types (and 6 subtypes-from the viewpoint of verb transitivity):

1. free nonidiomatic constructions, where the individual meaning of the components are preserved as in look over (=inspect), set up (=organize). The individuality of the components appears in possible contrastive substitutions: *bring in* (*out*), *take in* (*out*) etc.

2. “Semi-idiomatic” constructions which are variable but in a more limited way. The relation between the verb and particle is similar to between a stem and an affix in form formation in that the substitution of one verb for another, or one particle for another, is constrained by limited productivity. In phrasal verbs like *find over* (“discover”), *cut up* “cut into pieces” the verb keeps its meaning, whereas the meaning of the particle is less easy to isolate. In contrast, it is the particle which establishes a family resemblance.

3. “Highly idiomatic” constructions such as *bring up*, *come by*, *turn up*. These are thoroughly idiomatic in that there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: *bring up/down*, *come by /past/through*, *turn up/ down*, etc.

In such combinations there is no possibility of contrastive substitution: there are no pairs such as *bring up/down*, *put off/on*, *give up/down*, *give in/out*, etc. for

this subclass. The adverbial, lexical values of the particles have been lost, and the entire verb+particle combination has acquired a new meaning.

It is often said that phrasal verbs tend to be rather colloquial or informal and more appropriate to spoken English than written, and even that it is better to avoid them and choose single – word equivalents or synonyms instead. Yet in many cases phrasal verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single – word synonym cannot be substituted appropriately for a phrasal verb. Single – word synonyms are often much more formal in style than phrasal verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts, and students using them run the risk of sounding pompous or just unnatural. Besides, these are phrasal verbs, like get away with and run of, which do not have one word paraphrases. Second, these are nonidiomatic combinations, such as go across (= cross), go past (=pass), and sail around (=circumnavigate) which do have such paraphrases.

The set of English phrasal verbs is constantly growing and changing. New combinations appear and spread. Yet these new combinations are rarely made on a random basis, but from patterns which can to some extent be anticipated. Particles often have particular meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations, and which are productive; that is these fixed meanings are used in order to new combinations.

The Collins COBUILD Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (45) list over three thousand combinations of verbs with adverbs or prepositions, explaining over five and a half thousand different meanings.

These are the combinations which are in common use in everyday modern English.

Statives or The Words of Category of State

In English there is a certain class of words which are still disputable.

In works of foreign grammarians they are not considered to be a separate part of speech. Some dictionaries published in the United Kingdom and the USA refer them to predicatives. It is well-known that no grammarians mention this kind of part of speech. To this class of words we include aboard, alive, asleep, afraid, aghast, awake and so on.

Some Russian scientists regard them as a separate part of speech.

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya call them adlinks on the analogy of adverbs. These words can be viewed as a part of speech because of their following features:

1. meaning they denote: state
2. stem building morpheme: it is formed by the help of productive prefixal morpheme /a-/
3. combinability: these words are exclusively combined with the link-verb to be and adverbs
4. Syntactic function: they are always used as predicatives.

They do not have any grammatical category and this is the only feature of them which differ them from other parts of speech /notional parts are meant/: This part of speech can't be mixed up with adjectives or adverbs as some linguists do, because they do not possess the degrees of comparison and their combinability is different.

“A-“ component homonymically combines in itself the functions of prefix, preposition and article.

6. the prefix a- can express the meanings of prepositions: away, on, up, out.

She is asleep – She is sleeping /on/. He has gone to the shore – He is ashore.

This part of speech seems to be more economical as it is seen from the examples above. Therefore it may be one of the reasons of its wide usage in Modern English.

The Pronouns

Pronouns are grouped into one part of speech because of their meaning which is extremely general.

Pronouns are serving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances and so on not by naming or describing them, but by indicating them.

We can't apply the five grouping-requirements for classifying the pronouns as a separate part of speech.

Despite of the meaning of pronouns we can't of the unity of all the words as belonging to and the same part of speech.

From the morphological view-point we can say that they have the case category, but even in this respect we'll have to divide all the pronouns into three groups: pronouns which have nominative and objective case system, pronouns that have common and genitive case system and pronouns that have no case system at all.

Therefore Khaimovich and Rogovskaya do not treat pronouns as a separate part of speech. They treat them as a collection of words correlated with different parts of speech, which accounts for their not being as a separate part of speech. Now we'll get down to some peculiar features of pronouns.

1. Morphological features.

1) the case in pronouns.

There two case systems in pronouns:

a) the first case system, is opposition between nominative and objective forms: nominative: I, you, he, it, we, you, who... Objective: me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them, whom... As is seen no common marker is found to form the objective case form. Here we find three types of form-changing out of five possible in Modern English: 1) affixation: he-him, they-them, who-whom, 2) homonymous forms: you- you, it-it, 3) suppletion: I-me, she-her, we-us.

b) the second case system, is opposition between common and genitive cases: each other- each other's, one another- one another. In this case pronouns share the case system of nouns.

The Number

Only demonstrative pronouns have the grammatical category of number: this-these. It is difficult to state personal pronouns have such category, though it has distinct singular and plural opposition: *sing.* I, he, she, it, you, *pl.* we, they, you.

Types of Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns have developed from the personal pronouns.

There two types of possessive pronouns: conjoint: my, your, his, her, it, our, their, absolute: mine, yours, hers, his, its, ours, theirs.

Modern English language do not make difference in gender. Only due to the 3th singular of personal pronouns:

Masculine he

Feminine she

Neuter it

Classification of Pronouns

On the problem of classification of pronouns opinions differ. In L. Barkhudarov`s grammar we find 9 types while Khaimovich and Rogovskaya`s book there 12 and so on. Among them personal, possessive, demonstrative, intensive, indefinite, relative, reflexive and so on.

Answer the following questions

7. *What words are called statives? Why are they called so?*
8. *There`s no unanimously accepted conception on this group of words, why?*
9. *What is the main difference between statives and other notional parts of speech?*
10. *Are there any other terms that name this group of words?*
11. *Why are these words develop so fastly?*
12. *How are these words translated in your native language?*
13. *What are the main features of adverbs?*
14. *Why the term “adverb” chosen to name this group of words?*
15. *What sub-types of adverbs do you know?*

16. *Do adverbs have any grammatical category? If the answer is positive which adverbs have it?*
17. *Why do some grammarians consider such verbal phrases as “give up”, “dream about” within the adverbs?*
18. *What is the main problem within this group of words?*
19. *Morphological features of pronouns?*
20. *What types of pronouns do you know?*

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Glossary

1. **statives.** *Statives can be viewed as a part of speech because of their following features:*
 - a. *meaning they denote: state*
 - b. *stem building morpheme: it is formed by the help of productive prefixal morpheme /a-/*

- c. *combinability*: these words are exclusively combined with the link-verb to be and adverbs
- d. *Syntactic function*: they are always used as predicatives.
2. **adverb**. Adverb is separated into a special part of speech because of the following facts:
- a. *Meaning*: they express the degree of a property, property of an action, circumstances under which an action takes place.
- b. *Form*: they have the degrees of comparison.
- c. *Stem-building elements*: -ly, -ways, -wards, ...
- d. *Combinability*: bilateral combinability with verbs, adjectives, adverbs, less regularly with adlinks: e.g. He was hard asleep.
- e. *Function*: Adverbial modifiers.phrase.
3. **types of adverbs**. According to the meaning adverbs fall under three subclasses:
- a. *qualitative*
- b. *quantitative*
- c. *circumstantial*. The Qualitative adverbs are derived from the adjectives by the help of productive adverb forming suffix – ly. Like adjectives the qualitative adverbs have distinctions of degree. These adverbs can both precede and follow the verbs.
- Quantitative adverbs show the degree, measure, quantity of an action and state. To this subclass adverbs like very, rather, too, nearly, greatly, fully, hardly, quite, utterly may be referred. Ex. She had told herself before that it would be foolish to fall in love with Rob. And she had finally done it.*
- Circumstantial adverbs serve to denote in most cases local and temporal circumstances attending an action.*
- 3.**Pronouns**. Pronouns are serving to denote substances, qualities, quantities, circumstances and so on not by naming or describing them, but by indicating them.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “Theoretical grammar of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2

Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 7: Modern English syntax and sentence

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Informative
The plan of the lecture	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Subject - matter of syntax</i> 2. <i>Syntax-minor and syntax-major</i> 3. <i>The types of syntactical relations</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) <i>coordination</i> b) <i>subordination</i> c) <i>predication: primary and secondary predication</i> 4. <i>The types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) <i>agreement</i> b) <i>government</i> c) <i>collocation</i> 5. <i>Traditional and cognitive approach in syntax</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about the syntax and sentence of the English language.

Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) English syntax 2) sentence of the English language
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “Modern English syntax and sentence”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces	The students take notes of

	<p>general notions and terms used in the lecture:</p> <p>syntagmatic,</p> <p>paradigmatic,</p> <p>coordination,</p> <p>subordination, predication etc.</p>	the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	<p>The lecturer begins his lecture.</p> <p>When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.</p>	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the

		lecture room.
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Lecture 7 MODERN ENGLISH SYNTAX AND SENTENCE

Problems to be discussed

1. *subject - matter of syntax*
2. *syntax-minor and syntax-major*
3. *the types of syntactical relations: a) coordination, b) subordination, c) predication: primary and secondary predication*
4. *the types of syntactical relations according to the form of the constituents:*
 - a) *agreement,*
 - b) *government*
 - c) *collocation*
5. *word-combinations and their types*
6. *definition of sentence*
7. *the types of sentences according to the different grouping requirements*
8. *the problem of one-member sentences*
9. *the problem of elliptical sentences*

Key words: *syntax, paradigmatic, syntagmatic, subordination, coordination, predication, sentence*

The Subject – Matter of Syntax

It has been mentioned above that the syntactic level is divided into two parts: syntax – minor and syntax – major. The first one deals with sentence structure and the second – with text and its structure. These units, sentence and text, have a communicative function. The subject-matter of syntax are these communicative units: sentence and text.

The Types of Linguistic Relations Between Words

There are two types of relations between words in languages: paradigmatic and syntagmatic.

1) paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.

a) asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common *-ing* ending);

b) ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem “ask” is common);

2) Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech.

Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.

Types of Syntactic Relations

L. Barkhudarov (3) distinguishes three basic types of syntactical bond: subordination, co-ordination, predication.

Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.

The criteria for identification of head-word and adjunct is the substitution test. Example:

1) A tall boy came in.

2) A boy came in.

3) Tall came in.

Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words:

4) Pens and pencils were purchased.

5) Pens were purchased.

6) Pencils were purchased.

Since both (5), (6) sentences show identical meaning we may say that these two words are independent: coordination is proved.

Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence. In predication none of the components can be omitted which is the characteristic feature of this type of connection, as e.g.

- 7) He came ...
- 8) *He ...
- 9) * ... came or
- 10) I knew he had come
- 11) * I knew he
- 12) * I knew had come

Sentences (8), (9) and (11), (12) are unmarked ones.

H. Sweet (42) distinguishes two types of relations between words: subordination, coordination. Subordination is divided in its turn into concord when head and adjunct words have alike inflection, as it is in phrases this pen or these pens; and government when a word assumes a certain grammatical form through being associated with another word:

13) I see him, here "him" is in the objective case-form. The transitive verbs require the personal pronouns in this case.

14) I thought of him. "him" in this sentence is governed by the preposition "of". Thus, "see" and "of" are the words that governs while "him" is a governed word.

B. Ilyish (15) also distinguishes two types of relations between words: agreement by which he means "a method of expressing a syntactical relationship, which consists in making the subordinate word take a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinated". Further he states: "the sphere of agreement in Modern English is extremely small. It is restricted to two pronouns-this and that ..." government ("we understand the use of a certain form of the subordinate word required by its head word, but not coinciding with the form of the head word itself-that is the difference between agreement and government")

e.g. Whom do you see

This approach is very close to Sweet's conception.

E. Kruisinga (36) considers two types of word-groups: close and loose.

I. Close group - when one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the group. There may be verb groups like *running quickly*, *to hear a noise* and nouns groups: *King Edward*, *my book*

II. Loose group - when each element is comparatively independent of the other members: *men and woman*; *strict but just* and so on.

Thus, if we choose the terms suggested by Barkhudarov L.S., then we may say all grammarians mentioned here are unanimous as to the existence in English the subordination and coordination bonds. In addition to these two bonds Barkhudarov adds the predication. So when speaking on the types of syntactic connections in English we shall mean the three bonds mentioned.

As one can see that when speaking about syntactic relations between words we mention the terms coordination, subordination, predication, agreement and government. It seems that it is very important to differentiate the first three terms (coordination, subordination and predication) from the terms agreement and government, because the first three terms define the types of syntactical relations from the standpoint of dependence of the components while the second ones define the syntactic relations from the point of view of the correspondence of the grammatical forms of their components. Agreement and government deals with only subordination and has nothing to do with coordination and predication. Besides agreement and government there is one more type of syntactical relations which may be called collocation when head and adjunct words are connected with each-other not by formal grammatical means (as it is the case with agreement and government but by means of mere collocation, by the order of words and by their meaning as for example: *fast food*, *great day*, *sat silently* and so on).

The grammatical structure of language comprises two major parts - morphology and syntax. The two areas are obviously interdependent and together they constitute the study of grammar.

Morphology deals with paradigmatic and syntagmatic properties of morphological units - morphemes and words. It is concerned with the internal structure of words and their relationship to other words and word forms within the paradigm. It studies morphological categories and their realization.

Syntax, on the other hand, deals with the way words are combined. It is concerned with the external functions of words and their relationship to other words within the linearly ordered units - word-groups, sentences and texts. Syntax studies the way in which the units and their meanings are combined. It also deals with peculiarities of syntactic units, their behavior in different contexts.

Syntactic units may be analyzed from different points of view, and accordingly, different syntactic theories exist.

Transformational-Generative Grammar. The Transformational grammar was first suggested by American scholar Zellig Harris as a method of analyzing sentences and was later elaborated by another American scholar Noam Chomsky as a synthetic method of 'generating' (constructing) sentences. The main point of the Transformational-Generative Grammar is that the endless variety of sentences in a language can be reduced to a finite number of kernels by means of transformations. These kernels serve the basis for generating sentences by means of syntactic processes. Different language analysts recognize the existence of different number of kernels (from 3 to 39). The following 6 kernels are commonly associated with the English language:

- (1) NV -*John sings.*
- (2) NV Adj. - *John is happy.*
- (3) NVN -*John is a man.*
- (4) NVN -*John hit the man.*
- (5) NVNN -*John gave the man a book.*
- (6) NVPrep.N - *The book is on the table.*

It should be noted that (3) differs from (4) because the former admits no passive transformation.

Transformational method proves useful for analysing sentences from the

point of their deep structure:

Flying planes can be dangerous.

This sentence is ambiguous, two senses can be distinguished: a) the action of flying planes can be dangerous, b) the planes that fly can be dangerous. Therefore it can be reduced to the following kernels:

a) *Planes can be dangerous* b) *Planes can be dangerous*

X (people) fly planes *Planes fly*

Constructional Syntax. Constructional analysis of syntactic units was initiated by Prof. G .Pocheptsov in his book published in Kyiv in 1971. This analysis deals with the constructional significance/insignificance of a part of the sentence for the whole syntactic unit. The theory is based on the obligatory or optional environment of syntactic elements. For example, the element *him* in the sentence *I saw him there yesterday* is constructionally significant because it is impossible to omit it. At the same time the elements *there* and *yesterday* are constructionally insignificant - they can be omitted *without* destroying the whole structure.

Communicative Syntax. It is primarily concerned with the analysis of utterances from the point of their communicative value and informative structure. It deals with the actual division of the utterance - the theme and rheme analysis. Both the theme and the rheme constitute the informative structure of utterances. The theme is something that is known already while the rheme represents some new information. Depending on the contextual informative value any sentence element can act as the theme or the rheme:

Who is at home? - John is at home. Where is John? - John is at home.

Pragmatic approach to the study of syntactic units can briefly be described as the study of the way language is used in particular contexts to achieve particular goals. Speech Act Theory was first introduced by John Austin. The notion of a speech act presupposes that an utterance can be said with different intentions or purposes and therefore can influence the speaker and situation in different ways:

It's cold here

I just state the fact;
I want you to do something about it (close the window);
I'm threatening you;
I'm seeking for an excuse for not doing something;
I want you to feel guilty of it;
Etc.

Accordingly, we can distinguish different speech acts.

Of special interest here is the problem of indirect speech acts: *Are you leaving already?* In our everyday activities we use indirect speech acts rather willingly because it is the best way to influence people, to get what we want and to be polite at the same time.

Text linguistics studies the text as a syntactic unit, its main features and peculiarities, different ways of its analysis.

Discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication.

Syntactic notions

The syntactic language level can be described with the help of special linguistic terms and notions: *syntactic unit*, *syntactic form*, *syntactic meaning*, *syntactic function*, *syntactic position*, and *syntactic relations*.

Syntactic unit is always a combination that has at least two constituents. The basic syntactic units are a word-group, a clause, a sentence, and a text. Their main features are:

a) they are hierarchical units - the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level;

b) as all language units the syntactic units are of two-fold nature:

	content side		syntactic meaning
Syntactic unit =	_____	=	_____
	expression side		syntactic form

c) they are of communicative and non-communicative nature - word-groups

and clauses are of non-communicative nature while sentences and texts are of communicative nature.

Syntactic meaning is the way in which separate word meanings are combined to produce meaningful word-groups and sentences.

Green ideas sleep furiously. This sentence is quite correct grammatically. However it makes no sense as it lacks syntactic meaning.

Syntactic form may be described as the distributional formula of the unit (pattern). *John hits the ball*- NI κ V κ N2.

Syntactic function is the function of a unit on the basis of which it is included to a larger unit: in the word-group *a smart student* the word 'smart' is in subordinate attributive relations to the head element. In traditional terms it is used to denote syntactic function of a unit within the sentence (subject, predicate, etc.).

Syntactic position is the position of an element. The order of constituents in syntactic units is of principal importance in analytical languages. The syntactic position of an element may determine its relationship with the other elements of the same unit: *his broad **back**, a **back** district, to go **back**, to **back** sm.*

Syntactic relations are syntagmatic relations observed between syntactic units. They can be of three types - coordination, subordination and predication.

The syntactic units can go into three types of syntactic relations.

1. **Coordination (SR1)** - syntagmatic relations of independence. SRI can be observed on the phrase, sentence and text levels. Coordination may be symmetric and asymmetric. Symmetric coordination is characterized by complete interchangeability of its elements - *pens and pencils*. Asymmetric coordination occurs when the position of elements is fixed: *ladies and gentlemen*. Forms of connection within SRI may be copulative (*you and me*), disjunctive (*you or me*), adversative (*strict but just*) and causative-consecutive (sentence and text level only).

2. **Subordination (SR2)** - syntagmatic relations of dependence. SR2 are established between the constituents of different linguistic rank. They are observed on the phrase and sentence level. Subordination may be of three different kinds -

adverbial (*to speak slowly*), objective (*to see a house*) and attributive (*a beautiful flower*). Forms of subordination may also be different - agreement (*this book - these books*), government (*help us*), adjournment (the use of modifying particles *just, only, even, etc.*) and enclosure (the use of modal words and their equivalents *really, after all, etc.*).

3. **Predication (SR3)** - syntagmatic relations of interdependence. Predication may be of two kinds primary (sentence level) and secondary (phrase level). Primary predication is observed between the subject and the predicate of the sentence while secondary predication is observed between non-finite forms of the verb and nominal elements within the sentence. Secondary predication serves the basis for gerundial, infinitive and participial word-groups (predicative complexes).

SYNTAX AND ITS MAIN UNITS.

TRADITIONAL AND COGNITIVE APPROACHES IN SYNTAX

- I. Syntax as part of grammar. The main units of syntax.
- II. Traditional and cognitive understanding of syntax.
- III. The basic principles and arguments of the cognitive linguistics.
- IV. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterning.

I. Syntax as part of grammar. The main units of syntax.

Syntax as part of grammar analyses the rules of combining words into phrases, sentences and supra-sentential constructions or texts.

The rules of combinability of linguistic units are connected with the most general and abstract parts of content of the elements of language. These parts of content together with the formal means of their expression are treated as “grammatical categories”. In syntax, they are, for instance, the categories of communicative purpose or emphasis, which are actualized by means of word-order. Thus, word-order (direct or indirect), viewed as a grammatical form, expresses the difference

between the central idea of the sentence and the marginal idea, between emotive and unemotive modes of speech, e.g.:

In the center of the room stood the old man.

The word arrangement in this sentence expresses a narrative description with the central informative element placed in the strongest position, i.e. at the end.

Thus, grammatical elements of language present a unity of content and expression (i.e. a unity of form and meaning). Accordingly, the purpose of Modern Grammar, and Syntax in particular, is to disclose and formulate the rules of the correspondence between the plane of content and the plane of expression in the process of utterance-formation.

The main units of syntax are phrases and sentences.

The phrase is a combination of two or more notional words which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word. The main difference between the phrase and the sentence is in their linguistic function. The phrase is a nominative unit, the sentence is a predicative one.

Nomination is naming things and their relations. A nominative unit simply names something known to everybody or a majority of native language speakers, recalling it from their memory, e.g.: a book, a departure. A phrase represents an object of nomination as a complicated phenomenon, be it a thing, an action, a quality or a whole situation, e.g.: an interesting book, to start with a jerk, absolutely fantastic, his unexpected departure.

The sentence is the immediate unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a communicative purpose. The sentence, naming a certain situation, expresses predication, i.e. shows the relation of the denoted event to reality through the grammatical categories of tense, person and mood. The category of tense is used to convey something new and define its place in reality as preceding, or following the act of communication. The category of person shows,

whether the situation involves the communicators or not. Through the category of mood the event is shown as real or unreal, desirable or obligatory.

Thus, the sentence presents a unity in its nominative and predicative aspects, denoting a certain event in its reference to reality. The distinguishing features of the sentence are predication, modality and communicative meaningfulness.

It is stated that the center of predication in a sentence of verbal type is a finite verb, which expresses essential predicative meanings by its categorial forms (categories of tense and mood). Some linguists though (V.V Vinogradov, M.Y.Bloch) insist that predication is effected not only by the forms of the finite verb, but also by all the other forms and elements of the sentence, which help establish the connection between the named objects and reality. They are such means as intonation, word order, different functional words.

Due to their nominative meaning, both the sentence and the phrase enter the system of language by their syntactic patterns. The traditional linguistics considers four main types of syntactic patterns: predicative (subject κ predicate), objective (verb κ object), attributive (attribute κ noun), adverbial (verb/adverb/adjective κ adverbial modifier).

II. Traditional and cognitive understanding of syntax.

The traditional, or systemic approach in Grammar, centers around the description of structural properties of linguistic units and their meanings, as they are represented in the system of language without considering the process of utterance-formation, i.e. it doesn't envisage the general (cognitive and linguistic) mechanisms which enable us to shape the conceptual content into a sentence and what's more important to structure the exact sentence we want, corresponding to our pragmatic intention (for example, what's the difference between the following pairs of sentences, if any at all:

Bill sent a walrus to Joyce. Bill sent Joyce a walrus;

Buzzing, the car went down the road. The car buzzed down the road.

To find the answers seems possible within a cognitive approach, the approach which was started in the second half of the 20th century and since then has been greatly promoted by foreign linguists such as G.Lakoff, R.Jackendoff, R. Langacker, L.Talmy, J.R. Taylor, A.Wierzbicka and others.

Cognitive linguistics appeared within a framework of approaches to the analysis of language, which are the formal, the psychological, and the conceptual. The formal approach addresses the linguistic patterns, abstracted away from any associated meaning. Thus, this approach includes the study of morphological, syntactic, lexical structure. Traditional generative grammar has centered itself within this approach. The psychological approach looks at language from the perspective of general cognitive systems, within this approach language is examined from the perspective of perception, memory, attention, reasoning. The main target of the conceptual approach is to consider the global system of schematic structures with which language organizes conceptual content that it expresses.

Cognitive approach is concerned with the patterns in which and the processes by which conceptual content is organized in language, or, in other words, how language structures conceptual content. Cognitive linguistics studies how language structures such basic conceptual categories as those of space and time, scenes and events, entities and properties, motion and location, force and causation. It considers the semantic structure of morphological and lexical forms as well as that of syntactic patterns. Cognitive linguistics considers language a cognitive system, which along with other cognitive systems, such as perception, attention, reasoning, affect, memory, motor control comprises human cognition. In this respect language appears to have some structural properties common to other cognitive systems.

The investigation of linguistic means in cognitive aspect, that is examining of meaning-form mappings (картирование, отображение) is based on the recent findings of psychology: such as the prototypical principle of category structure, the principle of figure-ground segregation (выделение фигуры и фона), “windowing” of attention (распределение внимания) and some others. Let’s consider each of them.

III. The basic principles and arguments of the cognitive linguistics.

The prototypical principle of category structure argues that any category possesses center-periphery pattern. The center comprises entities which

maximally reveal categorial properties, while the periphery is represented by the entities which demonstrate categorial properties only to a certain degree. The principle is used in the study of the syntactic categories (syntactic constructions with P. Hopper and

S. Thompson, A. Goldberg, J.R. Taylor; parts of sentence - the object, the adverbial modifier – with N.N. Boldyrev; in morphology – parts of speech with E.S. Kubryakova).

The principles of figure-ground segregation, and “windowing” of attention are viewed as common to the cognitive system of attention and considered to be essential ones in examining “meaning-form” mappings in syntax.

Figure-ground segregation principle implies that our visual and auditory input is organized in terms of prominence of the different parts. The part of the whole which is perceived as more prominent is given the status of figure and the part which is less prominent is given the status of ground (e.g., when we listen to a piano concert we can easily make out the part played by the piano as more prominent than the accompaniment of the orchestra; thus, the piano part is figure and the orchestra accompaniment is ground). In the system of language the figure – ground principle is believed to work as follows: the properties of the figure are those of concern, the ground functions as a reference entity and is used to characterize the properties of the figure (figure-ground segregation explains, for instance, the principle of semantic asymmetry of syntactic structures: we can say, for example, “My sister resembles Madonna” , but “Madonna resembles my sister” seems hardly possible. In R.Langacker terminology the subject of the sentence performs the function of the syntactic figure, while the object is the syntactic ground, in other words, object is a conceptual “anchor” for the subject and specifies the latter. In the case “Madonna resembles my sister” the concrete content of the subject and object (realized through the lexical semantics) disagrees with the functions of subject and object as syntactic figure and ground.

The terms “Figure“ and “Ground” are adopted by L.Talmy, R. Langacker for the investigation of conceptualization processes in human mind as they are

reflected in syntactic structures (different types of sentences). At the same time in cognitive linguistics are widely used terms “Profile” and “Base” (R.Langacker, J.R.Taylor) for explicating the same cognitive phenomena. Figure-Ground segregation as well as Profiling (rendering one aspect of the conceptual content more prominently) reflect the essence of the mechanisms of conceptualization. Profiling, in fact, is structuring of any conceptual content by principle of Figure-Ground segregation. It is axiomatic in cognitive grammar that all linguistic expressions profile something or other, and thus determine the conceptualization of any entity or event. A sentence type profiles a particular event type, a verb profiles a process, a preposition profiles a kind of relation.

The principle of “windowing” of attention in the language is discovered in the fact that linguistic forms can differentially direct or withdraw attention from particular portions of a situation, conceptualized by the speaker into a particular utterance (compare the active and passive constructions).

According to cognitive linguistics the fundamental design feature of language is that it has 2 subsystems, which are the grammatical and the lexical ones. The grammatical properties of language, and syntactical in particular, are examined by such linguists as L.Talmy, R.Langacker, A.Wierzbicka. All of them share the view that the grammatical means of language (that is morphology and syntax) along with lexicon form a continuum of symbolic units and perform a concept structuring function in language. It means that when we use a particular construction we select a particular image or profile to structure the conceived situation for communicative purposes. Imagery or profiling can be examined in the following sentences, while considering the semantic contrast:

a) Bill sent a walrus to Joyce.

b) Bill sent Joyce a walrus (R.Langacker’ example).

The sentences differ in meaning because they employ subtly different images of the same situation. The semantic contrast is in the prominence of certain parts of this scene. In (a) sent. the preposition “to” brings into focus “the path” followed by the walrus, and thereby rendering this aspect of the situation as more prominent. In

(b) sent. the juxtaposition of two nouns (“Joyce” and “walrus”) after the verb renders the idea of possessivity.

The difference in imagery determines the use of “to” and the “double –object construction” for certain types of situations. Consider the following examples:

- a) I sent a walrus to Antarctica. – sounds OK;
- b) I sent the zoo a walrus. – sounds OK;
- but c) I sent Antarctica a walrus. - is doubtful.

Thus, the first argument of cognitive approach, concerning syntax, sounds as follows: grammatical constructions, (according to R. Langacker), possess schematic characteristics, i. e. provide alternative imagery (conceptualizations) for the same event or situation. (In L. Talmy’s conception the idea of imagery function of grammatical constructions was formulated as a principle of conceptual alternativity. It means that the variety of grammatical forms provide a choice among alternative conceptualizations, from which a speaker selects one or another according to her communicative purposes.)

The second argument says, that the set of grammatical notions constitutes the fundamental concept structuring system of language. The grammatical forms of a sentence, and its syntactic pattern particularly, determine the structure of the conceptual material represented in the sentence, while the lexical elements specify its content. It is due to this argument that it becomes possible to distinguish different formats of representing knowledge in syntactic forms: configurational format, where linguistic knowledge prevails – the knowledge of syntactic configurations or schemas, such as transitive and intransitive constructions; actualizational format, where extra-linguistic knowledge prevails – the knowledge of event types (event concepts as mapped onto the basic syntactic configurations-transitive and intransitive constructions); format of mixed type, where linguistic knowledge and extra-linguistic knowledge are equally represented. (For details see: Болдырев Н.Н., Фурс Л.А. Репрезентация языковых и неязыковых знаний синтаксическими средствами // Филологические науки. №3, 2004, стр. 67-74;

Фурс Л.А. Форматы представления знаний в синтаксисе //Вопросы когнитивной лингвистики. Вып.1., 2004, стр. 166-181.)

To illustrate the basic function of grammatical forms to determine the structure of the conceptual material represented in the sentence let's consider the following sentences:

He panted up to the school.

The car rattled down the road.

He dozed into a new cut.

The syntactic construction, containing a prepositional word-group, structures the conceived event as Motion, while the lexical semantics of the verbs "to pant", "to rattle", "to doze" evokes the Processual aspect of the event in the listener's mind.

Within a cognitive approach the sentence as a unit of syntax is viewed in terms of schematization or profiling or imagery. It means, as it has been already discussed, that every grammatical construction possesses schematic characteristics, provides some particular imagery or conceptualization for the same event.

In this aspect the study of a transitive construction is very illustrative, performed by such linguists as G.Lakoff, G. Taylor, A. Wierzbicka. The prototypical transitive construction is built up according to a certain syntactic pattern, which is

the subject κ the verb-predicate κ the direct object. Initially it encodes transitive events: events which involve two participants, an agent and a patient, where an agent consciously acts in such a way as to cause a change in state of a patient, and its concept- structuring pattern or scheme is agent-action-patient. When the speaker uses the transitive construction for naming a particular event or situation he profiles it as a transitive event, that is he conceptualizes this particular event in terms of a agent-action-patient schema, even if this particular event is not inherently transitive. Let's compare pairs of sentences which describe the same situation:

a) He swam across the Channel;

b) He swam the Channel (J.R. Taylor's examples).

Sentence (a) denotes the location of swimming. Sentence (b) presents the event as a transitive one and suggests its reading/conceptualization as follows: the Channel is a challenge to the swimmer's power. In this respect the sentence "He swam our new swimming pool." seems odd.

A. Wierzbicka analyses the use of two- objects- constructions, one object is a patient, the other is an addressee, e.g.: John offered Mary a rose.

Such like constructions are used to encode events, where the patient is involved into the action but doesn't undergo any structural changes, for example destruction. It means that this type of semantic-syntactic constructions profiles the event in terms of an agent-action-addressee-patient scheme, where the action is understood as "giving to", (and in this aspect it becomes clear, why the sentence "Kill me a spider." is impossible).

Thus, if the traditional linguistics concentrates on the study of the formal, structural and semantic properties of the syntax units, in the cognitive linguistics the sentence, its syntactic structure or pattern, is understood in terms of conceptualization, that is how the sentence, as a particular syntactic model, performs the concept-structuring function.

IV. Syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterning.

The sentence and the phrase as particular syntactic patterns are traditionally viewed as standing to one another in two types of relations: syntagmatic and paradigmatic.

Syntagmatic relations are immediate linear relations between units in a sequence, e.g.: The book was sold at a great reduction in price.

In this sentence syntagmatically connected are the words: "was sold", "at a reduction in price", "at a great reduction" etc.

Paradigmatic relations exist between elements of the system outside the strings where they co-occur. Paradigmatics finds its expression in a system of oppositions, for example sentences of various functional destination can be viewed as opposed to each other: question as opposed to statement, negation as

opposed to affirmation (about syntactic oppositions read in the book by M.Y. Bloch p.286).

Syntactic oppositions are realized by correlated sentence patterns, the relations between which can be described as transformations. Some of the patterns are base patterns, others are their transformations, for example, a question can be described as produced from a statement, e.g.: He is interested in sports. → Is he interested in sports? A negation produced from an affirmation, e.g.: He is interested in sports. → He is not interested in sports.

Paradigmatics can be understood as syntactic derivation of more complex pattern-constructions out of basic or kernel pattern-constructions. There are two types of derivational relations in the paradigmatic system:

- 1) the constructional relations
- 2) the predicative relations.

The constructional derivation effects the formation of more complex clausal structures out of simpler ones. Kernel sentences can undergo changes into clauses (the process of clausalization) and phrases (the process of phrasalization). For example, the two kernel sentences “They departed from the city” and “They started a new life” produce the following constructions, which demonstrate *clausalization*:

- 1) As they departed from the city, they started a new life;
- 2) If they depart from the city they shall start a new life;
- 3) They departed from the city, and they started a new life;
- 4) They departed from the city, but they did not start a new life.

These kernel sentences also produce constructions, which demonstrate *phrasalization*:

- 1) On their departure from the city (a case of complete nominalization) they started a new life;
- 2) They departed from the city to start a new life (a case of partial nominalization);
- 3) They departed from the city starting a new life (a case of partial nominalization);

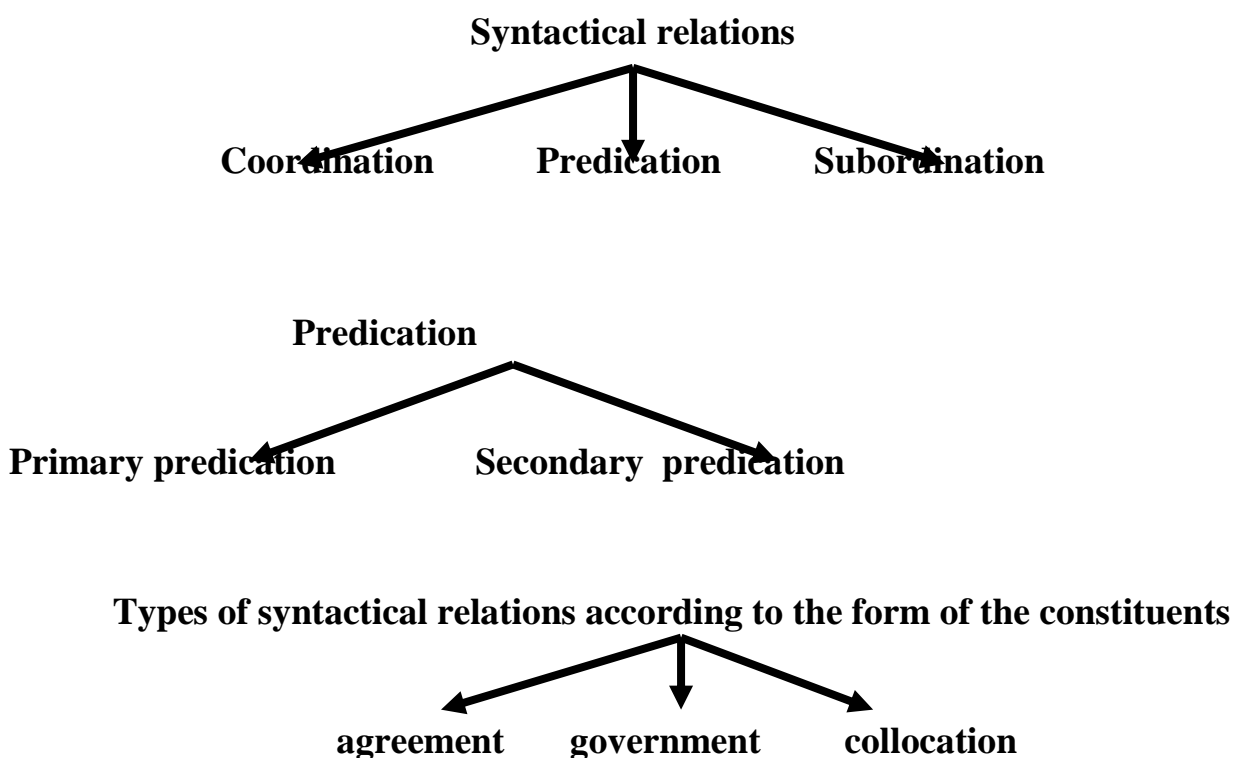
4) Having departed from the city, they started a new life (participial construction of adverbial status).

The predicative derivation realizes the formation of predicatively different units, and is responsible for the expression of the predicative semantics of the sentence.

So, kernel sentences undergo structural modification, which expresses the predicative functions of the sentence, e.g.: He has done the job. -> He has not done the job.

In this respect *the kernel sentence* is the simplest construction both in the notional and functional sense, that is it is an elementary sentence which is non-interrogative, non-imperative, non-negative, non-modal.

Thus, the main units of syntax, phrases and sentences, enter the system of language by their syntactic patterns. Syntactic patterns are explicated in syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterning.



There are many definitions of the sentence and these definitions differ from each other because that the scientists approach from different view points to

this question. Some of them consider the sentence from the point view of phonetics, others - from the point of view of semantics (the meaning of the sentence) and so on. According to the opinion of many grammarians the definition of the sentence must contain all the peculiar features of the smallest communicative unit.

Some of the definitions of a sentence are given below.

«Предложение – минимальная синтаксическая конструкция, используемая в актах речевой коммуникации, характеризующаяся предикативностью и реализующая определенную структурную схему» (14)

“The sentence is the immediate integral unit of speech built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and distinguished by a contextually relevant communicative purpose”

The definitions which are mentioned above prove that B.A. Ilyish is quite right when he writes: “The notion of sentence has not so far received a satisfactory definition” (15)

“A sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it.

“В отличие от слова или словосочетания, которые выражают лишь различные понятия, предложения выражают относительно законченные мысли и тем самым используются как единицы общения между людьми; произнося (или изображая на письме) предложения, люди что-то сообщают, выясняют, побуждают друг друга к выполнению действия.

The train moved out of the city.

Are you ready?

Put down the book.

Для того чтобы сообщение о том или ином факте, явлении был полным, законченным, требуется указать каким образом данный факт, явление, событие и т.д. относится к реальной действительности, существует ли оно на самом деле или же мыслится как возможное предполагаемое, воображаемое, необходимое и т.д., т.е. необходимо выразить модальность сообщения. Модальность непременно имеется в любом предложении».

«Важнейшим средством грамматического оформления предложения является законченность интонации». (15)

Thus, concluding the above mentioned conceptions, we can say that in any act of communication there are three factors:

1. The act of speech;
2. The speaker;
3. Reality (as viewed by the speaker).

B. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya (22) state that these factors are variable since they change with every act of speech. They may be viewed from two viewpoints:

- 1) from the point of view of language are constant because they are found in all acts of communication;

2) they are variable because they change in every act of speech.

Every act of communication contains the notions of time, person and reality.

The events mentioned in the communications are correlated in time and time correlation is expressed by certain grammatical and lexical means.

Any act of communication presupposes existence of the speaker and the hearer. The meaning of person is expressed by the category of person of verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexico-grammatically by words: I, you, he...

Reality is treated differently by the speaker and this attitude of the speaker is expressed by the category of mood in verbs. They may be expressed grammatically and lexically (may, must, probably...)

According to the same authors the three relations - to the act of speech, to the speaker and to reality - can be summarized as the relation to the situation of speech.

The relation of the thought of a sentence to the situation of speech is called predicativity.

Predicativity is the structural meaning of the sentence while intonation is the structural form of it. Thus, a sentence is a communication unit made up of words /and word-morphemes/ in conformity with their combinability and structurally united by intonation and predicativity.

Within a sentence the word or combination of words that contains the meanings of predicativity may be called the predication.

My father used to make nets and sell them.

My mother kept a little day-school for the girls.

Nobody wants a baby to cry.

A hospital Nursery is one of the most beautiful places in the world. You might say, it's a room filled with love.

Thus, by sentence we understand the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation pattern.

The Types of Sentences

There are many approaches to classify sentences. Below we shall consider only some of them. B. Ilyish classifies sentences applying two principles: 1) types of communication. Applying this principle he distinguishes 3 types of sentences: declarative, interrogative, imperative. 2) according to structure. Applying this principle he distinguishes two main types of sentences: simple and composite.

Ch. Fries (31), (32) gives an original classification of types of sentences. All the utterances are divided by him into Communicative and Non-communicative.

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

I. Utterances regularly eliciting "oral" responses only:

A) Greetings. B) Calls. C) Questions.

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

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

L. Barkhudarov (3) compares source (kernel) sentences with their transforms, he distinguishes several types of sentences from their structural view-point. His classification will represent binary oppositions where the unmarked member is the source kernel sentence and marked one is the transformed sentence.

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

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

2. Elliptical and non-elliptical sentences.

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

1. the criterion of the structure of sentences

2. the criterion of the aim of the speaker

3. the criterion of the existence of all parts of the sentence.

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

The difference between them is in the fact that simple sentences have one primary predication in their structure while composite ones have more than one.

According to the criterion of the aim of the speaker sentences fall under declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

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

Below we shall consider these types of sentence.

Types of Sentences according to the Aim of the Speaker

The declarative sentences: This type of sentence may be called basic, when compared with other types of sentences because all other types of sentences are the result of transformation of kernel sentences which are affirmative in their origin (kernel sentences).

- they convey some statement. Maybe because of this fact these sentences are called declarative.
- they usually have the falling intonation
- usually they have regular order of words with no inversion.

Interrogative Sentences

There are two structural types of interrogative sentences in Modern English - general questions (yes- or no- questions) and special (or wh-) questions. Both of them are characterized by having partial inversions:

Are we staying here?

Where are we staying?

Besides, the first one has a special (rising) intonation pattern. The second one (wh-question) has interrogative words. But the intonation pattern of wh-questions is identical with that of the affirmative sentences.

And it is important to point out that the interrogative sentences require answers (if they are not rhetorical ones).

Exclamatory Sentences

The peculiar features of these sentences are:

1. exclamatory sentences usually express some sort of emotion, feeling or the spirit of the person who pronounces it;
2. in their structure they have such introductory words as *what* and *how*:
Ex. What a lovely night! How beautiful it is here!
3. they are always in the declarative form;
4. there's usually no inversion;
5. they are pronounced with a falling intonation;

Imperative Sentences

The imperative sentences are opposed to non-imperative ones because.

1. In imperative sentences the predicate is used in only one form-in the imperative one, while in non-imperative sentences predicate may be used in any form except the imperative.

2. In imperative sentences no modal verb is used.

3. The imperative sentences are most often directed to the second person.

4. The subject of the imperative sentences are almost always represented by the zero alternant of you, that is, elliptically.

5. The imperative sentences urge the listener to perform an action or verbal response.

The above said is quite sufficient to characterize the structure of imperative sentences to be specific and distinct from that of the structure of non-imperative sentences.

Elliptical Sentences

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

The problem is solved by different linguists in different way. According to H. Kruisinga's (36) concept "Any noun that is used to call a person may be looked upon as a sentence, or a sentence-word.

Some words regularly form a sentence, such as "yes" or "no"; but they do so only in connection with another sentence. Words used in a sentence with subject and predicate may also be alone to form a complete sentence, but again in connection with another sentence only..."

As we stated above elliptical sentences are also the result of transformation of kernel sentences. Since transforms are derived from kernel sentences they must be considered in connection with the latter.

L. Barkhudarov (3) looks upon the sentences like «Вечер», «Утро» and so on as two-member sentences. Really, if we isolate such utterances from the language system it will not be divisible. If an investigator wants to be objective he cannot neglect the language system. Any unit of any language is in interdependence of the other units of the language. Since the overwhelming majority of sentences are two-member ones as e.g. «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the above-mentioned utterances are also two-member ones. In sentences «Был вечер», «Будет вечер» the predicates are expressed explicitly, while in «Вечер», «Утро» the predicates are expressed by zero alternants of the verb «БЫТЬ». M. Blokh's conception is very close to this (5), (6).

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

1. Syntagmatically restored elliptical sentences - when the explicit alternant of the elliptical sentence is found in the same context where the elliptical sentence is:

One was from Maine; the other from California.

If you have no idea where Clive might be, I certainly haven't. (Nancy Buckingham).

2. Paradigmatically restored elliptical sentence - when the explicit alternant of the zero form is not found in the context where the ellipsis is used but when it is found in similar language constructions, e.g.

Stop and speak to me. (Galsworthy)

You listen to me, Horace. (Steinback)

The Problem of One -Member Sentences

“A sentence is the expression of a self-contained and complete thought”. Quite often the terms are applied to linguistic forms lacking completeness in one or more respects. It will of course be readily agreed that sentences like “All that glitters is not gold” and “Two multiplied by two are four”, are formally and notionally complete and self-contained.

But in everyday intercourse utterances of this type are infrequent in comparison with the enormous number which rely upon the situation or upon the linguistic context - to make their intention clear.

In the extract Strove asked him if he had seen Strickland. “He is ill”, he said. “Didn’t you know?” – “Seriously?” – “Very, I understand”, to Fries “Seriously” is a sentence - equivalent. They all seem to be a complete communication. But it can not be denied that each of them, either through pronouns (he, him) or through omissions, depend heavily on what has been said immediately before it is spoken; in fact the last three would be unthinkable outside a linguistic context. Properly speaking, therefore, omissions must be said to effect connection between sentences (31), (32).

Sentences with syntactic items left out are natural, for omissions are inherent in the very use of language. "In all speech activities there are three things to be distinguished: expression, suppression, and impression.

Expression is what the speaker gives, suppression is what the speaker does not give, though he might have given it, and impression is what the hearer receives". (35)

Grammarians have often touched upon omissions of parts of sentences. But it is difficult to find an opinion which is shared by the majority of linguists.

When considering the types of sentences some grammarians recognize the existence of two-member, one-member and elliptical sentences. The two-member sentences are sentences which have the subject and the predicate. However, language is a phenomenon where one cannot foresee the structure of it without detailed analysis. There are sentences which cannot be described in terms of two-member sentences. We come across to sentences which do not contain both the subject and the predicate. "There's usually one primary part and the other could not even be supplied, at least not without a violent change of the structure of the sentence", (Ilyish) *Fire! Night. Come on!*

As Ilyish (15) puts it, it is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not be termed subject in some case (as in *Fire! Night...*) or predicate in some other (*Come on!; Why not stay here?*) There are grammarians who keep to such a conception. Russian Academician V.V. Vinogradov (10) considers that grammatical subject and predicate are correlative notions and that the terms lose their meaning outside their relation to each other. He suggests the term "main part".

Thus, one member sentence is a sentence which has no separate subject and predicate but one main only instead. B. Ilyish (15) considers some types of such sentences:

1) with main part of noun (in stage directions);

Night. A lady's bed-chamber ...

2) Imperative sentences with no subject of the action mentioned:

Come down, please.

Infinitive sentences are also considered to be one special type of one-member sentences. In these sentences the main part is expressed by an infinitive. Such sentences are usually emotional:

Oh, to be in a forest in May!

Why not go there immediately?

B.A. Ilyish (15) states that these sentences should not be considered as elliptical ones, since sentences like:

Why should not we go there immediately? - is stylistically different from the original one.

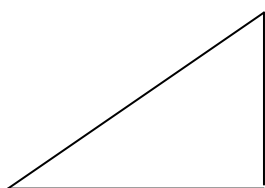
By elliptical sentence he means sentence with one or more of their parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context.

It is rather difficult to define the sentence as it is connected with many lingual and extra lingual aspects - logical, psychological and philosophical. We will just stick to one of them - according to academician G.Pocheptsov, the

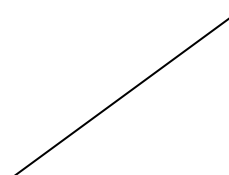
sentence is the central syntactic construction used as the minimal communicative unit that has its primary predication, actualises a definite structural scheme and possesses definite intonation characteristics. This definition works only in case we do not take into account the difference between the sentence and the utterance. The distinction between the sentence and the utterance is of fundamental importance because the sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within the theory of grammar while the utterance is the actual use of the sentence. In other words, the sentence is a unit of language while the utterance is a unit of speech.

The most essential features of the sentence as a linguistic unit are a) its **structural** characteristics - subject-predicate relations (primary predication), and b) its **semantic** characteristics - it refers to some fact in the objective reality. It is represented in the language through a conceptual reality:

conceptual reality



proposition



objective reality lingual representation objective situation predicative unit

We may define the proposition as the main predicative form of thought. Basic predicative meanings of the typical English sentence are expressed by the finite verb that is immediately connected with the subject of the sentence (primary predication).

To sum it up, the sentence is a syntactic level unit, it is a predicative language unit which is a lingual representation of predicative thought (proposition).

Different approaches to the study of the sentence.

a) Principal and secondary parts of the sentence.

b) Immediate constituents of the sentence. IC analysis.

To grasp the real structure of the English sentence, one must understand not only words that occur but also the principles of their arrangement. Each language has its own way of structural grouping. English has dichotomous phrase structure, which means that the phrase in English can always be divided into two elements (constituents) until we get down to the single word. All groups of words are arranged in levels. The name given by linguists to these different levels of relationship is immediate **constituents**.

Thus, one way of analyzing a sentence is to cut it to its immediate constituents, that is, to single out different levels of meaning:

The old man saw a black dog there.

It is obvious that dividing a sentence into ICs does not provide much information. Nevertheless, it can sometimes prove useful if we want to account for the ambiguity of certain constructions. A classic example is the phrase *old men and women* which can be interpreted in two different ways. Ambiguity of this kind is referred to as syntactic ambiguity. By providing IC analysis we can make the two

meanings clear:



c) Oppositional analysis.

The oppositional method in syntax means correlating different sentence types: they possess common features and differential features. Differential features serve the basis for analysis.

E.g. two member sentence :: one member sentence (John worked:: John! Work! Or: I speak English :: I don't speak English.

d) Constructional analysis.

According to the constructional approach, not only the subject and the predicate but also all the necessary constituents of primary predication constitute the main parts because they are constructionally significant. Therefore, the secondary parts of the sentence are sometimes as necessary and important as the main ones. If we omit the object and the adverbial modifier in the following sentences they will become grammatically and semantically unmarked: Bill closed the door; She behaved well.

The structural sentence types are formed on the basis of kernels (basic structures). Three main types of propositional kernels may be distinguished: N V, N is A, N is N. However, if we take into account the valent properties of the verbs (their obligatory valency) the group will become larger (8 kernels), e.g. NI V N2 N3: *John gave Ann the book*, NI V N2: *I see a house*.

The kernel sentences form the basis for syntactic derivation. Syntactic derivation lies in producing more complex sentences Syntactic processes may be internal and external. Internal syntactic processes involve no changes in the structure of the parts of the sentence. They occur within one and the same part of the sentence (subject, etc.). External syntactic processes are those that cause new relations within a syntactic unit and lead to appearance of a new part of the sentence.

The internal syntactic processes are:

Expansion

*The phone was ringing **and ringing***

Complication

(a synt. unit becomes complicated)

*I have seen it - I **could** have seen it*

Compression

*They were laughing **and singing***

Contamination

(two parts of the sentence are joined together - e.g. double predicate)

*The moon **rose red***

Replacement - the use of the words that have a generalized meaning: *one*, *do*, etc, *I'd like to take this **one***.

Representation - a part of the syntactic unit represents the whole syntactic unit: *Would you like to come along? I'd love **to***.

Ellipsis - *Where are you going? To the **movies***.

The external syntactic processes are:

Extension - *a nice dress - a nice **cotton** dress.*

Ajoinment - the use of specifying words, most often particles: *He did it - **Only** he did it.*

Enclosure - inserting modal words and other discourse markers: *after all, anyway, naturally, etc.*

The utterance as opposed to the sentence is the unit of speech. The main categories of the utterance from the point of view of its informative structure are considered to be the **theme** and the **rheme**. They are the main components of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP) - actual division of the sentence (most language analysts stick to the term "sentence" but actually they mean "utterance"). In English, there is a "standard" word order of Subject κ Verb κ Object: The *cat ate the rat* - here we have a standard structure (N I κ V κ N2). However, there are numerous other ways in which the semantic content of the sentence can be expressed:

1. The *rat was eaten* by the *cat*.
2. *It was the cat that ate the rat.*
3. *It was the rat that the cat ate.*
4. *What the cat did was ate the rat.*
5. The *cat, it ate the rat.*

Which of these options is actually selected by the writer or the speaker will depend on the context in which the utterance occurs and the importance of the information. One important consideration is whether the information has already been introduced before or it is assumed to be known to the reader or listener. Such information is referred to as given information or the theme. It contrasts with information which is introduced for the first time and which is known as new information or the rheme.

Informative structure of the utterance is one of the topics that still attract the attention of language analysts nowadays. It is well recognized that the rheme marking devices are:

1. Position in the sentence. As a rule new information in English generally comes last: *The cat ate the **rat**.*
2. Intonation.
3. The use of the indefinite article. However, sometimes it is impossible (as in 1): *A **gentleman** is waiting for you.*
4. The use of 'there is', 'there are'. *There is **a cat** in the room.*
5. The use of special devices, like 'as for', 'but for', etc.: *As for **him**, I don't know.*
6. Inverted word order: *Here comes the sun.*
7. The use of emphatic constructions: *It was **the cat** that ate the rat.*

However, sometimes the most important information is not expressed formally: *The cat ate the rat after all.* The rheme here is 'the rat'. At the same time there is very important information which is hidden or implicit: the cat was not supposed to do it, or - it was hard for the cat to catch the rat, or - the cat is a vegetarian (this hidden information will depend on the context or situation). In other words, we may say that this sentence contains two informative centres, or

two rhemes - explicit and implicit.

5. Functional typology of utterances.

Actional utterance: N κ Vact. κ Complement - actional predicate

Performative utterance: I κ Vperf.Nsay - performative predicate

Characterizing utterance: N κ Vbe κ NQ - characterizing predicate

(See the book by E.Morokhovskaya 'Fundamentals of Theoretical English Grammar', pp.254-268)

Composite Sentences

The word "composite" is used by H. Poutsma (39) as a common term for both the compound and complex sentences.

There are three types of composite sentences in Modern English:

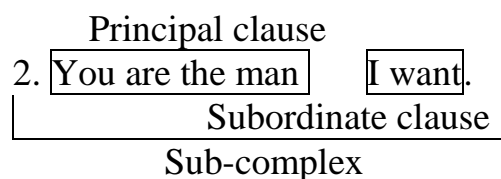
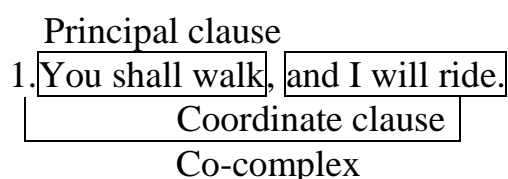
1. The compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses with no dependent one.

2. The complex sentence contains one dependent clause and one or more independent clauses. The latter usually tells something about the main clause and is used as a part of speech or as a part of sentence.

J. The compound-complex sentence combines the two previous types. The compound-complex sentences are those which have at least two independent clauses and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause in its structure: Blair found herself smiling at him and she took the letter he held out to her.

That there are three types of composite sentences in languages is contemporary approach to this issue. Historically not all the grammarians were unanimous in this respect. According to it H. Sweet (42) there are structurally two types of sentences: simple and complex.

“Two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex sentence ... In every complex there is one independent clause, called the principal clause together with at least one dependent clause, which stands in the relation of adjunct to the principal clause. The dependent clause may be either coordinate or subordinate”. Examples:



As one can see in H. Sweets conception there's no place for compound sentences since even so-called “co-complex” there's subordination.

In this paper we shall classify the composite sentences into three types as has been mentioned above.

Compound Sentences

The compound sentence was not felt to be a sentence proper. There were at least three methods, as L. Iophic and Chahoyan (17) state, employed by the grammarians to find a way out of this difficulty: (1) to explain it away by the complete independence and the possibility of isolating each member of a compound sentence without any change of its meaning or intonation; (2) by employing new terms to express more exactly the grammatical peculiarity of this combination of sentences. The terms “double”, “triple” and “multiple” sentences were used by E. Kruisinga (36) in “A Hand-book of Present day English” and H.R. Stokoe (41). (3) by excluding this concept from the structural classification of sentences.

The analysis of compound sentences show that clauses of a compound sentence are usually connected more closely than independent sentences. According to M. Blokh (7) “in these sentences the clauses are arranged as units of syntactically equal rank, i.e. equipotent” (p.296). But more close examination of these type of sentences shows that:

1. The order of clauses is fixed.

He came at six and we had dinner together.

The two women understood one another very well, but Paul seemed to be left outside this conversation.

Every drawer in every room had been taken out, the contents spilled, the bed had been ripped apart, pictures were off their hooks and (they) were lying on the floor.

One cannot change order of the clauses in these sentences.

2. Between clauses of compound sentences there exist certain semantic relations. And these relations are defined by conjunctions and connectives:

- 2.1. Harmony or agreement (copulative relation):

Her lips trembled and she put up her hand as if to steady them with her fingers.

- 2.2. Contrast or opposition. This relation is usually expressed by adversative conjunctions but, yet:

The conjunctions are not numerous but they are of very frequent occurrence.

- 2.3. The choice or alternation (disjunctive conjunction- or): Is that historically true or is it not?

- 2.4. Reason or consequence (or conclusion) for, so... E.g.

He had apparently been working, for the table was littered with papers.

There's no car available, so I shall go on foot.

Complex Sentences

Linguists explain the complex sentences as units of unequal rank, one being categorically dominated by the other. In terms of the positional structure of the sentence it means that by subordination one of the clauses (subordinate) is placed in a dependent position of the other (principal). This latter characteristic has an

essential semantic implication clarifying the difference between the two types, of polypredication in question. As a matter of fact, a subordinate clause, however important the information rendered by it might be for the whole communication, presents it as naturally supplementing the information of the principal clause, i.e. as something completely premeditated and prepared even before its explicit expression in the utterance (5), (6), (7).

The Types of Complex Sentences

The subordinate clauses are classified according to the two criteria: meaning and combinability. The clauses of a complex sentence form the unity, a simple sentence in which some part is replaced by a clause.

The subject clauses are used in the function of a primary part of the sentence. The peculiarity of the subject clause is its inseparability from the principal clause. It is synsemantic; it can't be cut off from the rest of the sentence.

What he says is true.

The predicative clause fulfills the function of the notional predicate (the function of the predicative).

e.g. The thing is what we should do the next.

The Adverbial clauses serve to express a variety of adverbial relations:

action quality. Mike acted as though nothing had happened.

=manner. Everybody should love her as he did.

Some more complex sentences:

What the newspapers say may be false (subject clause).

I don't remember what his name is. (object)

He thought that it might well be. (object)

The lot that is on the corner needs moving. (attributive)

He is a man whom I have always admired. (attributive)

When Bill decided to leave, everyone expressed regret. (adverbial clause of time)

The Structural Approach to the Problem of Composite Sentences

One of the representatives of structural linguists Ch. Fries (31), (32) considers two kinds of composite sentences: sequence sentences and included sentences. The sequence sentences consist of situation sentence and sequence sentence. Example:

1. The government has set up an agency called Future builders.

2. It has a certain amount of fund to make loans to social enterprises.

These two sentences are connected with each-other. The first sentence is a situation sentence and the second one is a sequence sentence since it develops the idea of the situation sentence.

In the following example “*The biggest loan has gone to M. Trust, which runs a school for handicapped children.*” There are also two sentences included into one but they are not separated by a period (full stop).

Thus, in both cases there are certain signals that serve to connect the constituents, they are “if” in the sequence sentence and “which” - in the included one.

The most significant difference between these function words as signals of “inclusion” and the forms given above as signals of sequence lies in the fact that these function words of inclusion at the beginning of a sentence look forward to a coming sentence unit, while the signals of sequence look backward to the preceding sentence unit.

When sentence units are included in larger units they can fulfill a variety of structural functions. In the structure of the larger sentence unit in which they are included they often operate as a single unit substitutable for one of the single part of the speech.

C.H. Fries, as we see, makes an attempt to reject the traditional classification and terms. He substitutes for the traditional doctrine his theory of included sentences and sequences of sentences. His attitude towards the traditional concept of the compound sentence is primarily a matter of the punctuation of written texts.

Answer the following questions

- 1 What is syntax?
- 1 What linguistic unit is called a sentence?
2. What are the main features of sentences?
3. What theories on sentence do you know?
4. What is the difference between primary and secondary predication?
5. What criteria are used to classify sentences?
6. What do you understand by structural classification of sentences?
7. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the aim of the speaker?
8. What do you understand by the classification of sentences according to the existence of the parts of the sentence?
9. What is the difference between one- and two-member sentences?
10. What sentences are called elliptical?
11. What is “syntagmatically restored” and “paradigmatically restored” elliptical sentences?

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Glossary

1. **Syntax.** *Syntax analyses the rules of combining words into phrases, sentences and text. The subject-matter of syntax are these communicative units: sentence and text.*
2. **Paradigmatic.** *Paradigmatic bond is a connection among the classes of linguistic units/words combined by the existence of some certain common features, e.g.*
 - a) *asking, sitting, barking, sleeping (all these words have common –ing ending);*
 - b) *ask, asking, asks, asked, has asked, be asked (in this case it is stem “ask” is common)*
3. **Syntagmatic.** *Syntagmatic connection is a bond among linguistic units in a lineal succession in the connected speech. Syntagmatic connection between words or group of words is also called a syntactic bond.*
4. **Subordination.** *Subordination implies the relation of head-word and adjunct-word, as e.g. a tall boy, a red pen and so on.*
5. **Coordination.** *Co-ordination is shown either by word-order only, or by the use of form-words*
6. **Predication.** *Predication is the connection between the subject and the predicate of a sentence.*

7. **Sentence.** *Sentence is the smallest communicative unit, consisting of one or more syntactically connected words that has primary predication and that has a certain intonation pattern.*

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “Theoretical grammar of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students’ competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students’ competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students’ notes. Some essential notions are not found.

0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.
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Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 8: General principles of grammatical analysis

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<i>1. Pragmatics.</i> <i>2. Speech act theory</i> <i>3. Discourse analysis</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about Pragmatics, Speech act theory, Discourse analysis.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) Pragmatics 2) Speech act theory 3) Discourse analysis
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic General principles of grammatical analysis

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: Referential meaning, syntactic meaning, pragmatics, discourse, speech act, performative, explicit, implicit etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture. When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer	The students attentively listen to the lecture and make notes of the important points of the given information.

	can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 8. GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMATICAL ANALISYS

Problems to be discussed

1. *Pragmatics. Speech act theory*
2. *Discourse analysis*

Key words: *Referential meaning, syntactic meaning, pragmatics, discourse, speech act, performative, explicit, implicit etc.*

Man is not well defined as "Homo sapiens" ("man with wisdom"). For what do we mean by wisdom? It has not been proved so far that animals do not possess it. Those of you who have pets can easily prove the contrary. Most recently anthropologists have started defining human beings as "man the toolmaker".

However, apes can also make primitive tools. What sets man apart from the rest of animal kingdom is his ability to speak: he is "can easily object by saying that animals can also speak Homo loquens" - "man the speaking animal". And again, you, naturally, in their own way. But their sounds are meaningless, and there is no link between sound and meaning (or if there is, it is of a very primitive kind) and the link for man is grammar. Only with the help of grammar we can combine words to form sentences and texts. Man is not merely Homo loquens, he is Homo Grammaticus.

The term "grammar" goes back to a Greek word that may be translated as the "art of writing". But later this word acquired a much wider sense and came to embrace the whole study of language. Now it is often used as the synonym of linguistics. A question comes immediately to mind: what does this study involve?

Grammar may be practical and theoretical. The aim of practical grammar is the description of grammar rules that are necessary to understand and formulate sentences. The aim of theoretical grammar is to offer explanation for these rules. Generally speaking, theoretical grammar deals with the language as a functional system.

According to the Bible: 'In the beginning was the Word'. In fact, the word is considered to be the central (but not the only) linguistic unit of language. Linguistic units (or in other words - signs) can go into three types of relations:

a) The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us (objective reality). E.g. the word 'table' refers to a definite piece of furniture. It may be not only an object but a process, state, quality, etc.

This type of meaning is called referential meaning of a unit. It is semantics that studies the referential meaning of units.

b) The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units). No unit can be used independently; it serves as an element in the system of other units. This kind of meaning is called syntactic. Formal relation of units to one another is studied by syntactics (or syntax).

c) The relation between a unit and a person who uses it. As we know too well, when we are saying something, we usually have some purpose in mind. We use the language as an instrument for our purpose (e.g.). One and the same word or sentence may acquire different meanings in communication. This type of meaning is called pragmatic. The study of the relationship between linguistic units and the users of those units is done by pragmatics.

Thus there are three models of linguistic description: semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. To illustrate the difference between these different ways of linguistic analysis, let us consider the following sentence: Students are students. The first part of the XXth century can be characterized by a formal approach to the language study. Only inner (syntactic) relations between linguistic units served the basis for linguistic analysis while the reference of words to the objective reality and language users were actually not considered. Later, semantic language analysis came into use. However, it was surely not enough for a detailed language study. Language certainly figures centrally in our lives. We discover our identity as individuals and social beings when we acquire it during childhood. It serves as a means of cognition and communication: it enables us to think for ourselves and to cooperate with other people in our community. Therefore, the pragmatic side of the language should not be ignored either. Functional approach in language analysis deals with the language 'in action'. Naturally, in order to get a broad description of the language, all the three approaches must be combined.

Any human language has two main functions: the communicative function and the expressive or representative function - human language is the living form of thought. These two functions are closely interrelated as the expressive function of language is realized in the process of speech communication.

The expressive function of language is performed by means of linguistic signs and that is why we say that language is a semiotic system. It means that linguistic signs are of semiotic nature: they are informative and meaningful. There are other examples of semiotic systems but all of them are no doubt much simpler. For instance, traffic lights use a system of colours to instruct drivers and people to go

or to stop. Some more examples: Code Morse, Brighton Alphabet, computer languages, etc. What is the difference between language as a semiotic system and other semiotic systems? Language is universal, natural, it is used by all members of society while any other sign systems are artificial and depend on the sphere of usage.

Language is regarded as a system of elements (or: signs, units) such as sounds, words, etc. These elements have no value without each other, they depend on each other, they exist only in a system, and they are nothing without a system. System implies the characterization of a complex object as made up of separate parts (e.g. the system of sounds). Language is a structural system. Structure means hierarchical layering of parts in constituting the whole. In the structure of language there are four main structural levels: phonological, morphological, syntactical and supersyntactical. The levels are represented by the corresponding level units:

The phonological level is the lowest level. The phonological level unit is the phoneme. It is a distinctive unit (bag - back).

The morphological level has two level units:

- a) the 'morpheme - the lowest meaningful unit (teach - teacher);
- b) the word - the main naming ('nominative) unit of language.

The syntactical level has two level units as well:

- a) the word-group - the dependent syntactic unit;
- b) the sentence - the main communicative unit.

The supersyntactical level has the text as its level unit.

All structural levels are subject matters of different levels of linguistic analysis. At different levels of analysis we focus attention on different features of language. Generally speaking, the larger the units we deal with, the closer we get to the actuality of people's experience of language.

To sum it up, each level has its own system. Therefore, language is regarded as a system of systems. The level units are built up in the same way and that is why the units of a lower level serve the building material for the units of a higher level. This similarity and likeness of organization of linguistic units is called

isomorphism. This is how language works - a small number of elements at one level can enter into thousands of different combinations to form units at the other level.

We have arrived at the conclusion that the notions of system and structure are not synonyms - any system has its own structure (compare: the system of Uzbek education vs. the structure of Uzbek education; army organization).

Any linguistic unit is a double entity. It unites a concept and a sound image. The two elements are intimately united and each recalls the other. Accordingly, we distinguish the content side and the expression side. The forms of linguistic units bear no natural resemblance to their meaning. The link between them is a matter of convention, and conventions differ radically across languages. Thus, the English word 'dog' happens to denote a particular four-footed domesticated creature, the same creature that is denoted in Uzbek or Russian languages by the completely different form. Neither form looks like a dog, or sounds like one.

PRAGMATICS. SPEECH ACT THEORY. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

The term 'pragmatics' was first introduced by Charles Morris, a philosopher. He contrasts pragmatics with semantics and syntax. He claims that syntax is the study of the grammatical relations of linguistic units to one another and the grammatical structures of phrases and sentences that result from these grammatical relation, semantics is the study of the relation of linguistic units to the objects they denote, and pragmatics is the study of the relation of linguistic units to people who communicate.

This view of pragmatics is too broad because according to it, pragmatics may have as its domain any human activity involving language, and this includes almost all human activities, from baseball to the stock market. We will proceed from the statement that linguistic pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate. What do we mean by 'appropriate context'?

In our everyday life we as a rule perform or play quite a lot of different roles

- a student, a friend, a daughter, a son, a client, etc. When playing different roles our language means are not the same - we choose different words and expressions suitable and appropriate for the situation. We use the language as an instrument for our purposes. For instance,

(a) What are you doing here? We're talking

(b) What the hell are you doing here? We're chewing the rag

have the same **referential** meaning but their **pragmatic** meaning is different, they are used in different contexts. Similarly, each utterance combines a **propositional base** (objective part) with the **pragmatic component** (subjective part). It follows that an utterance with the same propositional content may have different pragmatic components:

<i>It's hot</i>	just mentioning of the fact
	explanation
	excuse
	inducement to do something about it
	menace

To put it in other words, they are different **speech acts**. That is, speech acts are simply things people do through language - for example, apologizing, instructing, menacing, explaining something, etc. The term 'speech act' was coined by the philosopher John Austin and developed by another philosopher John Searle.

John Austin is the person who is usually credited with generating interest in what has since come to be known as pragmatics and speech act theory. His ideas of language were set out in a series of lectures which he gave at Oxford University. These lectures were later published under the title "How to do things with words". His first step was to show that some utterances are not statements or questions but actions. He reached this conclusion through an analysis of what he termed '**performative verbs**'. Let us consider the following sentences:

I pronounce you man and wife

I declare war on France

I name this ship The Albatros

I bet you 5 dollars it will rain

I apologize

The peculiar thing about these sentences, according to J. Austin, is that they are not used to say or describe things, but rather actively to do things. After you have declared war on France or pronounced somebody husband and wife the situation has changed. That is why J. Austin termed them as **performatives** and contrasted them to statements (he called them constatives). Thus by pronouncing a performative utterance the speaker is performing an action. The performative utterance, however, can really change things only under certain circumstances. J. Austin specified the circumstances required for their success as **felicity conditions**. In order to declare war you must be someone who has the right to do it. Only a priest (or a person with corresponding power) can make a couple a husband and wife. Besides, it must be done before witnesses and the couple getting married must sign the register.

Performatives may be **explicit** and **implicit**. Let us compare the sentences:

I promise I will come tomorrow - I will come tomorrow;

I swear I love you - I love you.

On any occasion the action performed by producing an utterance will consist of three related acts (a three-fold distinction):

1) **locutionary act** - producing a meaningful linguistic expression, uttering a sentence. If you have difficulty with actually forming the sounds and words to create a meaningful utterance (because you are a foreigner or tongue-tied) then you might fail to produce a locutionary act: it often happens when we learn a foreign language.

2) **illocutionary act** - we form an utterance with some kind of function on mind, with a definite communicative intention or illocutionary force. The notion of illocutionary force is basic for pragmatics.

3) **perlocutionary act** - the effect the utterance has on the hearer. Perlocutionary effect may be verbal or non-verbal. E.g. *I've bought a car - Great!*
It's cold here - and you close the window.

It was John Searle, who studied under J. Austin at Oxford, who proposed a detailed classification of speech acts. His speech act classification has had a great impact on linguistics. It includes five major classes of speech acts: declarations, representatives, expressives, directives and commissives:

Speech act type	Direction of fit	s - speaker, x - situation
Declarations	words change the world	S causes X
<i>E.g. I pronounce you man and wife. You're fired</i>		
Representatives	make words fit the world	S believes X
<i>E.g. It was a warm sunny day. John is a liar.</i>		
Expressives	make words fit the world	S feels X
<i>E.g. I'm really sorry. Happy birthday! (statements of pleasure, joy, sorrow, etc.)</i>		
Directives	make the world fit words	S wants X
<i>E.g. Don't touch that (commands, orders, suggestions)</i>		
Commissives	make the world fit words	S intends X
<i>E.g. I'll be back (promises, threats, pledges - what we intend to do)</i>		

J. Searle can also be merited for introducing a theory of indirect speech acts. Indirect speech acts are cases in which one speech act is performed indirectly, by way of performing another: *Can you pass me the salt?* Though the sentence is interrogative, it is conventionally used to mark a request - we cannot just answer "yes" or "no". According to modern point of view such utterances contain two illocutionary forces, with one of them dominating.

Another classification of speech acts was introduced by G.Potcheptsov. It is based on purely linguistic principles. The main criterion for pragmatic classification of utterances is the way of expressing communicative intention. This classification includes six basic speech acts:

constatives, promissives, menaces, performatives, directives and questions.

More details can be found in the book by И.П. Иванова, В.В. Бурлакова,

Г.Г. Почепцов “Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка”, С. 267-281.

Text as a unit of the highest level manifests itself as discourse in verbal communication. Therefore actual text in use may be defined as discourse. Discourses are formed by sequence of utterances. It is obvious that many utterances taken by themselves are ambiguous. They can become clear only within a discourse. Utterances interpretation, or **discourse analysis**, involves a variety of processes, grammatical and pragmatic. By pragmatic processes we mean the processes used to bridge up the gap between the semantic representations of sentences and the interpretation of utterances in context. Quite often, the sentence may be ambiguous:

His soup is not hot enough

The hearer must not only recover the semantic representation of the sentence uttered, but decide who the referential expression *he* refers to, whether the ambiguous word *hot* means *very warm* or *spicy*, whether the vague expression *his food* refers to the food he cooked, the food he brought, the food he served, the food he is eating, etc.

Besides, utterances have not only propositional content but illocutionary force, and ambiguities may arise at this level:

You're not leaving

The hearer must not only recover its explicit propositional content, but also decide whether it is a statement, a question or an order. Furthermore, utterances have not only explicit content but also implicit import:

A: Would you like some coffee? B: Coffee would keep me awake.

The hearer (A) must recover the implication that B does not want any coffee (or, in some circumstances, that he does).

Understanding the meaning of a discourse requires knowing a lot of things. There are times when people say (or write) exactly what they mean, but generally they are not totally explicit. They manage to convey far more than their words mean, or even something quite different from the meaning of their words. It was

Paul Grice who attempted to explain how, by means of shared rules or conventions, language users manage to understand one another. He introduced guidelines necessary for the efficient and effective conversation. He defined these guidelines as Cooperative Principle. **Cooperative Principle** presupposes that conversation is governed by four basic rules, **Maxims of Conversation**. There are four of them:

1. The Maxim of Quality

Do not say what you believe to be false

Do not say for what you lack adequate evidence

2. The Maxim of Quantity

Make your contribution as informative as required

Do not make your contribution more informative than is required

3. The Maxim of Relevance

Be relevant

4. The Maxim of Manner

Be clear

Be orderly

Communicative maxims make it possible to generate inferences which are defined as **conversational implicatures** and **conventional implicatures**. **Conversational implicatures** are such components of an utterance that are not expressed semantically but are understood by communicants in the process of communication: *Was it you who broke the cup?* This question presupposes: *Someone has broken the cup*. If you did not do that your normal reaction would be: *What cup?*, while the answer *I didn't do that* shows that you know about the fact. Conversational implicatures are universal, they do not depend on the language used. The second type of implicatures, conventional implicatures, are derived from a definite lexical or grammatical structure of an utterance: *I saw only John* (conventional implicature – *I didn't see anyone else*), *Even Bill is smarter than you* (*Everybody is smarter than John, John is stupid*).

Both kinds of implicatures are of great interest for discourse analysis. When

there is a mismatch between the expressed meaning and the implied meaning we deal with indirectness. Indirectness is a universal phenomenon: it occurs in all natural languages. Let us see how conversational implicatures arise from Maxims of Conversation and thus create indirectness.

A). In the following example Polonius is talking to Hamlet:

Polonius: *What do you read, My Lord?*

Hamlet: *Words, words, words.*

In this dialogue Hamlet deliberately gives less information than is required by the situation and so flouts the Maxim of Quantity. At the same time he deliberately fails to help Polonius to achieve his goals, thereby flouting the Maxim of Relevance. The Maxim of Quantity is also flouted when we say: *Law is law, woman is woman, students are students*. This makes us look for what these utterances really mean.

B). In the utterance *You're being too smart!* the Maxim of Quality is flouted and the hearer is made to look for a covert sense. Similarly, the same maxim is flouted with metaphors. If I say: *He is made of iron*, I am either non-cooperative or I want to convey something different.

C). The Maxim of Relevance can also be responsible for producing a wide range of standard implicatures:

A: *Can you tell me the time?*

B: *The bell has gone.*

It is only on the basis of assuming the relevance of B's response that we can understand it as an answer to A's question.

D). A number of different kinds of inference arise if we assume that the Maxim of Manner is being observed. The utterance *The lone ranger rode into the sunset and jumped on his horse* violates our expectation that events are recounted in the order in which they happen because the Maxim of Manner is flouted.

One more explanation of the fact why people are so often indirect in conveying what they mean was put forward by Geoffrey Leech in his book "Principles of Pragmatics". He introduces the Politeness Principle which runs as

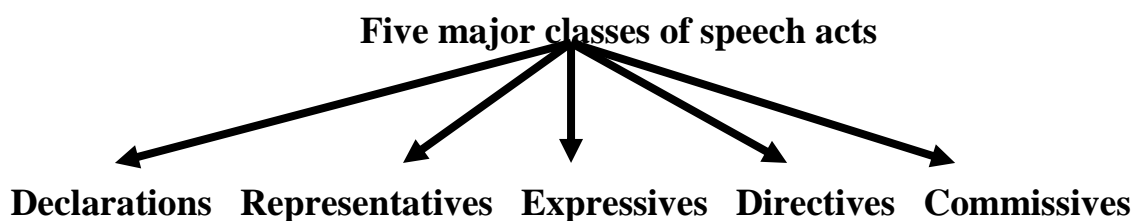
follows: Minimize the expression of impolite beliefs; Maximize the expression of polite beliefs. According to G. Leech, the **Politeness Principle** is as valid as Cooperative Principle because it helps to explain why people do not always observe Maxims of Conversation. Quite often we are indirect in what we say because we want to minimize the expression of impoliteness:

A: *Would you like to go to the theatre?*

B: *I have an exam tomorrow.* B is saying 'no', but indirectly, in order to be polite.

Five major classes of speech acts

Speech act type	Direction of fit	s - speaker, x - situation
Declarations	words change the world	S causes X
<i>E.g. I pronounce you man and wife. You're fired</i>		
Representatives	make words fit the world	S believes X
<i>E.g. It was a warm sunny day. John is a liar.</i>		
Expressives	make words fit the world	S feels X
<i>E.g. I'm really sorry. Happy birthday! (statements of pleasure, joy, sorrow, etc.)</i>		
Directives	make the world fit words	S wants X
<i>E.g. Don't touch that (commands, orders, suggestions)</i>		
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<i>E.g. I'll be back (promises, threats, pledges - what we intend to do)</i>		



Answer the following questions

1. *What type of meaning is called “referential”?*
2. *What can you say about the existing models of linguistic description?*
3. *What is the essence of the functional approach in language analysis?*
4. *What characteristics of language as a functional system?*
5. *What characteristics of the notions “system” and “structure” and other linguistic units?*

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Glossary

referential relation. The relation between a unit and an object in the world around us.

syntactic relation. The relation between a unit and other units (inner relations between units).

pragmatics. The relation between a unit and a person who uses it.

discourse. Actual text in use may be defined as discourse.

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “Theoretical grammar of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points
1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students’ competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students’ competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students’ notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn’t find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions

		are missing.
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Model of Teaching Technology in the discipline: “Theoretical grammar of the English language”

Lecture 9: Cognitive aspect of modern English grammar

Time 2 hours	Number of the students - 75
Form and type of the lecture	Introductory remarks
The plan of the lecture	<i>1. The symbolic function of language</i> <i>2. The interactive function of language speech</i> <i>3. The systematic structure of language</i>
The objective of the lecture	The objective of the lecture is to form the sum of general knowledge and ideas about The symbolic function of language , The interactive function of language speech, The systematic structure of language.
Pedagogical tasks: It is important to inform the learners about the subject of the lecture that they could form some understanding of it and be able to explain others.	The results of the lesson: Having learned this lecture the students will form understanding on the following topics: 1) The symbolic function of language , 2) The interactive function of language speech, 3) The systematic structure of language
Methods of teaching	Problematic lecture
Form of teaching	Interactive teaching
Means of teaching	Course books, manuals, handouts, posters, DVD Projector, additional

	materials.
Conditions of teaching	Lecture hall
Monitoring and Evaluation	The lecture is evaluated according to the achievements of the student.

Technological mapping of the lecture on the topic “Cognitive aspect of modern English grammar”

Stages and time of the activities	Activity	
	Instructor	Students
Stage 1	The lecturer checks the attendance of the students and prepares the class to the lecture.	The students make ready their notebooks, and other objects then wait for the beginning of the lecture.
Stage 2	The lecturer introduces the students the plan of the lecture.	The students take notes of the topic of the lecture.
Stage 3	The lecturer introduces general notions and terms used in the lecture: symbolic function of language, interactive function of language speech, concept etc.	The students take notes of the presented information.
Stage 4	The lecturer lists out the recommended literature for the topic	The students make notes of the given literature.
Stage 5	The lecturer begins his lecture.	The students attentively listen to the lecture and

	When needed he can use posters, charts, pictures and etc and explains them. Here the lecturer can check how well the students are understanding the given information.	make notes of the important points of the given information.
Stage 6	The lecture ended the teacher answers the questions of the students.	The students ask questions for the parts of the lecture that they want to clarify.
Stage 7	The lecturer tells the next topic and grades the active students and informs these students.	The students take notes of the topic of the next lecture.
Stage 8	The lecture is over.	The students leave the lecture room.

Lecture 9. COGNITIVE ASPECT OF MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Problems to be discussed

- 1. The symbolic function of language*
- 2. The interactive function of language*
- 3. The systematic structure of language*

Key words: *symbolic function of language, interactive function of language, systematic structure of language, concept.*

Cognitive linguists, like other linguists, study language for its own sake; they attempt to describe and account for its **systematicity**, its **structure**, the **functions** it serves, and how these functions are realised by the language system. However, an important reason behind why cognitive linguists study language stems from the assumption that language reflects patterns of thought. Therefore, to study language from this perspective is to study patterns of **conceptualisation**. Language offers a window into cognitive function, providing insights into the nature, structure and organisation of thoughts and ideas. The most important way in which cognitive linguistics differs from other approaches to the study of language, then, is that language is assumed to reflect certain fundamental properties and design features of the human mind. As we will see throughout this book, this assumption has far-reaching implications for the scope, methodology and models developed within the cognitive linguistic enterprise. Not least, an important criterion for judging a model of language is whether the model is psychologically plausible.

Cognitive linguistics is a relatively new school of linguistics, and one of the most innovative and exciting approaches to the study of language and thought that has emerged within the modern field of interdisciplinary study known as cognitive science.

In this chapter we will begin to get a feel for the issues and concerns of practicing cognitive linguists. We will do so by attempting to answer the following question: What does it mean to know a language? The way we approach the question, and the answer we come up with will reveal a lot about the approach, perspective and assumptions of cognitive linguists. Moreover, the view of language that we will finish with is quite different from the view suggested by other linguistic frameworks.

We take language for granted, yet we rely upon it throughout our lives in order to perform a range of functions. Imagine how you would accomplish all the things you might do, even in a single day, without language: buying an item in a shop, providing or requesting information, passing the time of day, expressing an

opinion, declaring undying love, agreeing or disagreeing, signalling displeasure or happiness, arguing, insulting someone, and so on. Imagine how other forms of behaviour would be accomplished in the absence of language: rituals like marriage, business meetings, using the Internet, the telephone, and so forth. While we could conceivably accomplish some of these things without language (a marriage ceremony, perhaps?), it is less clear how, in the absence of telepathy, making a telephone call or sending an e-mail could be achieved. In almost all the situations in which we find ourselves, language allows quick and effective expression, and provides a well developed means of **encoding** and **transmitting** complex and subtle ideas. In fact, these notions of encoding and transmitting turn out to be important, as they relate to two key functions associated with language, the **symbolic function** and the **interactive function**.

The symbolic function of language

One crucial function of language is to express thoughts and ideas. That is, language encodes and externalises our thoughts. The way language does this is by using **symbols**.

Symbols are ‘bits of language’. These might be meaningful sub-parts of words (for example, *dis-* as in *distaste*), whole words (for example, *cat*, *run*, *tomorrow*), or ‘strings’ of words (for example, *He couldn’t write a pop jingle let alone a whole musical*). These symbols consist of **forms**, which may be spoken, written or signed, and meanings with which the forms are conventionally paired. In fact, a symbol is better referred to as a **symbolic assembly**, as it consists of two parts that are conventionally associated (Langacker 1987). In other words, this symbolic assembly is a **form-meaning pairing**.

A form can be a sound, as in [kʌt]. (Here, the speech sounds are represented by symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet.) A form might be the orthographic representation that we see on the written page: *cat*, or a signed gesture in a sign language. A **meaning** is the conventional ideational or semantic content associated with the symbol. A symbolic assembly of form and meaning is represented in figure 1.1.

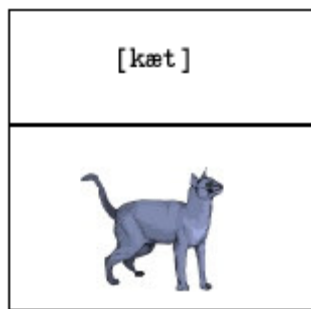


Figure 1.1 A symbolic assembly of form and meaning

It is important to make it clear that the image of the cat in figure 1.1 is intended to represent not a particular referent in the world, but the idea of a cat. That is, the image represents the meaning conventionally paired with the form pronounced in English as _____. The meaning associated with a linguistic symbol is linked to a particular mental representation termed a **concept**. Concepts, in turn, derive from **percepts**. For instance, consider a piece of fruit like a pear. Different parts of the brain perceive its shape, colour, texture, taste, smell, and so on. This diverse range of perceptual information, deriving from the world ‘out there’ is integrated into a single **mental image** (a representation available to consciousness), which gives rise to the concept of PEAR. When we use language and utter the form *pear*, this symbol corresponds to a conventional meaning, and therefore ‘connects’ to a concept, rather than directly to a physical object in the external world (see figure 1.2)

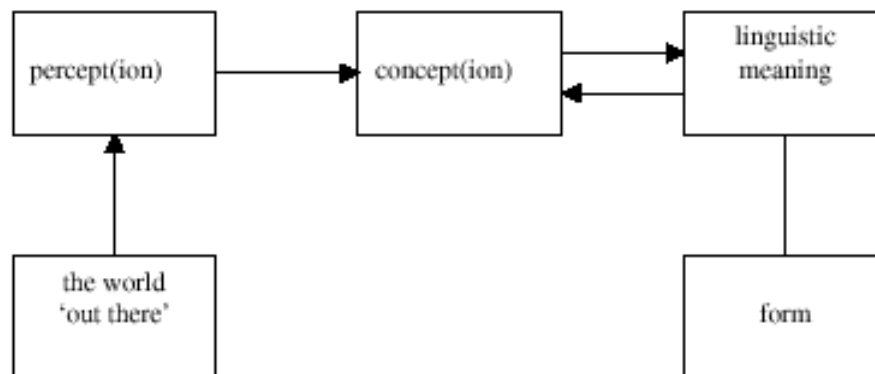


Figure 1.2 Levels of representation

Our cognitive abilities integrate raw perceptual information into a coherent and well defined mental image. The meanings encoded by linguistic symbols then, refer to our **projected reality**: a mental representation of reality, as construed by the human mind, mediated by our unique perceptual and conceptual systems.

We stated above that the symbolic function of language serves to encode and externalise our thoughts. We are now in a position to qualify this view. While our **conceptualisations** are seemingly unlimited in scope, language represents a limited and indeed limiting system for the expression of thought; we've all experienced the frustration of being unable to 'put an idea into words'. There is, after all, a finite number of words, with a delimited set of conventional meanings. From this perspective then, language merely provides **prompts** for the construction of a conceptualisation, which is far richer and more elaborate than the minimal meanings provided by language percept(ion); concept(ion); linguistic; meaning; the world; 'out there' form. Accordingly, what language encodes is not thought in its complex entirety, but instead rudimentary instructions to the conceptual system to access or create rich and elaborate ideas. To illustrate this point, consider the following illustration adapted from Tyler and Evans (2003):

(1) The cat jumped over the wall

This sentence describes a jump undertaken by a cat. Before reading on, select the diagram in figure 1.3 that best captures, in your view, the trajectory of the jump.

(a) (b) (c) (d)

We anticipate that you selected the fourth diagram, figure (1.3d). After all, the conventional interpretation of the sentence is that the cat begins the jump on one side of the wall, moves through an arc-like trajectory, and lands on the other side of the wall.

Figure (1.3d) best captures this interpretation. On first inspection, this exercise seems straightforward. However, even a simple sentence like (1) raises a number of puzzling issues. After all, how do we know that the trajectory of the

cat's jump is of the kind represented in figure (1.3d)? What information is there in the sentence that provides this interpretation and excludes the trajectories represented in figures (1.3a-c)?

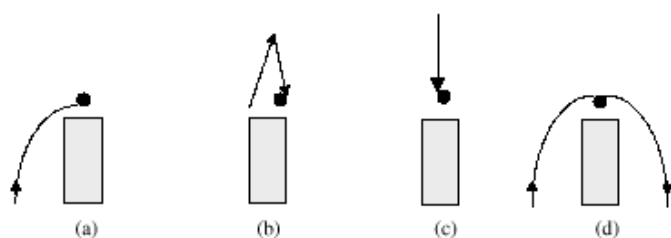


Figure 1.3 Possible trajectories for *The cat jumped over the wall*

Even though the sentence in (1) would typically be judged as unambiguous, it contains a number of words that have a range of interpretations. The behaviour described by *jump* has the potential to involve a variety of trajectory shapes. For instance, jumping from the ground to the table involves the trajectory represented in figure (1.3a). Jumping on a trampoline relates to the trajectory represented in (1.3b).

Bungee jumping involves the trajectory represented in (1.3c), in which the bungee jumper stops just prior to contact with the surface. Finally, jumping over a puddle, hurdle, wall, and so on, involves an arc-like trajectory as in (1.3d). If the lexical item *jump* does not in itself specify an arc-like trajectory, but is vague with respect to the shape of the trajectory, then perhaps the preposition *over* is responsible. However, *over* can also have a range of possible interpretations. For instance, it might mean 'across', when we walk *over* a bridge (a horizontal trajectory). It might mean 'above', when an entity like a hummingbird is *over* a flower (higher than but in close proximity to). Equally, *over* could mean 'above' when a plane flies *over* a city (much higher and lacking close proximity). These are just a few of the possibilities.

The point to emerge from this brief discussion is that *over* can be used when different kinds or amounts of space are involved, and with a number of different trajectories, or paths of motion.

Consider a further complication. Figure (1.3d) crucially represents the cat's motion ending at a point on the opposite side of the wall, relative to the starting position of the jump. Yet no linguistic element in the sentence explicitly provides us with this information. Example (1) therefore illustrates the following point: even

in a mundane sentence, the words themselves, while providing meanings, are only partially responsible for the conceptualisation that these meanings give rise to. Thought relies on a rich array of encyclopaedic knowledge (Langacker 1987). For example, when constructing an interpretation based on the sentence in (1), this involves at the very least the following knowledge: (1) that the kind of jumping cats perform involves traversing obstacles rather than bungee jumping; (2) that if a cat begins a jump at a point on one side of an obstacle, and passes through a point above that obstacle, then gravity will ensure that the cat comes to rest on the other side of the obstacle; (3) that walls are impenetrable barriers to forward motion; (4) that cats know this, and therefore attempt to circumnavigate the obstacle by going over it. We use all this information (and much more), in constructing the rich conceptualisation associated with the sentence in (1).

The words themselves are merely prompts for the construction process. So far, then, we have established that one of the functions of language is to represent or symbolise concepts. Linguistic symbols, or more precisely symbolic assemblies, enable this by serving as prompts for the construction of much richer conceptualisations. Now let's turn to the second function of language.

The interactive function of language

In our everyday social encounters, language serves an **interactive function**. It is not sufficient that language merely pairs forms and meanings. These form-meaning pairings must be recognised by, and be accessible to, others in our community. After all, we use language in order to 'get our ideas across', in other words, to **communicate**. This involves a process of transmission by the speaker, and decoding and interpretation by the hearer, processes that involve the construction of rich conceptualisations (see figure 1.4).

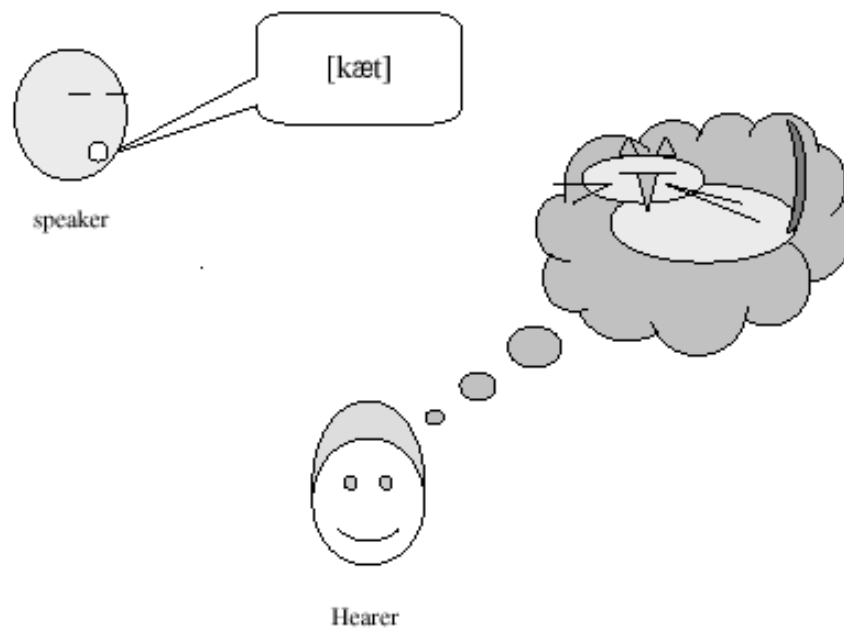


Figure 1.4 The interactive function

The messages we choose to communicate can perform various interactive and **social functions**. For example, we can use language to change the way the world is, or to make things happen:

- (2) a. I now pronounce you man and wife.
- b. Shut the door on your way out!

The utterance in (2a), spoken by a suitably qualified person (such as a member of the clergy licensed to perform marriages), in an appropriate setting (like a church), in the presence of two unmarried adults who consent to be joined in matrimony, has the effect of irrevocably altering the social, legal, and even spiritual relationship between the two people. That is, language itself can serve as a **speech act** that forever alters an aspect of our reality.

Similarly, in the example in (2b), the utterance represents a command, which is also a type of speech act. Language provides a means of communication, allowing us to share our wishes and desires. Moreover, the way in which these wishes and desires are expressed signals who we are, and what kind of relationship we have with our addressee. We would be unlikely to issue a command like (2b) to the Queen of England, for example.

Another way in which language fulfils the interactive function relates to the notion of **expressivity**. Language is ‘loaded’, allowing us to express our thoughts and feelings about the world; consider the different mental images evoked by the following expressions, which might be used by different speakers to refer to the same individual:

- (3) a. The eminent linguist
- b. The blonde bombshell

While the example in (3a) focuses on the profession of the individual, and her relative standing in that profession, the example in (3b) focuses on her physical appearance. Moreover, although both these sentences relate to a female linguist, the person’s gender cannot be inferred from the sentence in (3a) while it can from the second sentence, due to normative patterns of linguistic behaviour and social stereotypes. That is, we typically use the expression *blonde bombshell* to describe the physical attributes of women rather than men.

Language also plays a role in how we affect other people in the world, and how we make others feel by our choice of words. That is, language can provide information about **affect** (emotional response):

- (4) a. Shut up!

b. I'm terribly sorry to interrupt you, but...

These examples also illustrate the way in which we present our public selves through language. The language we choose to use conveys information about our attitudes concerning others, ourselves and the situations in which we find ourselves.

Language can be used to create scenes, or **frames** of experience, indexing and even constructing a particular context (Fillmore 1982). In other words, language use can invoke frames that summon rich knowledge structures, which serve to call up and fill in background knowledge.

(5) a How do you do?

b. Once upon a time...

The example in (5a) creates a greeting frame, signalling an acknowledgement of another person, and a recognition that this is the first time they have met. It also signals a degree of formality, which expressions like *hey*, *what's up?*, or *hi* would not. Analogously, the utterance in (5b) signals the beginning of a fairytale. In other words, just by hearing or reading the expression in (5b) an entire frame is invoked, which guides how we should respond to what follows, what our expectations should be, and so forth.

In summary, we've seen that not only does language encode particular meanings, but also that, by virtue of these meanings and the forms employed to symbolise these meanings, which constitute part of shared knowledge in a particular speech community, language can serve an interactive function, facilitating and enriching communication in a number of ways.

The systematic structure of language

Having seen some examples of what language is used for, let's now consider how language is structured. Language is a system for the expression of meaning, and for carrying out its symbolic and interactive functions. So, what evidence is there for the systematicity of language?

Language consists of symbolic assemblies that are combined in various ways to perform the functions we described in section 1. A symbolic assembly is a conventional **linguistic unit**, which means that it is a piece of language that speakers recognise and ‘agree’ about in terms of what it means and how it is used. As we will see later in the book, particularly in Part III, one of the prominent concerns in cognitive approaches to grammar is how to model the inventory of linguistic units that make up a language. For example, speakers of Modern English ‘agree’ that the form *cat* is used to refer to a certain kind of meaning, which we illustrated in figure 1.2. A conventional unit can be a meaningful sub-part of a word, which linguists call a **morpheme** (*anti-dis-establish...*), a whole word, a string of words that ‘belong’ together (a **phrase**), or a whole sentence.

Now let’s consider another example:

(6) He kicked the bucket

This utterance consists of a sentence that has an **idiomatic meaning** in English. That is, its meaning is not predictable from the integrated meanings of the individual words. A non-native speaker of English who has not learnt the ‘special’ idiomatic meaning will only be able to interpret example (6) literally. Native speakers of English, on the other hand, while also being able to interpret the sentence literally, often cannot avoid the idiomatic meaning ‘he died’. Of course, whether a literal versus an idiomatic interpretation is accessed depends on the situation or **context** in which the utterance occurs.

Focusing for now on the idiomatic interpretation, we can view this utterance as a unit that has a particular meaning associated with it. Therefore, it counts as a symbolic assembly. Another term for symbolic assembly that is employed by some cognitive linguists is **construction** (e.g., Goldberg 1995). We will look in detail at the notion of symbolic assemblies and constructions in Part III of the book.

When we change certain aspects of the sentence in (6), the meaning is affected. For example, if we change the object (the thing being kicked), as in (7), we lose the idiomatic meaning and are left with a **literal** utterance:

(7) He kicked the mop

For many cognitive linguists, what makes example (7) ‘literal’ is that this sentence ‘as a whole’ does not represent a construction. Instead, the meaning of (7) is interpreted by **unifying** the smaller units, the words. In contrast, example (6) is interpreted as a whole single unit: a construction. One way of expressing this idea in more intuitive terms is to use the metaphor of ‘storage’: suppose we store our knowledge of words, phrases and complex constructions in a mental ‘box’. The behaviour of larger constructions, like *kick the bucket*, suggests that these are stored as ‘chunks’ or single units, just like words. The meanings of sentences like (7) on the other hand, are ‘built’ by unifying the individual words that make them up.

Now consider another example. If we change the structure of example (6) in the following way, we also lose the idiomatic meaning:

(8) The bucket was kicked by him.

This example shows that, in addition to meaning, constructions (form-meaning pairings) have particular formal grammatical patterns associated with them. In other words, the properties of the construction relate not only to the individual words that make it up, as in (6), but also to the grammatical form, or **word order**. The passive construction in (8), in which *the bucket* is placed in subject position, fails to provide the idiomatic meaning associated with the sentence in (6). We can conclude from this that the linear arrangement of the words in the sentence constitutes part of an individual’s knowledge of idiomatic constructions like (6).

This point is also illustrated by an **ungrammatical** sentence, a sentence that does not correspond to any of the formal patterns associated with the constructions of English, as in (9), and consequently does not have a conventional meaning associated with it. Ungrammaticality is indicated by an asterisk:

(9) *Bucket kicked he the

As we noted above, the sentence in (6) qualifies as a construction because it consists of particular words arranged in a particular order, and these words are conventionally associated with a particular (idiomatic) meaning. However, we

have suggested that constructions can also give rise to ‘literal’ meanings. To illustrate this, we will examine another sentence that has both idiomatic and literal meanings. For instance, consider the following linguistic joke:

(10) A: Waiter, what is this fly doing in my soup?

B: I think that’s the breaststroke, sir!

This joke turns on the ambiguity between the regular interrogative construction, in which a speaker is enquiring after the intention or purpose of something or someone (*What’s that seagull doing on the roof? What’s that woman doing over there?*), and the ‘What’s X doing Y construction’, studied in detail by cognitive linguists Paul Kay and Charles Fillmore (1999), in which the speaker is indicating that a particular situation is incongruous or unacceptable (*What are you doing wearing those bunny ears? What are those clothes doing on the floor?*). Notice that each of these interpretations requires a different kind of response. For the regular interrogative construction, the response should consist minimally of a piece of information corresponding to the question word (*building a nest; waiting for a bus*). For the ‘what’s X doing Y’ construction, on the other hand, the expected response is typically an explanation, excuse or apology (*I’m going to a fancy-dress party; I’ve been busy*).

Crucially, for example (10), these two very different meanings are conventionally associated with exactly the same words arranged in the same sequence.

The humorous effect of the waiter’s reply rests on the fact that he has chosen to respond to the ‘wrong’ interpretation. While the diner is employing the ‘what’s X doing Y’ construction, the waiter prefers to respond to the interrogative construction. The examples in this section illustrate the fact that there is a systematic relationship between words, their meanings, and how they are arranged in conventional patterns. In other words, language has a systematic structure.

The systematic structure found in language reflects a systematic structure within our conceptual system? Cognitive linguists certainly think so. Cognitive linguists explore the hypothesis that certain kinds of linguistic expressions provide

evidence that the structure of our conceptual systems is reflected in the patterns of language. Moreover, as we will see throughout this book, the way the mind is structured can be seen as a reflection, in part, of the way the world (including our socio-cultural experience) is structured and organised. Consider the examples in (11).

- (11) a. Christmas is fast approaching
- b. The number of shares we own has gone up
- c. Those two have a very close friendship

These examples relate to the abstract **conceptual domains** of TIME (11a), QUANTITY (11b) and AFFECTION (11c). A conceptual domain is a body of knowledge within our conceptual system that contains and organises related ideas and experiences. For example, the conceptual domain of TIME might relate a range of temporal concepts including *Christmas*, which is a temporal event. Notice that in each sentence in (11) the more abstract concepts *Christmas*, *number (of shares)* and *friendship* are understood in terms of conceptual domains relating to *concrete* physical experience. For instance, Christmas is conceptualised in terms of the domain of physical MOTION, which is evident in the use of the word *approaching* in (11a). Clearly *Christmas* (and other temporal concepts) cannot literally be said to undergo motion. Similarly, the notion of *number of shares* is conceptualised in terms of VERTICAL ELEVATION, which is clear from the use of the phrase *gone up* in (11b). Finally, *friendship* is conceptualised in terms of PHYSICAL PROXIMITY in (11c), which is shown by the use of the word *close*.

One of the major findings to have emerged from studies into the human conceptual system is that abstract concepts are systematically structured in terms of conceptual domains deriving from our experience of the behaviour of physical objects, involving properties like motion, vertical elevation and physical proximity (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999). It seems that the language we use to talk about temporal ideas such as *Christmas* provides powerful evidence that our conceptual system ‘organises’ abstract concepts in terms of more concrete kinds of experiences, which helps to make the abstract concepts more readily accessible.

As we have begun to see, cognitive linguists form hypotheses about the nature of language, and about the conceptual system that it is thought to reflect. These hypotheses are based on observing patterns in the way language is structured and organised. It follows that a theory of language and mind based on linguistic observation must first describe the linguistic facts in a systematic and rigorous manner, and in such a way that the description provides a plausible basis for a speaker's tacit knowledge of language.

This foundation for theorising is termed **descriptive adequacy** (Chomsky 1965; Langacker 1987, 1999a). This concern is one that cognitive linguists share with linguists working in other traditions. Below, we provide an outline of what it is that linguists do, and how they go about it.

Linguists try to uncover the systems behind language, to describe these systems and to **model** them. Linguistic models consist of theories about language. Linguists can approach the study of language from various perspectives. Linguists may choose to concentrate on exploring the systems within and between sound, meaning and grammar, or to focus on more applied areas, such as the evolution of language, the acquisition of language by children, language disorders, the questions of how and why language changes over time, or the relationship between language, culture and society. For cognitive linguists, the emphasis is upon relating the systematicity exhibited by language directly to the way the mind is patterned and structured, and in particular to conceptual structure and organisation. It follows that there is a close relationship between cognitive linguistics and aspects of cognitive psychology. In addition to this, applied linguistics also informs and is informed by the cognitive linguistics research agenda in various ways.

Linguists are motivated to explore the issues we outlined above by the drive to understand human cognition, or how the human mind works. Language is a uniquely human capacity. Linguistics is therefore one of the **cognitive sciences**, alongside philosophy, psychology, neuroscience and artificial intelligence. Each of these disciplines seeks to explain different (and frequently overlapping) aspects of

human cognition. In particular, as we have begun to see, cognitive linguists view language as a system that directly reflects conceptual organisation.

As linguists, we rely upon what language tells us about itself. In other words, it is ordinary language, spoken every day by ordinary people, that makes up the ‘**raw data**’ that linguists use to build their theories. Linguists describe language, and on the basis of its properties, formulate hypotheses about how language is represented in the mind. These hypotheses can be tested in a number of ways.

Native speakers of any given human language will have strong **intuitions** about what combinations of sounds or words are possible in their language, and which interpretations can be paired with which combinations. For example, native speakers of English will agree that example (6), repeated here, is a well-formed sentence, and that it may have two possible meanings:

(6) He kicked the bucket.

They will also agree that (7) and (8), repeated here, are both well-formed sentences, but that each has only one possible meaning:

(7) He kicked the mop.

(8) The bucket was kicked by him.

Finally, and perhaps most strikingly, speakers will agree that all of the following examples are impossible in English:

(12) a. *bucket kicked he the

b. *kicked bucket the he

c. *bucket the kicked he

d. *kicked he bucket the

Facts like these show that language, and speakers’ intuitions about language, can be seen as a ‘window’ to the underlying system. On the basis of the patterns that emerge from the description of language, linguists can begin to build theoretical ‘models’ of language. A model of language is a set of statements that is designed to capture everything we know about this hidden cognitive system in a way that is principled, based on empirical evidence, and psychologically plausible.

How do cognitive linguists evaluate the adequacy of their models? One way is to consider **converging evidence** (Langacker 1999a). This means that a model must not only explain linguistic knowledge, but must also be consistent with what



cognitive scientists know about other areas of cognition, reflecting the view that linguistic structure and organisation is a relatively imprecise, but nevertheless an indicative reflection of cognitive structure and organisation. By way of illustration, consider the scene in figure 1.5.

Figure 1.5 *The cat is on the chair*

How might we use language to describe a scene like this? Most English speakers will agree that (13a) is an appropriate description but that (13b) is ‘odd’:

- (13) a. The cat is on the chair
- b. ?The chair is under the cat

Why should (13b) be ‘odd’? It’s a perfectly grammatical English sentence. From what psychology has revealed about how the human mind works, we know that we have a tendency to focus our attention on certain aspects of a visual scene. The aspect we focus on is something about which we can make certain predictions. For example, in figure 1.5 we focus on the cat rather than the chair, because our knowledge of the world tells us that the cat is more likely than the chair to move, to make a noise, or to perform some other act. We call this prominent entity the **figure**, and the remainder of the scene the **ground**, which is another way of saying ‘background’. Notice that this fact about human psychology provides us with an explanation for why language ‘packages’ information in certain ways. In (13a) *the cat* has a prominent position in the sentence; any theory of language will tell you that sentence initial position is a ‘special’ position in many of the world’s languages. This accords with the prominence of the corresponding entity in the visual scene. This explanation, based on the figure-ground distinction, also provides us with an explanation for why (13b) is ‘odd’. This is an example of how converging evidence works to strengthen or confirm theories of language. Can you think of a situation in which (13b) would not be odd?

Let's look more closely now at some of the claims made by cognitive linguists about how language is represented in the mind. We have established that the linguist's task is to uncover the systematicity behind and within language. What kinds of systems might there be within language? We'll begin to answer this question by introducing one fundamental distinction based on the foundational work of pioneering cognitive linguist Leonard Talmy. Talmy suggests that the **cognitive representation** provided by language can be divided into **lexical** and **grammatical** subsystems. Consider the following example:

(14) **The** hunter tracked **the** tigers.

Notice that certain parts of the sentence in (14) – either whole words (**free morphemes**), meaningful sub-parts of words (**bound morphemes**) – have been marked in boldface. What happens when we alter those parts of the sentence?

(15) a. **Which** hunter tracked **the** tigers?

b. **The** hunter tracks **the** tigers.

c. **Those** hunters track **a** tiger.

All the sentences in (15) are still about some kind of tracking event involving one or more hunter(s) and one or more tiger(s). What happens when we change the 'little' words like *a*, *the* and *those*, and the bound morphemes like *-ed* or *-s*, is that is that we then interpret the event in different ways, relating to information about number (how many hunters or tigers are/were there?), tense (did this event happen before now or is it happening now?), old/new information (does the hearer know which hunters or tigers we're talking about?), and whether the sentence should be interpreted as a statement or a question.

These linguistic elements and morphemes are known as **closed-class** elements and relate to the grammatical subsystem. The term *closed-class* refers to the fact that it is typically more difficult for a language to add new members to this set of elements.

This contrasts with the non-boldface 'lexical' words which are referred to as **open-class**.

These relate to the lexical subsystem. The term *open-class* refers to the fact that languages typically find it much easier to add new elements to this subsystem, and do so on a regular basis.

In terms of the meaning contributed by each of these two subsystems, while ‘lexical’ words provide ‘rich’ meaning, and thus have a **content function**, ‘grammatical’ elements perform a **structuring function** in the sentence. They contribute to the interpretation in important but rather more subtle ways, providing a kind of ‘scaffolding’ which supports and structures the rich content provided by open-class elements. In other words, the elements associated with the grammatical subsystem are constructions that contribute **schematic meaning** rather than rich contentful meaning. This becomes clearer when we alter the other parts of the sentence. Compare (14) with (16):

- (16) a. **The** movie star **kissed the** directors.
- b. **The** sunbeam **illuminated the** rooftops.
- c. **The** textbook **delighted the** students.

What all the sentences in (16) have in common with (14) is the ‘grammatical’ elements.

In other words, the grammatical structure of all the sentences in (16) is identical to that of (15). We know that both participants in the event can easily be identified by the hearer. We know that the event took place before now. We know that there’s only one movie star/sunbeam/textbook, but more than one director/rooftop/student. Notice that the sentences differ in rather a dramatic way, though. They no longer describe the same kind of event at all. This is because the ‘lexical’ elements prompt for certain kinds of concepts that are richer and less schematic in nature than those prompted for by ‘grammatical’ elements. The lexical subsystem relates to things, people, places, events, properties of things, and so on. The grammatical subsystem on the other hand relates to concepts having to do with number, time reference, whether a piece of information is old or new, whether the speaker is providing information or requesting information, and so on.

A further important distinction between these two subsystems concerns the way that language changes over time. The elements that comprise the lexical (open-class) subsystem make up a large and constantly changing set in any given human language; over a period of time, words that are no longer ‘needed’ disappear, and new ones appear. The ‘grammatical’ (closed-class) elements that make up the grammatical subsystem, on the other hand, constitute a smaller set, relatively speaking, and are much more stable. Consequently, they tend to be more resistant to change. However, even ‘grammatical’ elements do change over time. This is a subject we’ll come back to in more detail later in the book when we discuss the process known as **grammaticalisation**.

Table 1.1 provides a summary of these important differences between the lexical and grammatical subsystems. Together, these two subsystems allow language to present a cognitive representation, encoding and externalising thoughts and ideas.

Lexical Subsystem Grammatical Subsystem

Open-class words/morphemes Closed-class words/morphemes

Content function Structuring function

Larger set; constantly changing Smaller set; more resistant to change

Prompts for ‘rich’ concepts, e.g., people, things, places, properties, etc.

Prompts for schematic concepts, e.g., number, time reference, old vs. new, statement vs. question, etc.

Lexical Subsystem	Grammatical Subsystem
Open-class words/morphemes	Closed-class words/morphemes
Content function	Structuring function
Larger set; constantly changing	Smaller set; more resistant to change
Prompts for ‘rich’ concepts, e.g., people, things, places, properties, etc.	Prompts for schematic concepts, e.g., number, time reference, old vs. new, statement vs. question, etc.

Table 1.1 Properties of the lexical and grammatical subsystems

Having provided a sketch of what it means to know a language from the perspective of cognitive linguistics, we will now begin to examine the cognitive linguistics enterprise in more detail. In particular, we must consider the assumptions and commitments that underlie the cognitive linguistics enterprise, and begin to examine this approach to language in terms of its perspective, assumptions, the cognitive and linguistic phenomena it considers, its methodologies, and its approach to theory construction. We turn to these issues in the next chapter.

Answer the following questions

1. *Explain the scope of the meaning denoted by the term “conceptualisation”?*
2. *What is language for?*
3. *Tell about the essence of the encoding transmitting, symbolic and other functions of the language?*
4. *What levels of representation do you know?*
5. *What is the meaning of the term “projected reality”?*
6. *How is the interactive function of the language realised?*
7. *How is the language structured?*
8. *What does the systematic structure of thought reflect?*
9. *What do the conceptual domains related in the language contain and how do they organize ideas and experiences?*
10. *Why is Linguistics considered to be one of the cognitive sciences?*

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Glossary

1. **symbolic function of language.** *One crucial function of language is to express thoughts and ideas. That is, language encodes and externalises our thoughts. The way language does this is by using symbols.*
2. **interactive function of language.** *A process of transmission by the speaker, and decoding and interpretation by the hearer, processes that involve the construction of rich conceptualisations*
3. **concept.** *The meaning associated with a linguistic symbol is linked to a particular mental representation termed a concept.*
4. **projected reality.** *A mental representation of reality, as construed by the human mind, mediated by our unique perceptual and conceptual systems.*

Forms of Evaluating competences on the subject “Theoretical grammar of the English language

№	Evaluation form	Quantity of evaluations	Points	Total number of points

1	Written	1	2	2
Total:		1	2	2

Criteria for evaluating students' competences

Points	Mark	Degree of students' competence
0.9-1	Excellent	The student has complete and detailed notes of the lecture. The essential notions were highlighted. The student can explain general idea of the lecture topic
0.7-0.8	Good	Some points of the introduced material were noted with inaccuracy. The essential notions were highlighted.
0.5-0.6	Satisfactory	The material presented was not reflected in the students' notes. Some essential notions are not found.
0-0.4	Unsatisfactory	Major part of the lecture material didn't find its reflection in the lecture notes. Essential notions are missing.

