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fanidan

MA'RUZALAR MATNI



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LECTURE 1 (2 hours)
Theme: Introduction to «Theory of Grammar».

Plan:

1. The theoretical course of grammar.
2. Relation between Normative and Theoretical Grammar.
3. Types of grammatical description.
4. The purpose of theoretical grammar

Key words:

The structure of language, the science of the structure of the language, morphology, syntax, the most important fact, different models, the purpose of the theoretical Grammar, derived from Greek, what morph is, bound morphs, free morphs, a combination of morphs.

Questions:

1. What is the purpose of theoretical grammar?
2. How many types of grammar do we distinguish?
3. What is a model?
4. What does the word Grammar mean?
5. What is a morph?
6. Which type of grammar studies only generally accepted non disputable things?

The course of the lecture:

The term “grammar” is used in two senses: a) the structure of the language; b) the science of the structure of the language. In sense (a) grammar is part of language as it exists independently of the linguistic theory; in sense (b) it is a part of linguistic theory. All languages have “grammar” in sense (a), but “grammar” in sense (b) exists only for those languages that have been theoretically investigated. The knowledge of grammar in sense (a) is indispensable for every language user, while the knowledge of grammar as a theoretical subject is not. Traditionally, grammar is divided into morphology (the grammatical study of morphemes and words) and syntax (the grammatical study of phrases and sentences). Later, some linguists added phonology as the third component, while still others added one more component, namely, semantics.

The most important fact about the grammatical structure of language is that it's a highly complicated system, in which all its components are closely interrelated and interdependent. Thus, syntactical relations are often expressed by means of morphological forms; lack of inflexions made up by syntactical devices (such as the word order); etc.

TYPES OF GRAMMAR.

First of all we have to distinguish two types of grammar:

- 1) Normative (practical)
- 2) Theoretical

The first type of grammar studies only generally accepted non-disputable things, where as the second type studies disputable, theoretical controversial phenomena. The latter may have different types. There exist the following types of grammatical description:

1) **PRESCRIPTIVE** versus **DESCRIPTIVE**. The first tries to establish the norms of “correct” usage while the second describes objectively the grammatical phenomena of a language as they are actually observed in speech.

2) **HISTORICAL** (diachronic) versus **SYNCHRONIC**. The former traces the historical development and changes of grammatical forms and structures in time, where as the latter describes the grammatical system of a language as it exists at a given point of time (e.g. the grammar of mid-twentieth century English)

3) **COMPARATIVE** versus **CONTRASTIVE**. Comparative grammar (often also called comparative-historical) sets up correlations between grammatical forms of two or more related (cognate) languages, trying to trace back their historical developments to a common source (the so-called parent language). Contrastive grammar, on the other hand, establishes points of similarity and difference between grammatical structures of two languages, irrespective of their degree of relation (that is, regardless of whether they are closely related, distantly related or totally unrelated).

4) **TAXONOMIC** versus **GENERATIVE**. The former is analytical and inductive; it starts with linguistic data and proceeds from them to abstract categories and classes of grammatical forms. The second (also called transformational-generative) is synthetical and deductive; it starts with abstract categories and rules and proceeds from them to concrete utterance in a given language. (Barkhudarov, 1967, 22)

GRAMMATICAL MODELS.

A model is a theoretical construct which is an approximation to the object which it represents. One and the same object such as, for instance, the sentence can be represented through different models, each of which will represent certain essential properties of the sentence as it actually exists in a language. Therefore it is incorrect to argue which model is “correct and which is not”, although we can speak about the relative strength of different models. Out of various models, that one will be stronger which will represent a greater number of distinctive models. Thus, for instance, the structure of such two sentences as:

1) John saw a teacher.

2) John became a teacher.

may be represented as “Noun + Verb + Article + Noun” or, the two sentences may be represented as, respectively: 1) Noun / subject + Verb / transitive + Article + Noun / object. 2) Noun / subject + Verb linking + Article + Noun / predicative. Both models are correct, but the second is, evidently, stronger than the first, as it has a greater discriminative power. The purpose of the theoretical Grammar is to study the grammatical structure of Modern English as a system, linked with the other aspects of the language and to distinguish leading lingua-communicative tendencies of its functioning as a means of communication. Grammar is a part of linguistics studying the grammatical structure of the language.

Grammatical structure of the language is a unity of language means used for constructing speech units. Any language, as well as English serves the society, people speaking this or that language. From this point of view, language serves to express some definite information by the help of its means (units). For example, if we want to express some idea or thought in English, we have to make use of the means of it. Let’s think that some person by the name of say, John, resides in some definite place, say, London: We have to resort to the following English language means: John live London but to express the very idea it is not sufficient to utilize the given group of words. It is also necessary to

link these words with each other, that is to say, we are to formulate an utterance (sentence) out of the given words keeping to the traditional laws of the very language: if we do so, we'll get the following:

John lives in London.

what did we do, so as to construct this utterance (speech, unit) First of all, we put the words in a certain order of parts of a sentence, then we give them necessary forms (e.g. lives and not live).

In order to link the words London with the rest part of the sentence, we have to use a function word and at last we give the sentence one intonation pattern.

The term "Grammar" is of Greek origin. It is derived from Greek "grammatike techne" and means the art of writing or technique of writing. Hence, grammar is a branch of linguistics, which studies the art of writing, reading and speaking as to the Greek people. Accordingly we can say that grammar studies written and oral speech of human being. Grammar and its relations to phonetics lexicology and word-building.

These notions have to be looked upon from the point of view of language levels and linguistic branches such as phonetics, lexicology, etc.) Phoneme, morpheme, lexeme (word), phraseme (phrase) and syntaxeme (proposeme), (sentence) are the main units of language and speech. They are interconnected.

As to phonetics, in the period of early linguistic mind it was considered to be a part of grammar. Take grammar books of the XVIII-XIX centuries, for instance. Word building is not a part of grammar, because grammar doesn't study all possible ways of word formation, but it analyzes words from the point of view of the theory of parts of speech. Apart from that, we have to analyze words of a given language from the morphological and syntactical points of view.

Morphological study of a word presupposes the analyzes of a word and its structure. Hence, it's important for grammar to distinguish what a word is and what a morpheme is. The notions of morph and allomorph are also of great significance here. Let's see what units of language are found in English. Phoneme is the smallest distinctive unit: tale-take, bank-rank. So, let's see what morph is? Morph is (as to Barkhudarov L.C.) the smallest combination (succession) of phonemes (at least one phoneme) which has its certain meaning and is not further divided into minor meaningful parts, but it is so frequently repeated in various utterances.

Clear

Clear/ly

Clear/ness

Clear/ed

Clear/s

Un/clear

As we see, "clear" is the smallest meaningful combination of phonemes, hence it is a morph, where as "cl" is not a morph. If we take the morph "clear" off the structure of the above words, we'll have -, -ly, -ness, -ed, -s, un-, "they are also morphs. Prof. Barkhudarov gives these two rather interesting conclusions of the word-structure:

1. In any utterance any phoneme or combination of phonemes always enters into a morph.

2. If one part of the word is already a morph, then the second (rest) half is to be considered a morph.

Straw-berry

Goose-berry

B o u n d m o r p h s are such ones, which are cannot be used alone, when taken off the structure of the word:

by, -ed, -un, -ness, -s, -ly .

Fused morphs are:

real-ly - (riali)

Here, one “l” is pronounced so phoneme (l) found in both morphs, “real” and in “-ly” in the word “really” ”-l” is a fused morph, and the phenomenon itself is called fusion – (фузия).

F r e e m o r p h s are the ones that can be used alone as one word when taken off the structure of the word:

Class-room

Bed-room

Baby-sit

Air-craft, etc.

Where as bound ones are the morphemes that can't be used alone, if taken off the structure of the word.

M o r p h e m e is a combination of morphs having one and the same meaning and found in the relations of complementary distribution. One excludes to other below:

Clear	clarity	clarity –	is not possible
Clearly	clarify	clearness –	is neither
Clearness			

The above morphemes (clear-, clar-, pleas-) are the ones that have the meanings of «ясность», «удовольствие». Here “clar-” and “clear,” as well as “pleas-” are morphs that enter into one and the same distribution, or (-e-, -s, -en, -a) make up one morpheme of plurality, the former being called allomorphs (variants of it).

Man -men

Boy-boys the morphs “-e“, “-s”, “en”

Ox -oxen

Phenomenon-phenomena and “-a” are in complementary distribution

Clear

Cl - are allomorphs of one and the same morpheme

Ir - are allomorphs in the words “irregular”

In - indifferent

foot – feet these are allomorphemical combinations

man – men

They are non-productive, because they are seldom used in the language, «-s» as in «boy-s», «text-s», «chess-es» are allomorphs phonemically conditioned . They are productive, because they are frequently used in the language.

Sheep – singular

Sheep – plural are the same, because of z e r o m o r p h .

“Lexeme” or “word” is a combination of morphemes (in the simplest form – one morpheme) into which there can't be included any other such combination of morphemes. Take “Unreasonable”, we can't insert anything here. So it is a word, a whole indivisible unit. We can speak of a phraseme, syntaxeme and texteme as language units.

Lecture 2.

Theme: PARTS OF GRAMMAR

Plan:

1. The main parts of grammar.
 - a) Morphology.
 - b) Syntax.
2. The interrelationship and boundary lines between them.
3. The notion of grammatical category.
4. The notion of grammatical form.
5. The notion of grammatical meaning.
6. Grammatical categories in Modern English.

Key words:

Words and their forms, phrases and sentences, synthetic types, analytical types, the basic notions of grammar, lexico-grammatical meaning, case and number categories, different functions, predicativity, modality, negopositivity, grammatical meaning, grammatical form, grammatical function, grammatical category.

Questions:

1. What types of word form derivation are there in English grammar?
2. What are the basic notions of grammar?
3. What meaning is common to all members of a given class of words?
4. How do we realize a grammatical meaning?
5. Which forms of the verbs are subject to more debates?
6. What is the grammatical function?
7. How may a grammatical category be represented?
8. What grammatical categories has the verb?

The course of the lecture:

There are two parts of grammar: morphology and syntax.

Morphology is a part of grammar which studies words and their forms and grammatical categories and functions.

Syntax is a part of grammar that studies phrases and sentences and their structure and functions.

1. Paradigmatic morphology: boy-boys-boy's-boys'
2. Syntagmatic morphology: their usage in speech

1. Paradigmatic syntax:

I have done

I have not done

“I will have done” are paradigmas of the sentence “I do”.

2. Syntagmatic syntax (their usage in concrete speech).

TYPES OF WORD-FORM DERIVATION

1. Synthetic types: child – ren
ox - en

- boy – s
short – er – est
2. Sound alternation: man-men
goose-geese
mouse-mice
3. Analytical types: word form is used to express some grammatical category
- interesting-more interesting
to invite-is invited, has been invited, had been, invited, etc
4. Suppletive Forms:
good-better-best
bad-worse-worst
go-went-gone
5. Grammatical homonymy:
(have) has-auxilliary verb
(have)has-notional
coming-gerund
coming-participle
coming-verbal noun
- er – writer
- er – smaller
- clear-verb
clear-adjective

All lexical meanings , for example, of the word “runs” inherent in the word “run in” is running , will,(shall)run, has run, etc. united into one group called lexeme. The group in which “stands, lives, comes” are united on the basis of grammatical meanings is called grammeme.

The basic notions of grammar are: grammatical category and grammatical meaning, grammatical form and grammatical function.

Grammatical category is the unity of two (or more) grammatical forms, contrasted to each other or correlated with each other as to one and the same grammatical meaning.

As to Jigadlo, a grammatical category is the unity of grammatical meaning and grammatical form.(See:Жигадло и др. Современный английский язык, М. 1956. Стр.18)

Grammatical meaning is a general (typical)meaning common to all members of a given class of words or constructions:

- nouns-thingness or substance
verbs-action (process)
adjectives-quality/quantity: cause-because of, etc.

Grammatical form is the (constant, successive) way of expressing the grammatical meaning.

For example: grammatical category of number in nouns -s, -en, -a, -es – нулевая форма (sheep) So, grammatical form means morphological characteristics of a type of

word, phrase, sentence. By grammatical function we mean the syntactical properties (combinability) of language units.

Nouns are characterised by the lexico-grammatical meaning of substance of thingness:

Book
Desk = thingness.

Nouns have certain forms depending on the case and number categories:

Father – father’s -fathers child – children’s-children

Note: some nouns have invariable forms:

Singular:	plural:
Sheep	sheep
Deer	deer

Nouns may have different functions in the sentence:

- a) subject: The man is old
- b) predicative: That is a boy
- c) object: I see a girl
- d) attribute: A woman teacher is nice
- e) apposition: King Lear was ill

There may also be adverbial functions of the nouns within a prepositional phrase: The boy is sitting in the room, etc.

Nouns have some grammatical categories:

- a) category of case: father-father’s
- b) category of number: mother-mothers.

As to the so called category of gender we must say that the nouns have no category of gender, for “-ess” has become today non-productive:

Poet-poet+ess tiger-tiger+ess

Sure, we can’t form the following now:

Professor-professor+ess; teacher-teacher+ess

When we speak of the categories of the parts of speech, especially of the verb, we should characterize the latter extensively, analyzing all possible grammatical categories of it: category of tense, voice, mood, order, aspect, person, number posteriority, finitude, negopositivity, etc, the last three of which are subject to more debates and disputes than to decisions, which will be discussed in detail in the chapters devoted to the verb.

When such notions of grammar as grammatical meaning, grammatical form, grammatical function and grammatical categories of language units are investigated, we should, by all means, consider grammatical meaning, form, function and categories of syntactical units as well, especially of the sentence. So, let’s analyze the sentence given below:

I work at the university.

1. The sentence has certain semantics (meaning) of its own, it expresses some position or customary event relating to one’s work.

2. The forms of the sentence can be demonstrated paradigmatically:

I work at the university.
I worked at the university.
I will work at the university.
I have worked

3. The function of this sentence can be seen from its combinability with other sentences or constructions larger than the latter: "I work at the university" may enter the structure of another sentence: 1. I work at the university which is famous for its tradition. 2. I work at the university which is famous for its traditions that go as far as the ancient times.

Entering the structure of another sentence the above sentence fulfills certain functions as to the meaning of it: as an antecedent or so.

4. When grammatical categories of the above sentence are touched upon one should consider the following: 1. predicativity (represented by a subject-predicate structure); 2. modality (expressed by mood forms or modal verbal forms or even by modal words); 3. negopositivity realized through a finite verb and so on and so forth. Now let's sum up our understanding of the grammatical meaning, form, function and category.

B y g r a m m a t i c a l m e a n i n g we understand an abstract, typical meaning common to all members of a given word class or language units, constructions.

For example: "boy, girl, teacher" Have one typical meaning of thingness or substance; it is a lexico-grammatical meaning common to all nouns in English.

B y g r a m m a t i c a l f o r m we understand possible ways of changing a word so as to get a new form out of the old one. In other words a grammatical form is the way or ways of realization of a grammatical meaning: boy-boy's, boys-boys'.

B y g r a m m a t i c a l f u n c t i o n we understand concrete cases of realization of a grammatical meaning. For example:

boy as a subject: The boy is playing.

as an object: I see the boy.

B y g r a m m a t i c a l c a t e g o r y we understand the unity of grammatical form and meaning, represented by at least two opposemes: for example: boy-boy's

A grammatical category may be represented by more than one form, may be even more than ten. For example, a verb has sixteen tense forms, two voice forms, three mood forms and some voice, aspect forms. For example:

to work – to be worked

We may speak of active and passive forms, as well as affirmative and negative forms, there being more than 60 forms of the verb.

to go – not to go, goes – is gone

Sure, we can speak today of grammatical categories of parts of speech as well as of sentences as language units.

LECTURE 3 (2 hours)

Theme: Theory of Parts of speech and their classification

Plan:

1. Theory of Parts of speech in ME.
2. The main criteria for classifying Parts of speech in ME:
 - a) meaning
 - b) form
 - c) function
3. The notion of
 - a) principal (notional) parts of speech
 - b) secondary (functional) parts of speech
4. The total number of the Parts of speech in ME.

Key words:

Strict principles and strict criteria, the very phenomenon, different approaches, the first author of the English scientific Grammar, O. Jespersen's classification, an original approach, Fries's classification, J. Trager and Smith offers, H. Glison's opinion, , B. A. Ilysh,'s division, Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's offers, Ivanova, Burlakova, Pocheptsov's classification ..

Questions:

1. What main criteria are the parts of speech characterized by?
2. Who is the first author of the English scientific grammar?
3. What criteria O. Jespersen's classification is based on?
4. How many parts of speech did Fries distinguish?
5. What was Glison's opinion on the theory of parts of speech?
6. How many parts of speech did Ilysh offer?
7. What are Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's opinions?
8. How many parts of speech does Jigadlo distinguish?
9. What criteria must be kept as to Barkhudarov?
10. What conclusion are the Russian scholars arrived at?

The course of the lecture.

The parts of speech theory is one of the vexed and controversial problems in linguistics.

In the history of linguistics there were made many attempts to create a solid theory of parts of speech on the basis of strict principles and strict criteria. But none of those attempts has as yet proved right and generally been accepted. Still there is no generally accepted classification of parts of speech in linguistics as well as in Modern English. It is because of the lack of strict criteria for their classification, hence are differences in the nomenclature of parts of speech.

It is very important, first of all, to define the very phenomenon called parts of speech. Here is our attempt to give a definition of a part of speech in Modern English. So, a part of speech is, a class or a group of words (or one word in its simplest form) characterized by the following 3 main criteria:

1. Meaning
2. Form.
3. Function,

as well by a grammatical category, if the part of speech has a changeable form. It is, then, right to postulate that parts of speech that are inchangeable in form have no grammatical category at all.

We shall analyze different approaches to the parts of speech in English. The first author of the English scientific Grammar Henry Sweet (1898) divides parts of speech into two main groups:

1. declinables
2. indeclinables (or particles)

So, his classification is based mainly on the morphological criteria. Here he distinguished the following parts of speech:

1. declinables:
 - a) noun; b) adjectives; c) verbs.
2. indeclinables:

- a). adverbs; b) prepositions;
- c). conjunctions; d).interjections.

Besides his classification of parts of speech based on morphological criteria he offers another classification based on syntactical criteria:

DEC 1.noun-words: noun, pronoun, noun-numeral,

LIN 2.adjective-words: adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participle.

ABLE 3.verbs: finite verb, verbalize (infinitive, gerund, participle).

Indeclinable (particles): adverb, preposition, conjunction, Interjection.

As we see, the first attempt to classify the words in English into parts of speech is very interesting. But it has its weak points, which lie in the following:

1. It covers not all the parts of speech, for example, articles, adlinks (words of category of state) etc. are excluded here altogether.
2. His indeclinable parts of speech have words which may be declined: for example, adverbs, (fast, faster, fastest).
3. Among his declinables not all of them are declined (numerals, one, two, three, ten, twenty, etc)

Let's see O. Jespersen's classification; (he is a Dutch linguist) He suggests classifying words as to their functions though he says, that not only function, but meaning and form of words have also to be considered here:

primary words

secondary words

tertiary words

As, for example: in the word combination "A furiously barking dog". In this he calls the word "dog" primary, because it may serve as a nucleus word or subject of a sentence: the word "barking" is secondary, "furiously" is the tertiary one. Here we see strict subordination (syntactical one) of one word to another. So, here his classification is based on form, meaning and function of the words:

1. Substantives (including proper names)
2. Adjectives

Note: in some respects, as to Jespersen, parts of speech number one and two may be classed together with "nouns".

3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs)
4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbals" (non-finite forms)
5. Particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections).

As to Jespersen the last group (5) can not be included into any four (above given classes).

As we see this classification is not full either. It does not include the modal words, adlinks (words of category of state of "afraid" type).

An original approach to the classification of parts of speech was made by Charles Fries (1956) in his book "The Structure of English". His classification is based on one criteria the position of words in the sentence. He distinguished four main word classes, which correspond to traditional "nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs".

"The concert was good "(always) by form main parts of speech he means all the words that can substitute them. Besides that Fries distinguished 15 word group, with different positions in the sentence. They correspond to the traditional functional parts of

speech. This way, Fries distinguishes four main parts of speech that make up, as to him, 67 percent of the language vocabulary. The sentence type “the (good) concert was good (always)” was a pattern for him to include this or that word into this or that class. Fries’s classification is interesting but not full, for there are cases when his word classes do not work properly. Say, for instance, modal verb makes up words group B, though they function together with the infinitive predicatively. Here, as one can see, both the morphological and syntactical criteria are fully ignored, position of words being more important in this respect. Later J. Trager and Smith offered their classification of parts of speech based on morphological and syntactical features/criteria. But their theory did not provide full coverage of English word stock either. Here is H. Glison’s opinion of the parts of speech. His classification is based on the two criteria:

1. Morphological form
2. Position/ order of words

The whole language word stock is divided by him into two main groups:

1. Words, which change their form (declinable)
 2. Words, which don’t change their form (indeclinable)
- It is like Henry Sweet’s classification. The first group includes nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. But he exchanged all words belonging to the aforesaid parts of speech, if they don’t change or are indeclinable:

For example: he, her, him, his.

But some, any, no, nothing, every, each, its, myself, himself etc. are included into “pronominals” only. As we see here some words enter a different group, which shows that this theory is not a happy one either.

J. Sled’s (1959) classification is close to Glison’s. He distinguishes two main types of parts of speech:

- 1) Inflectional classes of words
- 2) Positional classes of words

To the first class of words belong noun, pronoun, verb, adjective and adverb, to the second-nominals, verbals, adjectivals, adverbials (altogether 4) and 8 more smaller positional classes: determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, relatives, interrogatives, intensives-flexives, auxiliaries, adverbials of degree. Paul Roberts avoids altogether classifying the words into parts of speech, because, as he thinks, in a real language it is only rarely that word classes or other structures are signaled by some simple and unique signals. The Russian linguists have suggested more acceptable classification of words of the English language into parts of speech. Among them the ideas of B.A. Ilysh and S. Barckudarov’s approaches are more convincing and pretend to be full. As to B.A. Ilysh the three main factors – criteria must lie under the classification of parts of speech.

- They are:
- 1) meaning (semantics)
 - 2) form (paradigm of a word)
 - 3) function (syntactic function)

He offers 12 parts of speech:

- 1) the noun
- 2) the adjective
- 3) the numeral
- 4) the pronoun
- 5) the stative

- 6) the verb
- 7) the adverb
- 8) the preposition
- 9) the conjunction
- 10) the particle
- 11) the modal verb
- 12) the interjection

Besides that, he registers some words, which do not fit into any other group of parts of speech such as yes, no, please, almost, very, nearly does not give articles in the list of part of speech, he calls them noun-determiners. It's interesting. But we accept article as a separate functional part of speech, because it has its status of a part of speech and may be added not only to nouns, but to other parts of speech as well (adjectives, numeral, etc.)

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya offer 14 parts of speech:

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------|
| 1) noun; | 8) conjunction; |
| 2) adjective; | 9) preposition; |
| 3) pronoun; | 10) interjection; |
| 4) adverb; | 11) article; |
| 5) numeral; | 12) particle; |
| 6) verb; | 13) modal words; |
| 7) statives; | 14) response words: yes, no |

Ivanova, Burlakova, Pocheptsov offer 13 parts of speech:

1. noun
2. adjective
3. pronoun
4. numerals
5. verb
6. adverb
7. modal words
8. interjection
8. words not included
10. function response
11. conjunction
12. particle
13. article

Here are some other approaches to the English parts of speech.

Jigadlo distinguishes 13 parts of speech:

1. noun
2. adjective
3. numeral
4. pronoun
5. verb
6. statives
7. adverb.
8. Modal words
9. Interjection (notional)
10. Prepositions

11. conjunction
12. particles
13. articles (function words)

W. N. Francis (in “The Structure of American English” N, York, 1958) stresses that there are only 4 main parts of speech (function parts of speech are excluded here), for they are helpers to the notional parts of speech and have to be treated separately).

- 1) noun; 2) verb; 3) adjective; 4) adverb.

J. Sledd (A Short Introduction to English Grammar, Glenview, Illinois, 1959) distinguishes only two classes (types) of parts speech.

Inflectional classes (paradigmatically) (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb), distinguished as to the affixes in their structure “King+dom, patience, presence teach+er, act+or etc”.

Positional classes (as to their position in the sentence).

- 1) nominals
- 2) verbals
- 3) adjectival
- 4) adverbials and 8 smaller positional classes;
 - a) determiners;
 - b) prepositions;
 - c) conjunctions;
 - d) relatives;
 - e) interrogatives;
 - f) intensive-reflexives;
 - g) axillaries;
 - h) adverbials of degree.

As we –see there are a lot of opinions on one and the same thing: number of parts of speech and their types. Among the abovementioned, as it seems, the most adequate classification is of Khaimovich and Rogosovskayas. (14 parts of speech, with “Response words” at the end of the classification). It is up to a learner to follow this or that grammarian or work out his or her own classification of parts of speech.

L.S. Barkhudarov thinks that in classifying the words into parts of speech the two criteria must be kept to:

1. syntactical
2. morphological

He severely criticized the traditional classifications of parts of speech for observing only the semantic criteria. He offers the same traditional parts of speech. There were attempts to classify words of a language into:

- 1) notional parts of speech;
- 2) functional parts of speech.

It is linked with the fact, that a word can express some semantics (meanings) alone or where as some are fully grammaticalized: if he came, would you do it? We find this in the latest classifications in English “Positions” as a part of speech was offered by Ilyish, Pocheptsov, Ivanova, etc., as in the following cases:

to go away – away to go up – up to clear up – up

As to the words like “up”, “away”, we think that they are prepositions, but can be used alone in the postpositions, but ‘come in’ means “Come in to the room”, “Go away” means “Go away from home”, where they are not at all “prepositions”.

R.Quirk, G.Greenbaum distinguish postpositive like “elect” in president elect, “proper” in the city of London proper, (See: R.Quirk, G, Greenbaum, 1981 p.109) Among them Russian scholars occupy a conspicuous place. The distinguished feature of the

Russian scholars investigations lies in the fact that they base themselves on three main criteria in classifying words of the English language into parts of speech:

meaning (semantics)

form (paradigm) (their ability to combine with the function

other parts of speech, to enter the phrase and sentences)

There arises naturally a question “What about certain parts of speech that do not have all these features?” Certainly not. Here one thing is definitely clear that at least one of the three criteria is obligatorily characteristics of any part of speech. As to the nomenclature of the parts of speech most of the Russian scholars stick to the following list of parts speech:

1. noun

2. article

3. adjective

4. pronoun

5. numeral

6. words of category of state (statives or adlinks)

7. adverb

8. prepositions

9. conjunction

10. particle

11. modal words

12. interjection

13. words not included into the parts of speech (yes, no, please)

14. postposition (послелог) (Ilyish-first, Pochepstov, Ivanova) : up, down, in, etc., in such cases as: stand up, sit down, come in, etc.

In this list one can distinguish the so called notional and functional parts of speech. But it is not so happy a division, because there ‘no logic and no ground in it, and it depend on the use of this or that part of speech. However, in fact lexical meaning (semantics) lies under this division. Sure, some words classified as separate parts of speech may not have and in fact do not have their own semantics e. g. That (conjunction) should, would (auxillaries) etc. They can function in the sentence together with the other words, which is the thing that makes them semantically charged. Though they have no lexical meaning of their own, as to their functions in the necessary context, distribution they equal rights with the notional parts of speech, because not a single notional part of speech can replace the functional ones, or vice versa.

The above said serves as the ground for denying the division of parts of speech into “notionals”, besides that not all the notional parts of speech can be independantly used (modal verbs, non-finite forms etc).As to those words which are called “doubtful” we have our own treatment of them. The words of the type ,yes, no, please, almost, very, nearly, etc., can be treated as follows. We accept Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya’ treatment of words “yes”, “no” as response words, we would rather call them “responsives” by analogy of “statives” or adlinks. As far as the word “please” is concerned to offer the term “requestive”, for it expresses “request” only. The words of the type “almost, nearly” can be called “approximitives” or even approximation. So, now it is high time to summ up our analysis of the parts of speech in Modern English. Our observations show that there are the following 16 parts of speech. noun

1. pronoun
2. adjective
3. verb
4. numeral
5. modal words
7. words of category of state (stative)
8. interjection (ah, alas, oh)
9. particle
10. article
11. conjunction
12. preposition
13. responsive (yes, no)
14. requestive (please)
15. approximator (almost, nearly) or approximative
16. adverb

LECTURE 4 (2 hours)

Theme: The Noun and it's Grammatical Categories.

Plan:

1. Noun as a principal part of speech.
2. Structural types of the noun.
3. Semantical types of the noun.
4. Grammatical categories of the noun:
 - a) case,
 - b) number,
 - c) gender.

Key words:

Peculiar to all nouns, simple nouns, derivative or derived, compound nouns, category of number, nouns of the singularia tantum, nouns of the pluralia tantum, collective nouns, nouns of «multitude», grammatical category of case, definition of case, Max Deutschbein's thoughts, Ilyish's suggestion, Vorontsova's and Henry Sweet's offers.

Questions:

1. What does the noun express?
2. How many nouns are classified structurally?
3. What types of nouns are distinguished according to their meaning?
4. What grammatical categories has the noun?
5. How do we call the nouns having only singular form?
6. How many cases does Max Deutschbein think?
7. What was Ilyish's opinion on the possessive case?
8. What is the category of case?
9. What does Vorontsova consider about the category of case?
10. How many cases does H. Sweet offer?

The course of lecture:

Noun is part of speech, expressing the meaning of thingness, some linguists call it – substantive.

We shall analyze the nouns as to the above mentioned 3 criteria:

5. verb+pronoun-particle- forget-me-nots
6. noun+preposition - passers-by
7. adjective+verb affix - blackmailer, blackmarketer
8. noun+verb+affix - bookseller, babysitter, aircraft carrier

2. Semantically :

- 1) proper nouns
- 2) common nouns

Common nouns can be semantically classified into:

- a) class nouns – student, worker, doctor, pen, pencil
- b) collective nouns – jury, crew. Board, committee, police
- c) material nouns – silk, cotton, wood, gold, copper
- d) abstract nouns – idea, aim, love, purpose

We shall further analyze the categories of the nouns. Before that let's make out what is grammatical category itself again. Grammatical category is the unity of all existing contrasting forms, which exclude one another. It is always based on opposition of at least two forms of morphological character, which does within the paradigmatic line. (It is a change of word form and not word coinage).

cat	cats
man	men
child	children
ox	oxen
criterion	criteria
formulas	formula

English nouns have two main grammatical categories:

1. category of number
2. category of case
3. the problem of category of gender is still disputable because the “-ess” is not productive today in Modern English

actor	actress
poet	poetess
wolf	a-he wolf
wolf	a-she wolf
a woman teacher	a man teacher
a female teacher	a male teacher

NUMBER

Let's analyze the category of number of nouns. The category of number of nouns is represented by the two opposite forms or opposemes:

- 1) Singular – boy
- 2) Plural - boys

This doesn't mean that all the nouns obligatorily have both the singular and plural forms, because in English we have the two main types of nouns:

- 1) nouns of the singularia tantum (singular only);
- 2) nouns of the pluralia tantum (plural only).

To the first group of nouns we refer the nouns having only the singular form, for example:

Milk

Butter
Bread
Sugar
wine
iron
meat
water
fish, etc.

If we want to express some quantity of the nouns of the type “sugar, bread, meat” we have to use the word “piece”, for example: a piece of bread, two pieces of sugar, etc. Among the nouns in the above list we must consider “wine” and “fish” separately, because when used in the sentence these nouns always agree with the predicate in singular. But there are some cases when they have the plural form as “wines, fishes”. Here we deal with different sorts of the phenomena in question. Sometimes the word “water” may also be used in plural, but this use is more stylistical than anything else. Example:

The waters of the Atlantic Ocean

The waters of the Andijon region are very pleasant

The word “beauty” may also be used in plural:

The beauties of the native land are amazing.

His daughters are all beauties (stylistical usage).

The group of nouns belonging to the pluralia tantum have singular forms which makes them opposite to the nouns of the singularia tantum, for example:

mathematics

physics

phonetics

linguistics

arithmetics

politics

ricketts - рахит

trousers - шим

scissors - кайчи

environs - чор-атроф, мухит

drags - лукмалар, колдиклар, чукинмалар

outskirts - четлари, окраины.

These nouns have no singular form at all. But they agree with the predicate differently. Such nouns as physics, politics, phonetics, linguistics, etc., agree with the predicate in singular.

Physics is a science.

Linguistics is advancing.

The nouns of the type: measles, mumps, ricketts and trousers, scissors, environs, etc., always agree with the predicate in plural: the measles are dangerous (“the” is always used before diseases in pluralia tantum).

My trousers are very long.

These scissors are very tough.

If we want to make out the number of trousers or scissors etc, we have to use the word “pair”: I have two pairs of trousers or scissors and never two scissors or “trousers”.

In English some scholars (Ilyish) and others distinguish “collective nouns” and nouns of “multitude”.

There are certain groups of nouns, denoting group of human beings (family, government, people, party, committee, board, jury, clergy, etc.) and of animals (cattle, poultry, swine, sheep) can be used in two ways:

1) If they are used to denote the group as a single whole as some unit then they are in singular and called “collective nouns”.

The government of Great Britain condemns the policy of hostile actions of the USA in Africa .

2) If they are used to denote groups consisting of different human beings or animals (here the number of the representatives is stressed), they agree with the predicate in plural and then called as nouns of “multitude”, preceded by the definite article:

3) The boards are here.

The committee are discussing the matter.

Two people come home late.

Two peoples are fighting for peace.

In modern English we can give the definite nomenclature of the allomorphs of the morpheme of the plurality:

They are: - s

Boy-boys

- en

Ox-oxen

Child-children

Morpheme changing of the vowel

- e

man-men

woman-women

- a

datum-data

memorandum memoranda

- ei

nucleus-nuclei

- ae

formula-formulae, formulas.

(Only here a new way of forming plurality is expressed (formulas)).

The category of number of nouns is a universal category peculiar to any noun in any language.

In Modern English we have the following types of nouns:

1) nouns having both numbers

ncopper - coppers – медки, жисмлар

tin - tins - консервные банки,

hair - hairs - волос(ки), соч толалари

youth - youths - юноши, йигитлар

custom - customs- обычаи, урф-одатлар

color - colors - цвета, ранглар

people - people - народы, халклар

- work - works - произведения, асарлар
 green -зеленный цвет greener
 advice - совет adviser
 damage - вред, убыток damager
- 2) nouns having only singularia tantum
 copper - медь, мис
 tin - оловотжесть, калай
 hair - волосы (материал волос), жун
 youth - молодеж, ешлар
- 3) nouns having only pluralia tantum
 acoustics - (акустика)
 glasses - очки
 greens - зелень, овощь

CASE

The grammatical category of case is a very disputable question and grammarians express different views on the category of case. The mostly excepted view is that noun has 2 cases: common and possessive.

1. Others think that there are more than 2 cases in the English nouns: 3, 4, 5, or even indefinite quantity.

2. Some think that there are no case form of nouns in English, because it is no longer a case inflexion, as it may be added not only to nouns, but to other parts of speech as well: to adverbs, prepositions, etc.: yesterday's, with' s.

Definition of case: Case is the category of nouns expressing relations between the thing denoted by the noun and other things, or properties, or actions, and manifested by some formal thing in the noun itself.

Max Deutschbein thinks that there are 4 cases in nouns: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative (by word order) "with the pen" should be as to this conception "an instrumental case" of nouns which Ilyish fully denies, because in the pen – should be, locative then.

Ilyish says with a little doubt that there should be only two cases: common and genitive. It is really doubtful, if we consider the following: Oxford professor is of poetry's lecture, King of England's residence. The man I saw yesterday's(s) son came somebody else's house (adverb). This girl in my class's father is a worker. The blond I've been dancing with's name was Berna. I never knew the woman who spoke too loudly's name as Jackson, in which the possessive case inflexion is no longer added to the nouns only as it seen from the above cases.

3. Ilyish says there's no case at all because "s" can be added even to adverbs; "yesterday's events" or:

"The man who speaks quickly's speech is not good".

4. Vorontsova considers "-s" as a postposition functioning as a syntactical element of dependancy and it is then a morpheme, which speaks for its not being a case inflection, so there's no case as to her. But there's a case system in English with ending "-s" in most of the nouns.

Henry Sweet (1998, 50-52) thinks that there are the following cases of the English nouns.

1. Nominative: in "The earth is round".

2. Vocative: in “Sir!” (a sentence case).
3. Accusative: in ‘The man saw the boy’.
4. Dative: in “She gave my sister a book”
5. Genitive: in “John’s, day’s”
6. Common: in “Man, men”

If we sum up the above described, we must assume that there are only two existing cases of the English nouns:

1. Common (John)
2. Genitive (possessive) (John’s)

There is no ground for other cases to be accepted here, because we are not to go out of the boundaries of a noun class, and describe such features as dative, accusative, etc.,

LECTURE 4 (2 hours)

Theme: Pronouns and their grammatical categories.

Plan:

1. Pronouns and their types.
2. Grammatical categories of the Pronouns.
 - a) number
 - b) case
 - c) gender

Key words:

Grammatical meaning of “reference”, may replace, Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya, as to Ivanova, by Hoshimov G.M, G.M. Hoshimov’s structural classification, functions of the pronouns, the problem of “gender”, the category of case.

Questions:

1. What does the pronoun mean?
2. How many types may pronouns be classified as to Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya?
3. What was Ivanova’s opinion?
4. What grammatical categories have the pronouns?
5. How does Hoshimov structurally classify the pronoun?
6. What functions can pronoun perform in the sentence?
7. How is the category of gender of pronouns represented?
8. Is the category of case typical for all pronouns?

The course of the lecture:

Pronoun is a primary part of speech, denoting substances. qualities, quantities, circumstances, etc. not by naming or describing, but indicating them, pointing to them.

If has the grammatical meaning of “reference”, indication. It is known as a dietic means of language. “Pronoun” means “a word “ used instead of a noun. In fact pronouns may replace not only nouns, but also numerals, adverbs, adjectives etc. Jack (he). thirty (many) books,.at home (here, there), at present (now), later (then), his (good) book, our (hard) work, so they can function instead of them, so we may say that there are not only pronouns, but also proadjectives, proadverbs, pronumerals, which can be used instead of the afore mentioned parts of speech (adjective) adverb, numeral, etc.

1. pronouns –

- | | |
|----|------------|
| he | Jack |
| we | Jack and I |
2. proadjectives –

other book	good book
this bike	Nick's bike
 3. proadverbs –

there, here	at the institute
now, then	at present, at that moment
 4. pronomeral –

several books	fifty books
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As to their structure pronouns may be classified: into 12 types (as to Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya's) classification.

1. personal
2. possessive
3. reflexive
4. demonstrative
5. interrogative
6. connective – (who, what, which, whose, that, where, when, why, how)
7. reciprocal – (each other, one other)
8. indefinite – (some, any, somebody('s), anybody('s), someone('s), something, anything, somewhere, somehow, anyhow)
9. negative – (no, nobody, none, nothing, neither, nowhere)
10. generalising – (all, both, each, either, every, everything, everybody, everywhere)
11. quantitative – (much, many, few, little, several)
12. contrasting – other (others, other's, others') another (another's), otherwise, etc.

Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya think that the pronouns of the type "one, one's, oneself" may belong to more than one group at the same time.

- For ex. whose -
- 1) interrogative (connective)
 - 2) possessive

one - generalising, personal, indefinite
one's - possessive
oneself - reflexive

As to Ivanova: there are the following types of pronouns:

- 1) personal – I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they, me, him, etc.
- 2) possessive – my, mine, his, her, us, your, their, hers, ours, yours, theirs.
- 3) demonstrative (this, these, that, those, such)
- 4) interrogative (who, whom, whose, what, which)
- 5) reciprocal (each other, one another)
- 6) relative (which, that, whose, which, as)
- 7) indefinite (includes negative, defining, generalising)

As to Iofick there are 13 pronouns in modern English:

- 1) personal – I, you, he, she, it, we, they, me, him, etc

- 4) "every" – pronouns
every, everybody, everyone, everything
- 5) "no" – pronouns
no, nobody, no one, none, non-no one else, nothing
- 6) "other" – pronouns
other, others, (others, others')
- 7) "each" – pronouns
each, each other, (each other's)
- 8) "one" – pronouns
one, one another, (one another's)
- 9) "another" – pronouns
another (another's)
- 10) "some" – pronouns
some, someone, somebody, anything
- 11) "any" – pronouns
any, anything, anyone, anybody
- 12) "such" – pronoun: such (a day)
- 13) "same" – pronoun: same name

The treatment of pronouns "one/we", "you", "they", as generalizing personal ones.
We must know such things (one must know)

You must know such things (one must know)

They say he is young.

One must work (a man must work)

Interrogative pronouns "what" and "its" are means of exclamation (so its an exclamatory pronoun "what a good thing you've done?")

'What' denotes also a person: What are you?

'It' as a subject (personal, impersonal). It is red, It is late.

Reflexive pronoun "myself", is not only a reflexive pronoun, but also an intensifying oneself My friend and myself would be obliged if you would tell us that (Jerome)

this, that, have the category of number: these those

Conclusion as to the types of pronouns.

Grammatical forms of Pronouns are variable, changeable, but not all pronouns have a changeable form.

Functions of the pronouns are those of : subject, predicative, attribute, object. etc.

The grammatical categories of the pronouns.

The pronoun has the following grammatical categories:

1)number

2)case

3)person

The problem of "gender" of the pronouns is, as to our mind, solved, for in Modern English pronouns have no gender category, because the cases of "he, she, it" are rather lexical phenomena than grammatical, and we see no changes in the pronouns themselves, unlike those of Russian "мой, моя, мое", in which there's the category of "gender" of pronouns, represented by masculine, feminine and neutral gender forms.

Category of case of pronouns.

The category of case of pronouns is not typical or common to all types of pronouns , for there are certain pronoun types that have no case category at all: interrogative pronouns what, which, my, your, his, her, its, our (possessive pronouns), each, all, (defining pronouns) etc.

We have to think of the pronoun types having the category of case and they are as follows:

№	PRONOUN TYPES	CASE TYPE				
		Nominative	Possesive/genitive	Common	genitive/possesive	Objective
	1. Personal pronouns	+	-	-	-	+
	2. Possesive pronouns	-	-	-	-	-
	3. Reflexive	+	-	-	-	+
	4. Resiprocal	-	-	+	+	-
	5. Interrogative	-	-	-	-	-
	6. Negative	-	-	+	+	-
	7. Defining (generalizing)(all, each)	-	-	-	-	-
	8. Indefinite	-	-	-	-	-
	9. Conjunctive	-	-	+	+	-
	10. Quantative	-	-	-	-	-
	11. Generalizing	-	-	-	-	-
	12. Demonstrative	-	-	-	-	-
	13. Relative	-	-	-	-	-
	14. Distinguishing or Contrasting (other, another)	-	-	+	+	-

Possesive pronouns like “my, your, his, her” may have some specific forms called absolute (mine, yours, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs) and conjoint (my, your, his, her, our, your, their), which is peculiar only to the possesive pronouns.

The grammatical category of person of the pronouns.

	Person I	Person II	Person III
1. Personal	+	+	+
2. Possesive	+	+	+
3. Demonstrative	-	+	-
4. Reflexive	+	-	+
5. Resiprocal	-	-	-
6. Interrogative	-	-	-
7. Negative	-	-	-
8. Defining	-	-	-
9. Indefinite	-	-	-
10. Conjunctive	-	-	-
11. Quantative	-	-	-
12. Contrasting	-	-	-

13. Relative	-	-	-
14. Distinguishing or Contrasting (other, another)	-	-	+

As we see not all pronouns have the categories of gender, case and number, because their forms are invariable.

LECTURE 5 (2 hours)

Theme: “Verb. Structural and semantical types of the verb”.

Plan:

1. Verb as a principal (primary, main) part of speech.
2. Structural classification of the verb.
3. Semantical classification of the verb.
4. Transitive/intransitive verbs.
5. Conclusion.

Key words:

Vinogradov’s opinion , complex and capacious part of speech, various definitions, lexico-grammatical meaning, functional classification, syntactical classification subjective verbs, objective verbs, structurally deviation, syntactical functions.

Questions:

1. What kind of part of speech is the verb?
2. Who calls the verb the most complex and capacious part of speech?
3. What types are the verbs divided morphologically?
4. What verbs do you distinguish semantically?
5. What are the structural types of the verb?
6. What functions does the verb introduce in the sentence?
7. What grammatical categories Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya distinguish?
8. How did Jespersen treat the perfect aspect?

The course of lecture:

The verb is one of the notional parts of speech, which is open to various disputable problems. The ever complicated nature of it as a part of speech is recognized by all scholars. See: Vinogradov calls it the most complex and capacious part of speech. Such linguists as Blockh, Barkhudarov, Ilyish, Ivanova, Zhigadlo, Khaimovich and Rogosovskaya are of the same opinion on the verb. The verb is of complex nature, because of its grammatical categories, on the one hand, and of its various subtypes with all lexico-grammatical features of theirs, on the other. So the verb is a part of speech that has a very developed system of morphological categories.

There are various definitions of the verb as a part of speech in English:

Zhigadlo: The verb is a part of speech, which names the action or represents state, the presence of some property or the change of the property as an action.

Barhkudarov: The verb is a part of speech that has certain forms of voice, aspect, time correlation, tense, person, etc.

Block: The verb is a part of speech having the general categories, meaning of process, presented dynamically i.e. developing in time.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya: The verb is a part of speech characterized by the lexico- grammatical meaning of action process. The grammatical meaning of the verb is that of action, process (Maslov, Ivanova) presented dynamically.

We think that the verb has lexico-grammatical meaning of

- 1) an action – to play, to work, to translate.
- 2) a process – to love, to think, to live
- 3) a quality – to redden, to blacken, to whitewash
- 4) a state – to free, to release, to imprison, tired, etc.

Morphologically verbs are classified into:

1. standard and non-standard verbs.

(regular) (irregular)

want sit

wanted sat

2. invariable verbs: to put, cut, hit, run, let, etc.

3. mixed type: keep-kept (not 'ed' 'or' 'd')

sleep-slept

feel-felt

learn-learnt or learned

show-showed-shown

4. verbs of being have suppletive forms: to be has the following forms:

am – was are – were is – was

5. finite and non-finite verbs (infinitive, participle, gerund): to work-working-worked

Functionally the verbs are classified into:

1. Notional: to read, to help

2. Functional: to do, to have, to be

a) auxiliary: am reading, have read, etc.

b) link verbs: to become, to be, to grow, etc.

3. Modal verbs: can, may must, etc.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya think that there are no functional verbs in English, they (being semi-notional: to be, to become), have their meanings, for “He is old”, “He becomes old”, “he seems old” are not the same. They propose to call the link verbs notional links, for they have their own, though faded, meaning, (see: “He becomes (is, seems) old” are not the same).

Syntactically we distinguish subjective and objective verbs: Subjective verbs are associated only with names denoting the subject of the action.

He works. The boy runs.

Objective verbs are usually associated with the names in the function of subject and object.

He kissed him tenderly.

Objective verbs connected with the objects directly are called “transitive”. The subjective and objective verbs that may/may not be connected (with object not directly but indirectly) are called intransitive.

Semantically we can distinguish terminative and non-terminative verbs.

non-terminative: to sleep, to think, to love

terminative: to hit, to slap, to kick, etc.

We have verbs with aspectual meanings: being, stop, resume, etc.

The first group can be called as to Block, unlimitative and the second “limitative”.

Structurally verbs may be divided into the following types:

1. Simple – sit, work, talk
2. Derivative: intensify, classify, modify
 - a) stem+affix: activize, motivate, blacken, darken
 - b) affix+stem: rewrite, underestimate, overdo, outdoor, outfight, mistake, untie
3. Composite:
 - a) compound (with coordinated elements): whitewash, blackmarket, blackmail, transact
 - b) complex with subordinated elements:
 - to sit up
 - to give away
 - to give in
 - to keep on
 - to insist on

Verb has a changeable form, which speaks for its having certain grammatical categories.

Verb has various syntactical functions in a sentence:

- 1) predicate - She works
- 2) subject - To live is to fight
- 3) object - I remember having seen him before
- 4) a part of complex object: I see him jump every day
- 5) attribute - Here is a book for you to read
- 6) adverbial modifiers of:
 - a) time: Having done the work, we came back
 - b) purpose: I came to speak to you
 - c) reason: He excused her for coming late
 - d) condition: He, if questioned, will tell the truth
 - e) concession: He, though criticized, was not angry
 - f) comparison: He stopped there, as if knowing the secret
 - g) manner: He spoke stammering
 - h) attendant circumstances: The whole day was spent in waiting.

Substantivization of the verbs is a normal process in English:

- to work - working (gerund) workings (verbal noun)
- to paint - painting (gerund) paintings (verbal noun)
- to meet - meeting (gerund) meeting (verbal noun) or noun
- to build - building (gerund) buildings (verbal noun) or noun

The grammatical categories of the verb.

Disputable character of the categories of the verb. (total number of them).

1. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya distinguished the following 8 grammatical categories out of which 3 of them are found both in finites or non-finites: voice, order, aspect.

The categories of voice and other can be found in all verbals, but aspect – in infinitive only:

asks – is asking

to ask – to be asking

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------|
| 1) voice | Ivanova |
| 2) order | 1. voice |
| 3) aspect | 2. mood |
| 4) mood | 3. tense |
| 5) tense | 4. order |
| 6) posteriority | 5. aspect |
| 7) person | |
| 8) number | |

Blokh:

1. finitude
non-finite
2. person
3. number
4. tense
5. aspect
6. voice

Barkhudarov:

1. tense
2. voice
3. aspect
4. mood
5. finitude

Ilyish:

1. aspect
2. tense
3. order (perfect – non-perfect)
4. mood
5. voice
6. person
7. number

Other morphological categories:

- 1) negative – non-negative (negopositivity) affirmation
takes don't take
- 2) interrogative – non-interrogative
does he take
dose he not take?

The category of order

(time correlation in Ilyish's term)

The category of order is system of the number opposeme such as “write – has written, wrote – had written, recognize – will write – will have written, was written – had been written, etc,” showing whether the action is viewed as prior to (perfect) or irrespective of (non-perfect) other actions or situations.

1. Jespersen thinks that perfect has to be treated in the chapter of tenses, hence it is kind of tense, belonging to the category of tense.

2. Vorontsova considers perfect to be an aspect category {resultative aspect or transmissive aspect}.

3. Ivanova finds it something in between tense and aspect system.

4. Smirnitsky considers it to be a special category of the verb, called “time correlation”. Ilyish avoids the word “time” and calls it “correlation”, Khaimovich and Rogovskaya call it “order”.

The category of aspect.

Works – is working

was worked – had been working

to work – to be working

The linguists, who recognize this category Deutchbein, Kennedy, Durme treat it from the semantical point of view and they distinguish the following subtypes of aspect:

- 1) terminative aspect – He went there
- 2) regressive – He began to work
- 3) effective – She ceased speaking
- 4) durative – Wheat grows in Canada. She is working.
- 5) Iterative – Each night the man would walk.

Those, who don't recognize it as a category are N.Sweet, J.Jespersen. They think the forms to be pure tense forms, not aspect ones. We should admit that tense and order are different grammatical categories of the verb (so do Yartseva, Ilyish, Smirnitskiy).

LECTURE 5 (2 hours)

Theme: Verb and its grammatical categories.

Plan:

1. Grammatical categories of the verb.
2. Grammatical categories of person, number and tense of the verb.
3. Grammatical categories of mood, voice of the verb.
4. Grammatical categories of order, aspect etc.
5. Conclusion.

Key words:

Various opinions, grammatical category of mood, the definition of voice, the category of aspect, the category of tense, category of order, category of posteriority, category of person, category of finitude, category of negopositivity, Irtenyeva's proposal.

Questions:

1. What grammatical category is the mood?
2. What are Khaimovich and Rogovskaya's opinions?
3. How many mood do Smirnitsky and Akhamova find?
4. How do Ilyish and Vinokurova think of mood category?
5. What is the definition of the voice?
6. How many tense forms does Irtenyeva propose?
7. What system is the category of order represented by?
8. How does Ivanova treat this category?

The course of lecture:

Verb is very rich in its grammatical categories. There are various opinions as to what grammatical categories the verb has in Modern English. Below we see different approaches to the question in hand. Mood is a grammatical category of the verb which expresses the speaker's attitude towards the action.

Various opinions: Khainovich and Rogovskaya distinguish the following grammatical categories (8 categories)

1. tense
2. voice
3. mood
4. aspect
5. order
6. posteority (will be writing – would be writing, shall come – should come) etc
7. person
8. number

We are going to analyze different approaches to verbal categories.

1. Smirnitskiy, Akhamaova, Gashina, Vasilevskaya find 6:

- 1) indicative
- 2) imperative
- 3) subjunctive (1)
- 4) subjunctive (2)
- 5) conditional
- 6) suppositional

2. Ilyish and Vinokurova, Zhigadlo finds 3 moods:

- 1) indicative
- 2) imperative
- 3) subjunctive (Ilyish; conditional and subjunctive)

Barkhudarov distinguishes two:

- 1) indicative
- 2) imperative

He doesn't recognize the subjunctive mood at all, refering it to rather the indicative and imperative.

3. Vorontsova finds the following types of mood:

- 1) indicative
- 2) operative
 - imperative
 - desperative
 - subjunctive

3) speculative:

- dubitative
- irrealis

4) presumptive

In general the number of English moods theoretically varies from two to seventeen, the latter being within the subdivision of different types of moods. Rogovskaya and Khaimovich recognize the existence of only 3 moods in English:

- 1) indicative
- 2) imperative
- 3) subjunctive

Mood needs a clear cut-solution, so this problem still rests, perhaps, its better to analyze it on the bases of:

Indicative and non-indicative

Real non-real

As to H.Sweet there are such mood types as:

- 1) indicative;
- 2) imperative;
- 3) conditional mood (if I were you, I should (he would) do it);
- 4) permissive mood: may see, might see.

May you be happy?, Let the dog loose!

- 5) Compulsive mood: what am I to do? What is to be done?

- 6) tense mood or subjunctive tense mood:

If I were there, I would do it.

O.Curme (3 moods) 1) indicative; 2)subjunctive: a)optative subjunctive b) potentive subjunctive; 3)imperative: Go! Come!

The category of voice.

It is a also very disputable problem in Modern English that it has given rise to the very heated linguistic discussions and to the birth of numerous fundamental investigations.

1. Barkhudarov distinguishes only two;

(Vorontsova, Smirnitskiy do the same) 1) active 2) passive

2. B.H.Zhigadlo, Ivanova, find 3:

1) active; 2)passive; 3)reflexive (self); He cut himself while shaving.

3. B.Ilyish fixes 5 voices: 1)active; 2)passive 3)reflexive 4)reciprocal (each other);

- 5) middle voice:

(The paper burns, The door opens, The books reads, sells well).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya distinguish two voices:

- 1)active; 2)passive

The category of voice is one of very vexed problems in language theory. There are different opinions on this category. Definition: Voice is a category of the verb which denotes whether the subject acts or is acted upon or whether the object is acted upon. So this is a category which expresses the relation of the verb to the subject and object from the point of view of the performer of the action, whether it is performed by the subject or object they are acted upon.

Active: I read the letter. Passive: The letter is read to me.

Middle: The book sells well.

The paper burns.

Opinions differ greatly as to the number of voices in the English verb. They say that the voices of the reflexive and reciprocal type are not lucky, for they are not purely characteristics and depended on the verb. Here the analyzes are not carried on the verb which is to have the category, but on the words himself, herself, themselves. This makes us unwillingly accept that the verb has even the category of the gender as well, such is the case with “one another, each other, for these are the words belonging not the class of verbs, but pronouns.”

The opposition Active/Passive is the only happy way of analysis (H.Sweet (3 voices):

- 1) active 2) passive 3) reflexive: a)reflexive-transitive b) reflexive-

intransitive) O.Curme (2 voices): 1) active 2) passive

Active and passive So do Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, Smirnitsky, Barkhudarov are also of the same opinion. Here, also belong Sweet, Gespersion, Bryant, Whitehall too

3) Zhigadlo, Ivanova, think that there are 2 voices, Active, passive reflexive(himself)

4) Ilyish thinks that there are 5 voices: 1)active 2)passive 3)reflexive 4)reciprocal 5) middle

But more or less accepted in this respect is opinion that in English verbs two voices; active and passive.

Category of aspect

It is also one of the controversial problems in English. There are different opinions on this problem.

1. Aspect is not grammatical category but semantical (Kennedy, Curme, Duntschbein)

2. Aspect is no verbal category in grammar (A. Sweet, O. Gexpersen)

3. Aspect lies between tense forms that it is not a separate category

4. Aspect and tense are two different categories

(Khamidovich, Rogovskaya, Ilish, Smirnitskiy, Yartseva). Not all verbs have this category like every verb can have this category; voice distinction in the future tenses (auxiliary verbs have only active forms, no passive). The following verbs do not have the aspect opposites: belong, contain, consist and suffice. Certain link verbs have no aspect opposites; appear, look, prove, see, turn out, etc.

The category of tense

In English there are 16 tense types, which are generally accepted and treated in both the practical and the theoretical grammars.

In fact, there are 4 main tense types, which are further subdivided into 4

1) indefinite (present, past, future, future in the past)

2) continuous (present, past, future, future in the past)

3) perfect (present, past, future, future in the past)

4) perfect continuous (present, past, future, future in the past)

So, each tense type is opposed to the other both structurally and semantically. B.A.Ilyish distinguishes only the three main tense type (present, past and future (wrote, writes, will write or lived, lives and will live)); other forms being treated by him as tense-aspect forms (See: his "The structure of Modern English" 1971, pp. 88-89).

Prof N. Irtenyeva proposes two tense types:

a) tenses centering in the present

b) tenses centering in the past

(See: her work "Грамматика современного английского языка", p. 77-78)

A.Korsakov establishes a fourfold tense system:

1. absolute tenses 3. static tenses

2. anterior tenses 4. dynamic tenses

As we see, the above mentioned approaches are all rather semantical than structural. In such cases the preference is given to structural approaches, for semantical ones are always disputable and not reliable.

Gespersen thinks that there are two main tense forms, past present (will, shall being modal verbs). As to the Future in the Past there are different opinions. Smirnintsky says that they are not tense forms (would come, should come) but mood forms (being used with the so called "conditional mood" forms).

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya treat these phenomena as the special category of posteriority-relative posteriority as apposed to the absolute (past) posteriority.

Category of Order (Time correlation)

The category of order is represented by a system of two member opposeemes, such as writes-has written, wrote-had written, which shows whether the action is viewed by the speaker as completed (perfect) or noncompleted (non-perfect). Khaimovich and Rogovskaya consider it to be a separate verbal “category of order, while B.A.Ilyish, G.N.Vorontsova think it is a part of the aspect system – resultive aspect or transmissive aspect, etc. I.P.Ivanova treats it as a tense category; prof. Smirnitsky was the first to call it the category of “time correlation”.

Category of Posteriority.

The category of posteriority is distinguished by Khaimovich and Rogovskaya as a system of “shall come- should come, will come-would come, will do-would do, etc., showing whether an action is prior or posterior with regard to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.

Category of Person.

It is the category, represented by such opposeemes as: work-works, is working-are working, has been working- had been working which express some “person” of the verb. Some verb forms don’t express any person (for example, past tenses of syntactic structure, came, ate, knew) and they represent grammatical homonymy of verbal forms.

Category of finitude.

It is the category, represented by such opposeemes as
to work-works,

to have worked-has worked-had worked

to be working-was working, were working, is working,

are working, have been working, had been working, etc.

The category shows whether the action is absolute or non-absolute, being represented in the first case by the finite verb form, in the second-by the non-finite form.

Category of negopositivity (negation/non-negation)

It is the category, represented by the opposeemes of affirmative and negative forms, such as: to work-not to work, work-don’t work, works-doesn;t work, will work-won’t work, has worked-hasn’t worked, will have worked-will not have worked. The categories of person and number cause almost no difficulty in learning and you have certain knowledge of these categories.

LECTURE 6 (2 hours)

Theme: The other parts of speech: Adjective, Adverb, Adlink etc.

Plan:

1. Adjective and its structural and semantical classification.
2. Adjective and its grammatical category of degree of comparison.
3. Adverb: its types and grammatical category of degree of comparison.
4. Adlink: its forms, functions and grammatical category of degree of comparison.

Key words:

Meaning of property, an attribute to a noun, Ivanova considers, structural types of adjectives, degree of comparison, substantivization of adjectives, Khaimovich and

Rogovskaya's opinions, meaning of quality, semantical division, degree of comparison of adverbs, Ilyish's suggestion, a certain class of words, the nature of the adlinks, Ilyish, Barkhudarov's thoughts.

Questions:

1. What does the adjective denote?
2. What morphological feature has the adjective?
3. How the adjectives are classified structurally and semantically?
4. How many degrees of comparison has the adjective?
5. What kind of adjectives do Khaimovich and Rogovskaya speak?
6. How do you understand the term substantivization of adjective?
7. Can you use the indefinite article in the superlative degree?
8. What characteristics has the adverb?
9. What forms may adverbs divided into?
10. How does Ilyish call the adverbs?

The course of lecture:

1. The adjective is a part of speech expressing the categorial semantics-meaning of property (quality) of a substance. It always denotes some certain features of names in the text. Sometimes it denotes the property of the substitute of substance that is the indefinite pronoun "one".

This is a good book. It is indeed a good one.

Sometimes the adjective comes very close to the nouns.

We are fighting the white.

Whites will win.

The adjectives usually denote the size, position, quality, measure (many numerous, various plentiful), material (woolen, wooden) and physical state of persons or things: old, happy, sad, hard, soft, etc. So their meaning is that of property.

2. The adjectives have various forms depending on morphological features of them.

They have the category degree of comparison: dark-darker-the darkest
big-bigger- the biggest.

3. The adjectives are specialized in the function of mostly an attribute to a noun or a predicative in a compound predicate.

A good book is there. The book is good.

Sometimes they may have the function of a subject and object. It is observed only when they are substantivized.

The Red are sure to win: I support the Red.

I spoke to the native people.

There are various opinions on the nature of some words adjectives such as: much, many, little, few, expressing quantity. As they have the category of comparison they are close to the adjectives, as well as to the numerals. By some other features they are close to pronouns. In fact, as Ivanova considers these words lie between the adjectives and numerals, they are being intermediate parts of speech. She suggests to consider them as an interfield group of words, having the features of the adjectives, numerals and pronouns. The adjectives are characterized by the following stem-building elements: - ful, - less, - ish, - ive, - un, - pre, - in...

hopeful, tactful, homeless, lavish, boyish etc

The classification of the adjectives:

1. Structural types of adjectives are

- 1) simple – big, nice, small, etc.
- 2) derivative – able, -ible, -al typical, capable- invisible
- 3) compound – ivorywhite, redhot, steel-blue
- 4) mixed type (compound derivative)
coldhearted, blue – eyed, high – nosed, fourwheeled
threecornered, four-legged table red-cheeked

2. Semantical types of adjectives are

- a) qualitative (good, bad, young, sweet)
- b) quantitative (much, many)
- c) relative (they have no degree) wooden, childish,
golden, distant, industrial, cultural, etc.

The category of degrees of comparison of adjectives.

The adjectives have only one grammatical category that of degree of comparison. First of all, we should point out that not all the adjectives have this category: e. g. Blind, dead, deaf, etc. The grammatical category of degree of adjectives is represented by the following system of opposemes: large-larger-(the) largest which express different degree of the property in question as compared with the starting point of the property. There are 3 forms of degree: 1) positive-(unmarked); 2) comparative-(marked by “-er”); 3) superlative- (marked by “-est”). Ilyish says that there are only two forms, denoting the degree of comparison of adjectives: (large, expressing no degree)

- 1.comparative – larger, 2.superlative – largest

The form large “he says”, expressing no degree at all and is called the basic form. In fact it is advisable to speak of two ways of forming the degree of comparison of adjectives:

1. synthetic: big-bigger-biggest;
2. analytical (syntactical): beautiful-more beautiful-most beautiful (progressive degree)

difficultless difficult-least difficult (regressive degree).

So more, most, less, least are analytical means of expressing the degrees of comparison. There is a rule, to use the definite article before the adjective in the superlative degree: the most beautiful, the biggest.

3. suppletivism: good-better-best, bad-worse-worst.

Little-less-least

The superlative degree expresses the highest, strongest degree of the property in question. It is interesting to note that the analytical superlative form has a peculiar usage. It can be used even with the indefinite article: A most attractive girl

A most beautiful lady.

It means no comparison here and shows the strongest form of the property or quality in question. This particular usage is considered by Ilyish and Ivanova to be a usage, having the relative meaning. Foreign grammarians consider the analytical forms to be emotional and stylistically coloured. The analytical forms are found in the degrees of comparison of adjectives, consisting of more than two or three syllables. Khaimovich and Rogovskaya speak of the adjectives, which are always in their superlative meaning: extreme, supreme, outstanding, superior, inferior, which have only one form. Some adjectives form their

comparative regressive degree by the help of the suffix –ish, and never have the superlative degree.

Red-redish - not red (but weaker)

Dark-darkish - not dark (but weaker)

Blue-bluish - not blue (but weaker)

The second “-ish” form denotes that the property in question is weaker than the property of the basic form.

Substantivization of adjectives.

In all the existing languages the adjectives are substantivized:

The Red have started firing

The Black have won the chessgame.

Functions of the adjectives are the following:

attribute – a good book

predicative – The book is new

subject – (when substantivized): The present have decided it

object (when substantivized): We solute the poor.

When it is substantivized they can even be modified by attributes: The marching unemployed are approaching.

The working poor are irritated.

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya distinguish also the relative adjectives: household goods, a table lamp, etc. But they are nouns in their attributive function as Ilyish rightly points out.

The adverb.

The adverb is one of the primary parts of speech characterised by its semantics, meaning of qualitative, quantitative or circumstantial characteristics of actions, states or processes or qualities or quantities: to do quickly

very old, grow slowly, so nice,

very much, so many

By form adverbs are changeable, they have grammatical category of degree of comparison, of course not all of them:

quickly-more quickly-most quickly

soon-sooner-soonest

They function in the sentence as adverbial modifiers to the verb mostly, to the adjectives, to the adverbs and to the adlinks and less nouns: very afraid, very alone

They are formed according to certain models:

adjective+ly,

noun+wise:

slow+ly

clock+wise

clever+ly

side+wise

Adverbs may be semantically divided into:

1) qualitative – hard, well, fast, good, sweet

2) quantitative – too, very, rather, greatly, nearly, quietly, utterly

3) circumstantial: yesterday, tomorrow, before, often, again, once, twice.

(time and place) here, there, upstairs, downstairs, etc.

We have adverbs formed of not adjectives or nouns, but of the participles: confusedly, mockingly, brokenly, etc. there are various opinions on the adverb as a part of

speech. Some linguists say that adverbs are not separate parts of speech they are rather close to the adjectives and therefore have to be treated in the adjectival system. They point out that the main difference between the two parts of speech lies in their combinability with the other words.

adjectives	adverbs:
hard nut	hard
hard work	to work hard
hard condition	hardly do it
fast train	to run fast

“Probably, evidently, possibly” are not adverbs, but modal words.

But the adjectives and adverbs are different parts of speech, as Khaimovich and Rogovskaya point out, because they perform different syntactical functions, have different combinability and different form and meaning.

The grammatical category of degree of comparison of adverbs. 1. Degree of comparison of adverbs are formed in 3 ways:

- 1) synthetic: fast-faster-fastest: He works faster.
late-later-latest: He came later.
- 2) analytical (syntactical): quickly-more quickly-most quickly
- 3) suppletive: well-better-best, bad-worse-worst

Khaimovich and Rogovskaya distinguish two kinds of adverbs as to the category of the degree of comparison.

1) comparables: soon-sooner-soonest 2) non-comparables: yesterday, always, upstairs, etc. There are certain limits of the adverb class: We often come across such language phenomena as: come in, go out, stand up, put down, being up, etc. Especially in “put “up”” and “bring “up”” there are not any meanings but in “bring up”, it means “to educate”. The above mentioned group of words have been treated by different scholars in different ways. First of all it is linked with the argument as to its being a phrase or a word. If it is a phrase what part of speech is the second element “up”? Some linguists think that it is a word, second part being a morpheme called postpositive prefixes. Ilyish thinks that they (up, down) are postpositions, so they are special class of parts of speech. So Ilyish says that they are phraseological units consisting of the verbs and adverbs and have to be treated in lexicology while learning a chapter devoted to phraseology. But we think that they are prepositions used in postposition.

The adlink.

There is a certain class of words such as asleep, ablaze, aframe, afraid, etc., characterized by the:

- 1) meaning of “state, position”.
- 2) form, the sign of which is “a”: aswim, ashiver, etc.
- 3) function of predicative: he is alone and sometimes as an attribute (a fast asleep boy)
- 4) combinability with link verbs or verbs of sense perception (found him alone, etc)

There are different opinions on the nature of the adlinks, hence are different terms to cover it.

Ilyish calls the verb group “words of category of state” or “statives”.

Rogovskaya and Khaimovich call them by a hander term “adlinks” on the analogy of adverbs, of adlinks of state to reflect their chief properties (Khaimovich and Rogovskaya, p. 200).

Barkhudarov considers them to be adjective. He tries to prove it by the same category of degree of comparison: afraid-more afraid-most afraid.

But B. Ilyish says that they are “words of state” or “statives”, because as we think they can’t be in all the functions the adjectives have in the sentence, and formally speaking they have a marker “a” coming at the begining of any “adlink”.

We think that the terms “adlink”, “statives” are very suitable ones for the class of words we are speaking about, because they are very convenient to be used and referred to.

LECTURE 7

Theme: Introduction to syntax. Syntax and its units. Sentence and phrases and their theory.

PLAN:

1. Syntax as a part of grammar.
2. The subject matter of syntax and its object of linguistic analysis.
3. Basic units of syntax. Phrase and sentence theory.
4. Notions of syntactical connection (relation) and function.
5. The main types of syntactical connections:
6. Notions of deep and surface of sentence.
7. Formal and manifestation syntax. Categories of semantical syntax as manifestation or reflection of relations of the objective reality.
8. Phrase as a syntactical unit and its definition (phrases, word combinations, word groups)

Key words:

Basic units, phrases and sentences, an original viewpoint, the term “word group”, E.Kruisina’s works, andocentric and exocentric phrases, language phenomenon, H. Sweet, E. Krusinga, G. O. Gurme, R. Fowler’s opinions, syntactical connection, paradigmatic relations, “deep” and “surface” structure, phrase is combination of at least two independent words, a coordinate phrase, a subordinate phrase, a predicative phrase.

Questions:

1. What part of grammar is syntax?
2. What is the basic unit of syntax as to M Blokh?
3. When is the term clause used?
4. What is the difference between phrase and sentence?
5. What linguists is the term “sentence” used by?
6. What is the syntactical connection?
7. How many forms have the syntactical connection as to Barkhudarov?
8. How can you treat the notions of deep and surface structure?
9. What is phrase?
10. How many types of phrases does Barkhudarov distinguish?
11. What kind of phrase is a coordinate phrase?
12. Can you replace IC of the subordinate phrase?
13. How IC of the predicative phrases will be represented?
14. What types has a coordinate phrase?

The course of lecture:

Syntax is a part of grammar of the language which studies the structural and semantic features of phrases and sentences. So, syntax is treated in Modern Linguistics as a branch of grammar, which has its own basic units: phrases and sentences. Here are two levels of analysis, i. e. phrase level and sentence level. This way the subject matter of syntax is through study of phrases and sentence structure, where as its object of analysis is concrete phrases and sentences of language. (See; В.Виноградов. Грамматика русского языка. М. 1980)

Many scholars share the idea to level (phrase and sentence level) of analysis of syntax, where as some grammarians prefer one level of analysis, that is sentence as the basic unit of syntax. (See: Khaimovich and Rogovskaya. p.220) An original viewpoint is expressed by M.Y.Blokh, who considers it advisable to distinguish an intermediate level between morphology and syntax, that is a phrasematic level. So, he thinks that the basic unit of syntax is sentence (utterance), where as phrase is the intermediate language unit, that has to be treated outside syntax. (See: М.Я. Блок. Теоретические основы грамматики).

The problem of phrase and sentence is not so happy one in modern linguistics, because there are so many definitions of them given by various scholars. There are two opinions as to the nature of phrase, that answers the question “what is phrase?”

The term “phrase” itself is not so happy either, because in French and as well as in European linguistic tradition it means, first of all, “sentence or utterance” on the one hand, and word-groups or combinations, on the other. (See: Bloomfield Language. М. 1968. See;Гак. Теоретическая грамматика. Синтаксис. 1981) There are so many other terms used to express combination of words (-словосочетание – суз бирикмаси) in English, for example “word group, word cluster, combination of words, syntactic groups, etc.”

The term “word group” we find in the works of H. Whiterhall (structural Essentials of English. p. 8-11, 17-18): and that of Henry Sweets (A new English Grammar. part 1p. 16, 19, 32-35) Function as apposed to “nexus” (which is like dream or a process,) we find in O.Jespersen’s works (Essentials of English Grammar, p. 91-95). In E.Krushina’s works we come across the notion of “syntacticgroup” in the sense of “word combinations” (See:Handbook of Present-day English, part 2, p. 177-196, 235-236).

The term “phrase” in the sense of “фраза” of the Russian language and “суз бирикмаси” of the Uzbek language we find in Bloomfield’s work (“Language”, New York, 1935,p.194).

The term “phrase is now widely used in Modern Linguistics to express the Russian term “словосочетание”. It is accepted as a happy one by Ilyish B.A., V.V. Burlakova in their grammatical manuals . We must also keep to this term “phrase” and principles of its usage in the Russian Linguistics. If we speak of L.Bloomfield’s endocentric (containing a head-word or centre) and exocentric (i.e. non-headed) phrases as to the scholar, the endocentric group has the same distribution as one of its members and the exocentric group has a distribution different from either of its members. In term of substitution, the head word of the endocentric group functions in the same way as the whole phrase, where as the members of exocentric phrases cannot be used in the function of either of its members. (See: Readings in the Theory of English Grammar, 1981, p.106). As to the notion “sentence” there is no unity among linguists either.

There are various terms used to cover the notion “предложение” in English, for example: sentence, clause, utterance, nexus, sentenceme, breath group, etc. So, one can see the variety of approaches of scholars to the language units accordingly termed by them. Special mention deserved here the terms “sentence” and “clause”. In Modern Linguistics the term “sentence” is used in the global sense and means any language phenomenon, that is complete in its meaning, structure and intonation. It may be simple and composite.

“Clause” is the term mostly used in the sense of components of composite sentence or of more complex sentences.

“Sentence” is used by such linguists as H.Sweet (A New English Grammar, part 1, p. 155-158), E. Krushina (A Handbook of Present-Day English part 2, p.162-300), C.Onoins.(An Advanced English Syntax,p.6-9), G.O.Curme (A Grammar of English Language, Volume p, pp.1-2, 5-15), A.H.Gardiner {The theory of speech and language pp1-2,5-15} and etc.

Russian Linguists also use the term “sentence” in the global sense of it (B.A.Ilyish, M.Y.Blokh, G.G.Pocheptsov).

But R.Fowler’s opinion is different from that of the linguists who used the term “clause”. By clause he understands a “simple sentence” (See: R.Fowler. Sentence and clause in English Linguistics, N 14, 1965). Basing ourselves on the aforesaid, we may draw a conclusion that the opinion about the phrase and sentence being the basic units of the language proves to be accepted by the majority of the linguists.

By phrase then we must understand any combination of two or more independent parts of speech, which are obligatorily to be notional parts of speech, presupposing each other both structurally and semantically.

By sentence we must understand a combination of a nominal part and a verbal part between which we find grammatical predicative relations, or to be more exact, by sentence we understand a combination of a nominal part and verbal part between we find the subject and predicate structure. Now we must make difference between a sentence and a phrase clear.

We have defined a phrase and a sentence as the basic units of the syntactic level. The difference between them lies in the fact that a phrase is a nominative, naming unit like a word is. It is closer to a word, which has no intonation, no communicative peculiarity, where as the sentence is a communicative unit, with the specific intonation and complete meaning or semantics of its own.

For example:

1. Home, table, book are – words
2. A large house, a writing table, a good book – phrases
3. I have a large house – sentence

The main difference lies also in the fact that a phrase is much smaller unit than a sentence and the former is used as building material for a latter (sentence). Besides that each unit has its peculiarities of both structural and semantic character, that is they are built according to the definite language patterns used specifically in speech. The latest attempts to thoroughly study syntax and its basic units have resulted in establishing of such syntactical units which are larger than a sentence.

What units are they? What is their language status?

Such language facts as: “The man was ill. That’s why he could not come to the meeting. But this caused all the same indignancy of many of his colleges” are typical of any language.

Between the sentences included into this sequence we see close semantical or more exactly the logical ties, relations. So, they are semantically interlinked and interdependent sentences positioned in a certain order or distribution. The linguists of the century are unanimous in their opinion that this syntactical phenomena have to be treated in syntax. Such language constructions have been termed by some scholars as “composite syntactical wholes (units) or” supra phrasal units or even “passages” (абзацы)

The now linguists has been calling them by the term “text” and the part of linguistics that studies it called “Texts” (or textology).

So we may arrive at a conclusion that syntax the part of grammar that studies the laws of the structural and semantic features (organization) of phrases, sentences (simple and composite) and supraphrasal units called “Texts” (See: L.S.Barkhudarov. Структура простого предложения совершенного английского языка. М. 1966, p.140).

Now we shall pass on to the discussion of the notions “syntactical connections” and “syntactical functions”.

What is the syntactical connection? As to L.S.Barkhudarov by “syntactical connection (relation) we must understand syntagmatic relations between words or group of words”. Since we have started here with the syntagmatic relations we have to speak about the paradigmatic relations between the classes of language units of the same structural type united by common features:

A book – books

To write – writes, is writing, was writing, has written,
has been writing, will write, will have been writing

The relations between the forms of a language unit are known as paradigmatic ones.

The syntagmatic relations are relations found between different language units in speech, for example:

1) between phonemes

(a:) (s) (k) – ask

2) between morphemes

un+happy

3) between words

I, like, him – I like him.

4) between phrases

I and Nike, work at a plant –

I and Nike work at a plant

5) between sentences

“I’m a student”, “but he is a worker” –

I’m a student, but he is a worker.

This way paradigmatic relations are typical of language where as syntagmatic ones are typical of speech communication. So, by syntactical connection we understand such a connection between two words or group of words (or word and group of words), which are the IC of one and the same larger IC when analyzed as such (by the method of IC).

For example:

The old man saw a black dog.

Such syntactical connections are called by S.Barkhudarov as “direct connection” (See: Barkhudarov,p.31)

Now, let’s treat the notion of “syntactical function”. By syntactical function we understand such a direct syntactical connection due to which word or a group of words is introduced to a sentence.

I work here (analysis of it by functions)

We must point out that various parts of speech or phrases and even sentences may be used in one and the same syntactical function.

For example:

The book - subject
is good – predicate

Following L.S.Barkhudarov we distinguish four main types of syntactical connection:

- 1) coordination (coordinate connection)
- 2) subordination (subordinate connection)
- 3) predication (predicate connection)
- 4) apposition (appositive connection)

1. By coordinate connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words in which the syntactical function of the whole group corresponds to the syntactical function of each of its IC or vice versa.

I and Nick came

I came. Nick came – here we see equal syntactical parts of sentence or a phrase.

By subordinate connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words, in which the syntactical function of the IC doesn;t correspond to the syntactical functions of the whole group:

A tall boy came.

A boy came. But: A tall came – is impossible.

Here we can see unequal parts of sentence or phrase.

By predicative connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words, in which the syntactical function of the whole group does not correspond to the syntactical function of each of its IC:

He came. He – subject, came – predicate

The peculiarity of such a connection (predicative) lies in the fact that it can form a sentence, where as the coordinate and subordinate connections can form only phrases, and never sentences alone.

By appositive connection we understand such a type of a syntactical connection of words or group of words in which the syntactical function of one of the IC corresponds to that of the whole group. The difference between this type of connection and that of coordinate one lies in the absence of copulative ties (here we find asyndetic phrases) between the IC. This type of connection is called appositive because each IC denotes the objective reality (man or thing) expressed or manifested by the whole group.

Young man Edgar sat there.

Singer Jackson is here.

Professor Stevenson is lecturing.

DEEP AND SURFACE STRUCTURE.

Now let's consider the notions of "deep" and "surface" structure of sentence. Sentences are usually treated from the point of view of structure of form and meaning (or semantics).

Therefore, these two different approaches to a sentence have great importance in the treatment of a sentence as a basic unit of syntax. In accordance with that it's advisable to speak of formal syntax deals with the surface structure, that is the form of sentence, whereas semantical syntax deals with the deep structure, that is, semantics of it.

Let's take some examples:

1) the eggles swiggs traze woubly in the harlish hoop. (in this sentence we see only grammatical meanings, but no context, no logically well-grounded-semantics).

2) The little swine looked quickly around – (correct).

3) Ivanov plays football – logically and structurally correct.

4) Football plays Ivanov – illogic, incorrect, but formally correct

So, in the first and fourth examples the sentences have correct surface structure, but incorrect deep structures. In the second and in the third examples we have the correct sentences from the point of view of both the "deep" and "surface" structures.

So, when learning, or studying sentence we have to consider them from their both angles "deep and surface structures", and only sentences which are correct in their deep and surface structures have to be learned and treated.

It must be kept in mind that language intercourse is held only by the help of such correct sentences. So, a Syntaxist must analyze sentence from both points of views, or else his analysis will be incomplete and a failure. Surface structure of sentence has its categories and Deep structure has its own, because syntax of surface structure treats sentences from the point of view of structural features of it, whereas the syntax of deep structure studies a sentence from the point of view of its meaning or semantics.

So, we structurally study simple and composite sentences, and semantically we treat declarative, interrogative and exclamatory and imperative sentences.

PHRASE THEORY.

What is a phrase? Phrase is a combination of at least two independent words or notional parts of speech, presupposing each other both structurally and semantically.

Barkhudarov distinguishes three types of phrases:

Coordinate

Subordinate

Predicative

A coordinate phrase is then a phrase the immediate constituents of which are coordinate and can replace each other:

Nick and Jack, father and mother, salt and water etc.

A subordinate phrase is a phrase the immediate constituents of which are subordinate and can't replace each other (one can distinguish the head word and the adjunct word in it): cold winter

black pepper

good answer

politically active

A predicative phrase is a phrase the immediate constituents of which represent seeming subject and predicate structure and they can't replace each other in a phrase structure:

John' dancing

My coming

Nick – jumping, etc.

In the subordinate phrases we distinguish its subtypes. As to the parts of speech representing the head word in the phrase (noun phrase; verb phrase; adjective phrase; adverb phrase; pronoun phrase) etc.

a) noun phrase – noun as the head with the adjunct preposition

a good book

clever boy

singing boy

stone wall

brick house

b) noun phrases with the post posed adjunct:

the roof of the house

the saving of him

the people present

the poorest girl alive

with no word good; bad desire to work

desire of a trip

a problem to solve

three hours during which

c) verb phrases (with the verb as the head)

see a soldier

read a book

work hard

crying loudly

to speak quickly

meet next week

came to eat

standing there

stood smiling

stand scared to death

sat, reading a book

stand up for John to pass

looking as if surprised

d) adjective phrases (with the adjective as the head word)

typically French (way)

undoubtedly beautiful

good for young children

politically active

so very unlike

worth doing

happy to wait

loudest of all

older than George

e) adverb phrases (adverb has the head word)

awfully quickly
so quickly
very wildly
six weeks ago
high in the air
once a week

f) pronoun phrases (pronoun as the head word)

some of the workers
some of us
something strange
nobody for him to see

g) numeral phrases (numeral as the head word)

two of us
the first to come
thousands upon the sands

h) a special group of phrases:

enough to surprise
too difficult to learn
such as to require (that)

1. Coordinate phrases are of the type:

- a) asyndetic coordinate phrases
- b) syndetic coordinate phrases

Let's consider them separately:

a) syndetic coordinate phrases (simple syndetic coordinate phrases):

harsh and loud
precious but remote
the content and as well as the main idea
everything but a piece of bread
nothing but her book
everybody but him

b) relative syndetic phrases

both the book and the notebook
either.....or; either he or we must live here...
neither.....nor; neither he nor his brother...
now, ...now, now with the boy now with the old
not....only....but; not only he but we....

2. asyndetic coordinate phrases are divided into:

a) copulative asyndetic phrases

b) appositive asyndetic phrases

shall treat them separately:

copulative asyndetic phrases (word order is important here):

his great, shining eyes

warm, pleasant spring weather

(insertion of "and" is possible)

clean, handsome, well dressed and sympathetic man.

Appositive asyndetic phrases

King Lear
 the president Reagan
 professor Nelson
 you boys
 you young people
 John the baptist
 The young Man Edgar
 Lucy, the speakers daughter
 The city of London
 He himself
 It itself
 We ourselves
 They both

The predicative phrases are:

1. infinitial
2. gerundial
3. participial
4. absolute predicative (with out not-finites)

Infinitial phrases:

1. objective phrases: ...him to sing, ...them cross
2. subjectibe phrases: he.... to be old,

theyto be coming

3. for-to-infinitive: for him to read

Gerundial phrases: John's coming

Kate's swimming

(object) to it being brought.

Participial phrases: him coming from the party

it being dark

him changed

with everybody working

Absolute constructions: hat in hand

his shot a failure

So, these are basic phrase types in Modern English.

LECTURE 7

Theme: TYPES OF SIMPLE SENTENCE.

Plan:

1. Notion of a simple sentence.
2. Structural types of it.
3. Semantical types of it.

Key words:

Two main strict criteria, a definite kernel pattern, a subject and predicate structure, H.Whitehall's classification, So, P.Robert's definition, H.Whitehall's classification, G. Pocheptsov's definition, disputable to analyze, "wh" questions, predicativity, modality.

Questions:

1. What types may simple sentences be classified into?

2. What is a sentence?
3. What definition of the sentence is a happy one?
4. What type is the sentence divided into?
5. What is H. Whitehall's classification?
6. What kind of sentence pattern does H. White give?
7. How many kernel patterns does G. Pocheptsov offer?
8. What are P. Robert's kernel patterns?
9. How does Ilyish classify sentences structurally and semantically?
10. What types of interrogative sentences does Barkhudarov distinguish?

The course of lecture:

Simple sentences may be of different types as classified due to different aspects of sentence analysis. In Modern English at least two main strict criteria are applied for classifying them into certain types:

1. Structural (a two-member, one-member sentence word+elliptical)
2. Semantical 1)declarative; 2)interrogative; 3)imperative; 4)exclamatory (emotive)

The three other criteria are to be mentioned though they are not so much preferable as the former two (structural and semantical):

1. functional
2. phonetical- phonological (requestive sentence type)
3. pragmatic (prohibitive, promissive, .)

Linguists are unanimous in the opinion that structurally sentences are divided into:

1. simple sentences
2. compositive sentence

Sentences have different aspects of analysis:

1)structural, semantical, functional, nominative, pragmatic,statistical, stylistical aspects etc.

Let's analyze the structure of a simple sentence. We must, first of all, give a definition to it, according to which it can be treated as such. The most popular definition is the following:

A sentence (simple one) is a language unit, consisting of a subject and a predicate and built up according to a definite kernel pattern in a language and expresses a clear thought and is intonationally formulated As we see in the definition there is no strict (one sided) approach to the sentence.

Sentence needs a definition that covers it from one angle, that is: either structural or semantical (declarative, interrogative utterances) or functional (expressing, state, weather) phonetical (breath groups, utterances) or even pragmatic (promissive, requestive, menasive, etc.) Structurally speaking that classification of a sentence into a simple and composite one is open to no objections among linguists. The happiest definition to the present day is that a sentence is a subject and predicate structure (Barkhudarov's declarative). He sings songs. He sleeps. We are students.

(topic and commentary subject and predicate)

Here arises the problem of such phenomena as "Come here!" (imperative) Poor John! (exclamatory)

Spring. Flowers everywhere, which are known as nominative sentences or sentences ones.

Some grammarians speak of the existence of “sentence-words” (H.Sweet Pocheptsov, E.Kruisinga), as well as “nonsentences”(M.Bryant). There is a division of sentences into:

- elliptical (what about him?)
- non-elliptical (full, complete)
- (What do you know of it (or what of it)?)

H.Whitehall’s classification is original (his is more pragmatic) than anything else.

- 1) question sentences
- 2) equational sentences (the more, the better)
- 3) completive sentences: when shall we leave?-Now.
- 4) exclamatory sentences Go away! Stop!
- 5) reportage sentences: age50, medium height, blue eyes.

The sentence words are initial sentence forms in any natural language. Child ‘s speech proves it right.

When we analyze the simple sentence types, it is important to consider their kernel structures (patterns).

So in Modern English, grammarians have been attempting to give the nomenclature of the kernel sentence patterns.

H. White gives 3 sentence patterns or sentence situations:

- I. S+P Birds chirp.
 The snake hisses

- II. S+P+complement:
 All the men talked .
 It rains cats and dogs.³

He called her.

- III. S+P+inner complement+outer complement

The boy gave her a present.
I taught him English.
We found the house broken down.

P.Roberts kernel patterns:

Pattern I (has the following types)

- 1) N+V lions roar
 he left
 she sleeps
- 2) D+N+V The lion roared.
 My son came.
- 3) D+N+aux+V Charlie was roaring.
 The lions were roaring
 He had left it.
- 4) D+N+aux+V+adv
 The lions were roaring loudly.

Albert has gone out.
My brother has gone away.

Pattern II:

- 1) N+V+adj
Bill is young.
- 2) D+N+V+aux+adj+adv
The lion had been unhappy often.

Pattern III:

- 1) N+V+N Lions eat meat.
- 2) D+N+aux+V+D+N+adv
The lion was eating the meat greedily.

Pattern IV:

D+N+Lverb+D+N:

That man is my brother.

Pattern V:

N+V+N+N

My father gave my brother a book
(indirect) (direct object)

Pattern VI:

N+V+M+N (objective complement)

Albert called my brother a monkey.

Pattern VII:

There+V+N+adv.

There were (some) men here.

Seldom was the man there.

There goes Charlie.

Up jumped the tiger.

So, P.Roberts distinguishes seven kernel patterns in Modern English.

Let's see the kernel sentences distinguished by Zelling Harris:

- 1) N+V (without object): The team went there.
- 2) N+V+N: We read it.
- 3) N+VPrep+N: the teacher looked at him.
- 4) N+N: Man is a worker. He is a driver.
- 5) N+is+A (adj): The girl is pretty.
- 6) N+is+Prep+N: The paper is of importance.
- 7) N+is D: The man is here.

Robert Lees finds only two kernel sentence pattern in Modern English.

- 1) N+V
- 2) N+N/A

Grammarians G.G.Pocheptsov distinguishes 39 kernel patterns of English even, sentences including such sentences as "Silence (N39)" (See: appendix on page 92)

The list of kernel sentences of 39 types we can find in his fundamental work "Конструктивный анализ структуры предложения" (A Constructive Analyzes of Sentence Structure, Kiev, 1971 106). There's one shortcoming common to all the above mentioned patterns, i.e., they fully ignore complex sentence patterns, which is not fair, for complex sentences are specific types of language units to be patternized separately.

Sentence types (as to the semantics)

It is still disputable to analyze such sentence structures as interrogative, negative and interrogative-negative and imperative sentences. One can not see their kernel structures (patterns) in the list of patterns. It means that they are transforms or paradigms of the declarative sentence types. Such is the case with exclamatory (or emotive) sentence types as “Long live the students!, Come here!”. Russian grammarian Pocheptsov G.G. treats the following four main semantical and structural types of sentences in the required chapter:

- Sentences proper (1)declarative
- (Real sentence types) (2)interrogative
- (3)imperative
- (4)optative (if John came)

B.A. Ilyish’s classification as to the purpose of communication is as follows:

- 1) declarative
- 2) interrogative
- 3) imperative
- 4) exclamatory

(See: “The Structure of Modern English”p.187)

(quasi-sentences “oh, John, hi, Hey”)

He says that the first two types may be even joined into one. (But he says there is no proper term for it) Pocheptsov considers the three types (declarative, interrogative, imperative) universal sentence types, peculiar to any language. We can add “exclamatory sentences” here. It is very interesting to discuss the problem of such sentence types as interrogative ones.

The grammarians opinions and approaches vary as to the subtypes of the interrogative sentences, but more acceptable classification of them is the following:

- 1) general questions
- 2) special questions
- 3) disjunctive questions
- 4) alternative question

Some English and American grammarians speak of “wh” questions instead of special questions because they begin with interrogative words, with initial “wh”: who, when. Whom, where. The well known Russian grammarian L.S.Barkhudarov distinguishes the following types of interrogative sentences:

- 1) general (yes, or, no) questions
- 2) special (or “wh-“) questions
- 3) alternative questions
- 4) disjunctive (ortag) questions
- 5) echo-questions: John broke the window?

John broke what?, when?

We may add the rethorical question to the above list, which needs no answer at all, because it contains the answer in itself, it implies the answer needed:

If he beats me, must I wait?

After such scandals, could I do anything?

As to negative sentences they are the transforms of declarative sentences, their paradigms. The problem of predicativity is important in sentence theory. So is the

problem of grammatical categories of the sentence. Each sentence has to express predicativity, so its main feature of any sentence.

Predicativity is the main category of a sentence (be one-member or two-member full, or elliptical). It includes the following subcategories of sentence:

- a) modality
- b) personality
- c) nego-positivity (negativeness/positiveness)
- d) temporality

It must have the following subcategory as well

c) locativity because any action is to be actualized some space or locativity (as to Hashimov G.M.).

Predicativity is the grammatical category of sentence expressing the relation of the content (meaning) of it to objective reality as viewed by the speaker and listener writer and reader. Modality is a subcategory of sentence expressing speaker's/writer/s attitude to the objective reality reflected in the sentence. There are various language means of expressing to modality:

mood forms (synthetic, analytic)

modal verbs (can, may, want, wish, desire)

modal words (evidently, frankly, (adverbs) certainly, probably surely, strict, perhaps)

word order (inverted)

time correlations of the verbs in a composite sentence.

LECTURE 8 (2 hours)

Theme: THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE THEORY

Plan:

1. Composite sentence as a type.
2. Structural types of composite sentences.
3. Semantical types of composite sentences.
4. Conclusion.

Key words:

A syntactic unit, the concept of the compound sentence, Fries's substitution, Bloomfield's ideas, the theory of the complex sentence, Gleason's work, N.A.Kobrina, E.A.Korneyva, H. Sweet's opinions, principle clause, a subordinate clause, unprepared sequences, extended sentences, semantical types of composite sentences, "cleft sentences".

Questions:

1. When was the classification of composite sentences established?
2. What does Gleason's work illustrate?
3. How many types of composite sentences do N.A.Kobrina, E.A.Korneyva distinguish?
4. What complex sentence types do R.Quirk, S.Creendbaum, J.Svartvic treat?
5. How does H. Sweet call the term "clause"?
6. What kind of sentences are extended sentences?
7. What approach is offered by Y. Hoshimov?
8. What sentences should be studied in a special course?

The course of lecture:

As has been pointed out in the introduction, the term composite sentence is used by Poutsma as common term for both the compound and the complex sentence and it may be accepted by those schools who adhere trichotomic classification of sentences into simple, compound and complex. This classification, established in the English prescriptive grammar on the mid-19th century and accepted and developed by the authors of the classical scientific grammar, remains the prevalent scheme of the structural classification of sentences in the grammars of all types in the modern period. A very important syntactic concept which developed along with this classification was the concept of the clause as a syntactic unit, containing a subject and predicate.

From the very point beginning the authors of prescriptive and scientific grammars have intuitively found out the weak link in this classification – the concept of the compound sentence, containing syntactically independent coordinated clauses or sentences. The compound sentence was not felt to be a sentence proper. There were at least three methods employed by the grammarians to find a way out of this difficulty: (1) to explain it away by pointing out 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 (cf. the terms “double” and “multiple” sentences); (3) by excluding this concept from the structural classification of sentences (cf. Kruisinga, who uses the traditional term to denote the complex sentence only).

Structurally linguists treat the problem of the compound sentence in the different ways. Some of them retain the traditional trichotomy, though the term employed are sometimes non-traditional (e.g. “dublication of the pattern” in Hook and Mathews’ grammar) (1). Fries substitutes for the traditional doctrine his theory of included sentences (suggested doubtless by Bloomfield’s ideas concerning the included position of a grammatical form) and sequences of sentences (the latter concept was probably borrowed from Sweet, see p. 183). The authors attitude towards the traditional concept of the compound sentence is not very clear. Fries justly remarks in a footnote that the so-called “compound” sentence seems to be primarily a matter of the punctuation of written texts, as in his mechanical recordings of speech only few instances occurred with a clear 3-2-3 intonation (1) before the words listed as sequence signals, i. e. signals of an author classifies all the so-called sequence signals and coordinating as function words of the group J, i. e. as signals of inclusion.

The attempts of the authors of the older scientific grammars to destroy the concept of the clause as it was understood by prescriptive grammar by introducing such notions as “half” clauses, “abridged” clauses, “infinitive”, “gerund”, “participle” clauses may be observed in the extract from Bryant’s grammar, treating verbid clauses. This tendency, which has found favour with some structural linguists, may have far-reaching consequences in the theory of the complex sentence, as it leads to the demolition of the structural distinction between simple and complex sentences.

The extract from Gleason’s work illustrates one of the few attempts of the modern schools of grammar to analyze complex sentences containing more than two clauses to the principle of IC analysis. Transformational grammar derives complex and traditional compound sentences from two or more underlying strings or source sentences (double-based transformations), including them into matrix sentences (i.e. principal sentences) as inserts by means of conjoining transformations (see p. 195-196).

The extract from R.Lakoff reveals a new tendency in the analysis of the compound sentence. She suggests that the logical notions of presupposition and deduction should be incorporated in grammar, in order to account for the differences of the syntactic structures of various types of compound sentences. (see: Iofic, Chakhoyan, Readings. P. 181).

1. There are different approaches to composite sentences, or example, N.A.Kobrina, E.A.Korneyva distinguish the following composite sentences type:

1. The Compound Sentences.
2. Linked Independent Sentences.
3. The Complex Sentences.
4. Structural Patterns of the Complex Sentence.
5. The Complex Sentence with Substantive Clause.
6. The Complex Sentence with a Subject Clause.
7. The Complex Sentence with a Predicative Clause.
8. The Complex Sentence with an Object Clause.
9. Types of the Object Clause.
10. The Complex Sentence with a Complement Clause.
11. The Complex Sentence with an attribute Clause.
12. The Complex Sentence with an Adverbial Clause.
13. Inserted Clauses Modelled on the Pattern of Subordinate Clauses.
14. Cases of Structural Arrangements Intermadiate between Coordination and Subordination.

2. R.Quirk, S.Creedbaum, J.Svartvic. Distinguish the following complex sentences types:

1. Coordinate clauses.
 - a) According to the phonetic notion used by Ch. Fries, 3 denotes the usual voice level and 2-one step above usual.
 - b) The view that the traditional compound sentence is not a syntactic unit, but a string of independent coordinate sentences, has been advanced, though with different arguments, on the articles: Л.Л.Июфик, Существует ли сложносочиненное предложение в английском языке? (научные доклады высшей школы. Филологические науки, 1958, № 2) and D.J.allerton, The Sentence as Linguistic Unit (Lingua, V.22, N 1, 1969). The latter author maintains that this analysis of coordinate sentences will have a profound effect on the grammar (op. cit., p.38).

2. Subordinate clauses.

As we see the authors treat the above sentences under term “c o m p l e x s e n t e n c e” and note “c o m p o s i t e s e n t e n c e”. H. Sweet (A New English Grammar, Part I, p.160-168) speaks of the composite sentence, consisting of the compound and complex sentences,. and he considers that simple sentence can be of two types:

1. independent
2. dependent

For example: When I came back, I found no one at home.

Here: “When I came back”, is dependent, “I found no one at home” independent.

H. Sweet thinks that two or more sentences may be joined together to form a single complex, or c o m p l e x as it may be called for the sake of brevity. When single sentences are joined together in this way they be called “c l a u s e s”. (pp.160-161). In very complex there is one independent clause, call the p r i n c i p a l c l a u s e, 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. We call a coordinate clause a *co-clause*, a subordinate clause a *sub-clause*. Thus in “You shall walk, and I will ride” the first clause is the principal clause, and the second is a *co-clause*. In “You are the man, I want, the second clause – I want – is a *sub-clause*. So also in “You shall walk while I ride”.

A complex in which the principal clause is modified by a co-clause is called, for the sake of brevity, a *co-complex*, and one in which it is modified by a subclause called a *sub-complex*. Thus the first complex is a *co-complex* the other two are *sub-complexes*.

In *complex* the clauses must be joined together by conjunctions, or the *adjunct-clauses* must be dependent as in “You are the man I want”. When two or more independent sentences are associated together logically in the same way in *complex*, the combination is called a *sequence*. Thus we have an *adversative sequence* in “am I right, am I wrong” which is logically equivalent to the *complex* “am I right, or am I wrong?” Such a sequence is equivalent to the *co-complex*. Such a causal sequence as “I am sure of it: I saw it myself” equivalent to the *sub-complex* I am sure of it, because I saw it myself. In both of these examples the *adjunct sentence* is unprepared. We call such sequences *unprepared sequences*.

A word-group containing a verbal often differs only grammatically from the same group with the verbal made into a finite verb, that is, from a sentence. Hence such a simple sentence as “I heard of his coming home” can be expanded into *complex*. “I heard that he had come home”. So also “I wish him to come back” may be expanded into “I wish he would come back”. Such sentences as “I heard of his coming home”, “I wish him to come back”, which contain the term of dependent sentences, are called *extended sentences*.

Another way in which *complexes* are shortened is by marking sentence-connecting into word-connecting conjunctions, as when the *complex* “He is tall, but he is not strong” is made into a simple sentence with a group predicate – He is tall, but not strong. Such sentences may be regarded as a kind of *extended sentences*, but it is better to distinguish them from the *extended sentences* we have just been considering by calling them *contrasted sentences*.

In modern syntactical theory there is also an approach to the so called “*composite sentences*”, and their metaterminology offered by G.M.Hoshimov:

taxeme -means “sentence” with one subject-predicate structure, homogeneous parts being excluded here.

polytaxeme -*composite sentence*

collotaxeme -*asyndetic composite sentence*

parataxeme -*syndetic compound sentence*

hypotaxeme -*syndetic complex sentence*

paretaxeme -*composite sentence with parenthetical clauses*

hypertaxeme -*mixed composite (compound and complex) sentence*

supertaxeme –*composite sentence with 4 components*

architaxeme –*composite sentence with 5 components*

ultrataxeme –*composite sentence with more than 5*

components (see: G.M.Hoshimov. Типология сложных предложений разносистемных языков. Т.,1991, 38 стр)

As to the semantical types of composite sentences in English we can say that there are four main types:

- Composite declarative sentence
- Composite interrogative sentence
- Composite imperative sentence
- Composite exclamatory sentence

We can illustrate them as follows:

1. He came when we were out.
2. Were you in when they came here?
3. Go where you have come from.
4. Long live students who are excelling in every respect.

The communicative semantical and pragmatical features of the composite sentences are object of special investigations, which should be studied in special course on the former. The notion of “cleft sentences” of the type. “It is the other man that I want to see”. “That is what we need”. “It is good that he is here.” Such sentences are special types of composite sentence both structurally and semantically.

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2. The view that the traditional compound sentence is not a syntactic unit, but a string of independent coordinate sentences, has been advanced, though with different arguments, on the articles: Л.Л.Июфик, Существует ли сложносочиненное предложение в английском языке? (научные доклады высшей школы. Филологические науки, 1958, № 2) and D.J.allerton, The Sentence as Linguistic Unit (Lingua, V.22, N 1, 1969). The latter author maintains that this analysis of coordinate sentences will have a profound effect on the grammar (op. cit., p.38).

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