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 (ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ГРАМАТИКА АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ)
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М 54 **Методичні рекомендації до вивчення теоретичного курсу іноземної мови (теоретична граматики англійської мови) для студентів денної та заочної форм навчання / уклад. Т. М. Буренко. – Суми : Вид-во СумДПУ ім. А. С. Макаренка, 2011. – 60 с.**

Методичні рекомендації до вивчення теоретичного курсу з граматики англійської мови охоплюють матеріал, присвячений актуальним питанням морфології та синтаксису англійської мови.

Теоретичний матеріал супроводжується контрольними питаннями та завданнями.

Методичні рекомендації призначені для студентів 4 курсу факультетів іноземних мов денної та заочної форм навчання.

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П Е Р Е Д М О В А

Методин іреком енаца ідля студен тів четвертого курсу ден н ої форм ин авч ан н яскла даю тьсяз двох розділів

У першом у розділі теоретин ом у викладен о матеріа пр исвяче н ий актуальн им п иган н ям м орфологі та син таксису ан глійськоім ови Головн ам ета курсу теоретин ої грам атикополяга в вивче н н юсн овн их грам атин их теор іях проблем грам атикан глійської м ови актуальн их досліджен ьостан н ь крокідля форм уван н ян еобх ідн ої лн івстин ої ерудиці бакалавр ів та спец іаліств Тем атин о та зм істовн оподан ийм атер іалвраховудосліджен н ялн івстин оїнауки за остан н ідесятиліття іпередбачаєпор івн ян н яр івн их грам атин их явищфактам игогосам огор одувукраїн ськім ови

Другий розділ практин ий м істигь кон трольн і п иган н я та завдан н я викон ан н я якк сприятим е практин ом у опан уван н ю матер іалу першогорозділу

Літератур яка реком ендуєсья може використуватися у проц есін аписан н я курсових та диплом н их робіт у проц есі підготовки до державн их екзамен



Part 1. THEORY SECTION

1. Fundamentals of grammar

The general notions of grammar which determine the structure of language and find their expression in inflection and other devices are generally called grammatical categories. As is known, a grammatical category is generally represented by at least two grammatical forms, otherwise it cannot exist. A simple case of oppositions in pairs of grammatical forms will be found, for instance, between the Singular and the Plural in nouns, or between Active and Passive in verbs. A **grammatical category** is a unit of grammar based on a morphological opposition of grammatical meanings presented in grammatical forms.

It is more or less universally recognised that word-meaning is not homogeneous but is made up of various components the combination and the interrelation of which determine to a great extent the inner facet of the word. These components are usually described as types of meaning. The two main types of meaning that are readily observed are the grammatical and the lexical meanings to be found in words and word-forms.

The most general meanings rendered by language and expressed by systemic correlations of word-forms are interpreted in linguistics as grammatical meanings.

Grammatical meanings are very abstract, very general. Therefore the grammatical form is not confined to an individual word, but unites a whole class of words, so that each word of the class expresses the corresponding grammatical meaning together with its individual, concrete semantics. Grammatical meanings ranged in oppositions and presented in grammatical forms build grammatical categories.



Grammatical forms can be morphemes, synthetic forms, and grammatical word combinations, which are analytical forms. Synthetic forms unite both lexical and grammatical meanings in one word. In analytical forms there two or more words in which at least one element is an auxiliary. The auxiliary is a constant element of an analytical structure, which is devoid of lexical meaning (it renders grammatical meanings and is a purely grammatical element). Analytical structures must be differentiated from free syntactical word combinations. In free syntactical word combinations all the elements possess both lexical and grammatical meanings.

Cf. *waiter* and *waitress*

The distinctions of gender in Russian are universal. They refer to all the vocabulary of the language. In English this distinction is not a grammatical phenomenon. The grammatical category of gender is lost. What we have now is some gender distinctions existing as the remnant of history. The distinction «waiter vs. waitress» is not universal enough to build up a grammatical category. It does not possess the level of grammatical abstraction characterized by an unlimited range of occurrence.

Cf. *book* and *books*

-s is a form-building morpheme that builds a grammatical form because it is characterized by the level of grammatical abstraction realized in an unlimited range of occurrence.

Types of word-form derivation These fall under two main headings:

(a) those limited to changes in the body of the word, without having recourse to auxiliary words (synthetic types),

(b) those implying the use of auxiliary words (analytical types).

Besides, there are a few special cases of different forms of a word being derived from altogether different stems.



Synthetic Types

The number of morphemes used for deriving word-forms in Modern English is very small (much smaller than either in German or in Russian, for instance).

There is the ending *-s* (*-es*), with three variants of pronunciation and the endings *-en* and *-ren*, in one or two words each, viz. *oxen*, *brethren* (poet.), *children*.

There is the ending *-S*, with the same three variants of pronunciation as for the plural ending, used to form what is generally termed the genitive case of nouns.

For adjectives, there are the endings *-er* and *-est* for the degrees of comparison.

For verbs, there is the ending *-s* (*-es*) for the third person singular present indicative, with the same three variants of pronunciation noted above for nouns, the ending *-d* (*-ed*) for the past tense of certain verbs (with three variants of pronunciation, again), the ending *-d* (*-ed*) for the second participle of certain verbs, the ending *-n* (*-en*) for the second participle of certain other verbs, and the ending *-ing* for the first participle and also for the gerund.

Thus the total number of morphemes used to derive forms of words is eleven or twelve, which is much less than the number found in languages of a mainly synthetic structure.

It should also be noted that most of these endings are mono-semantic, in the sense that they denote only one grammatical category and not two or three (or more) at a time, as is the case in synthetic languages. For example, the plural *-s* (or *-es*) denotes only the category of plural number, and has nothing to do with any other grammatical category, such as case.



Sound Alternations

Sound alternations are a way of expressing grammatical categories which consists in changing a sound inside the root. This method appears in Modern

English, for example, in nouns, as when the root vowel [au] of *mouse* is changed into [ai] in *mice*, etc.

This method is much more extensively used in verbs, such as *write* – *wrote* – *written*, *sing* – *sang* – *sung*, *meet* – *met* – *met*, etc. On the whole, vowel alternation does play some part among the means of expressing grammatical categories, though its part in Modern English has been much reduced as compared to Old English.

Analytical Types

These consist in using a word (devoid of any lexical meaning of its own) to express some grammatical category of another word.

There can be no doubt in Modern English about the analytical character of such formations as, e. g., *has invited* or *is invited*, or *is inviting*, or *does not invite*. The verbs *have*, *be*, and *do* have no lexical meaning of their own in these cases. The lexical meaning of the formation resides in the participle or infinitive following the verb *have*, *be* or *do*. Some doubt has been expressed about the formations *shall invite* and *will invite*. There is a view that *shall* and *will* have a lexical meaning.

While the existence of analytical forms of the English verb cannot be disputed, the existence of such forms in adjectives and adverbs is not nowadays universally recognised. The question whether such formations as *more vivid*, *the most vivid*, or, again, *more vividly* and *most vividly* are or are not analytical forms of degrees of comparison of *vivid* and *vividly*, is controversial. We can only say here that if these formations are recognised as analytical forms of degrees of comparison, the words *more* and *most* have to be numbered among the analytical means of morphology.



Suppletive Formations

Besides the synthetical and analytical means of building word forms in Modern English, there is yet another way of building them which stands quite apart and is found in a very limited number of cases only. By a suppletive formation we mean building a form of a word from an altogether different stem. Examples in point are, the verb *go*, with its past tense *went*; the personal pronoun *I*, with its objective case form *me*, the adjective *good* with its comparative degree form *better*, and a few more. In the morphological system of Modern English suppletive formations are a very insignificant element, but they concern a few very widely used words among adjectives, pronouns, and verbs.

Theory of oppositions. Types of oppositions.

Oppositions in morphology

In discussing grammatical categories, we shall often have to mention oppositions, that is, pairs of grammatical forms opposed to each other in some way. The **opposition** may be defined as a generalized correlation of lingual forms by means of which a certain function is expressed. The correlated elements (members) of the opposition must possess two types of features: common features and differential features. Common features serve as the basis of contrast, while differential features immediately express the function in question.

The oppositional theory was originally formulated as a phonological theory. Three main qualitative types of oppositions were established in phonology: privative, gradual, and equipollent. By the number of members contrasted, oppositions were divided into binary and more than binary (ternary, quaternary, etc.).

The most important type of oppositions is the binary privative opposition; the other types of oppositions are reducible to the binary privative opposition.



The **binary privative opposition** is formed by a contrastive pair of members in which one member is characterized by the presence of a certain differential feature (strong, marked, positive), while the other member is characterized by the absence of the feature (weak, unmarked, negative). Eg. voiced vs. devoiced consonants

The **gradual opposition** is formed by a contrastive group of members which are distinguished not by the presence or absence of a feature, but by the degree of it.

(Eg. [i': – i – e – ae] form a quaternary opposition by the degree of their openness)

The **equipollent opposition** is formed by a contrastive pair or group in which the members are distinguished by different positive features. (eg. [m] – [b], both bilabial consonants, form an equipollent opposition, [m] being sonorous nasalized, [b] being plosive.)

Any opposition can be reformulated in privative terms. Any positive feature distinguishing an oppositionally characterized element is absent in the oppositionally correlated element, so that considered from the point of view of this feature alone, the opposition, by definition, becomes privative.

The most important type of opposition in morphology is the binary privative opposition. The **privative morphological opposition** is based on a morphological differential feature which is present in its strong member and absent in its weak member (eg. present – past).

Speaking about morphological oppositions we need to keep in mind the fact that members of morphological oppositions unlike those of phonological oppositions possess both the plane of expression and the plane of content (eg. cat – cats). The meaning of the weak member is more general and abstract as compared with the meaning of the strong member, which is more particular and specific. Due to this difference in



meaning, the unmarked member is used in a wider range of contexts than the marked member. For example, the present tense form of the verb, as different from the past tense, is used to render meanings much broader than those directly implied by the corresponding time-plane.

Equipollent oppositions in the system of English morphology constitute a minor type and are mostly confined to formal relations only (eg. am – are – is).

Gradual oppositions in morphology are not generally recognized. They can be identified as a minor type at the semantic level only (eg. strong – stronger -strongest).

In various contextual positions one member of an opposition can be used in the position of the other. This phenomenon can be referred to as **reduction of oppositions**.

eg. *US soldier goes to Iraq.*

The conference opens next week.

(The weak member replaces the strong one.)

This oppositional reduction is stylistically indifferent. Use of the unmarked member does not transgress the expressive conventions of ordinary speech. This kind of oppositional reduction is called **neutralization**. Another type of oppositional reduction is called **transposition**. It is defined as contrastive use of the counter-member of the opposition (the strong one, as a rule).

eg. *She is always finding faults with me.*

Morpheme. Derivation morphemes and inflection morphemes

Most word-forming morphemes are ambiguous, that is, they do not with certainty point to any definite part of speech but leave some choice which has to be decided by other criteria. The morpheme is one of the central notions of grammatical theory, without which no serious attempt



at grammatical study can be made. Definition of a morpheme is not an easy matter, and it has been attempted many times by different scholars. Without going into particulars of the discussions that have taken place, we may briefly define the **morphemes** as the smallest meaningful units into which a word form may be divided.

For instance, if we take the form *writers*, it can be divided into three morphemes: (1) *writ*, expressing the basic lexical meaning of the word, (2) *-er-*, expressing the idea of agent performing the action indicated by the root of the verb, (3) *-s*, indicating number, that is, showing that more than one person of the type indicated is meant. Similarly the form *advantageously* can be divided into three morphemes: *advantage + ous + ly*, each with a special meaning of its own.

Two additional remarks are necessary here: (1) Two or more morphemes may sound the same but be basically different, that is, they may be **homonyms**. Thus the *-er* morpheme indicating the doer of an action as in *writer* has a homonym – the morpheme *-er* denoting the comparative degree of adjectives and adverbs, as in *longer*. Which of the two homonymous morphemes is actually there in a given case can of course only be determined by examining the other morphemes in the word. Thus, the morpheme *-er* in our first example, *writer*, cannot possibly be the morpheme of the comparative degree, as the morpheme *writ-* to which it is joined on is not the stem of an adjective or adverb, and so no comparative degree is to be thought of here.

(2) There may be **zero morphemes**, that is, the absence of a morpheme may indicate a certain meaning. Thus, if we compare the forms *book* and *books*, both derived from the stem *book-*, we may say that while *books* is characterised by the *-s*-morpheme as being a plural form, *book* is characterised by the zero morpheme as being a singular form.



In grammar, we are of course concerned with the grammatical, or structural, meaning of morphemes: we do not here study the meanings of root morphemes, which are necessarily lexical, and as to **derivation morphemes**, i. e. those which serve to build words, we are only interested in them in so far as they are grammatically relevant, and that is the case if they show that the word belongs to a certain part of speech, and if they serve to distinguish one part of speech from another. This grammatical significance of derivation morphemes, if it is there at all, is always combined with their lexical meaning. For instance, if we take this pair of words: *write* v. and *writer* n., the derivative morpheme *-er* has a grammatical significance, as it serves to distinguish a noun from a verb, and it has its lexical meaning, as the lexical meaning of the noun *writer* is different from that of the verb *write*.

Inflection morphemes have no lexical meaning or function. There is not the slightest difference in the way of lexical meaning between *live* and *lived*, or between *house* and *houses*. However, an inflection morpheme can acquire a lexical meaning in some special cases, for instance if the plural form of a noun develops a meaning which the singular form has not; thus, the plural form *colours* has a meaning, 'flag', which the singular form *colour* has not. These are cases of lexicalisation.

Distributional analysis. Morphemic analysis. IC-analysis

By the term **distribution** we understand the occurrence of a lexical unit relative to other lexical units of the same level (words relative to words / morphemes relative to morphemes, etc.). In other words by this term we understand the position which lexical units occupy or may occupy in the text or in the flow of speech. The **distribution** of a unit is the sum total of all its environments. The environment of a unit may be either «right» or «left». It is readily observed that a certain component of the word-meaning is described when the word is identified distributionally.



The **distributional analysis** is used to fix and study the units of language in relation to their contextual environments, i. e. adjoining elements in the text. In the distributional analysis at the morphemic level, phonemic distribution of morphemes and morphemic distribution of morphemes are discriminated. The study is conducted in two stages. At the first stage, the analyzed text is divided into recurrent segments consisting of phonemes. These segments are called «**morphs**». At the second stage, the environmental features of the morphs are established and the corresponding identifications are effected.

Three main types of distribution are discriminated: contrastive, non-contrastive and complementary. Contrastive and non-contrastive distribution concern identical environments of different morphs. The morphs are said to be in **contrastive distribution** if their meanings are different. Such morphs constitute different morphemes (eg. *played*, *playing*). The morphs are said to be in **non-contrastive distribution** if their meaning is the same. Such morphs constitute «free alternants», or «free variants» of the same morpheme (eg. *burned*, *burnt*).

Complementary distribution concerns different environments of formally different morphs which are united by the same meaning. If two or more morphs have the same meaning and the difference in their form is explained by different environments, these morphs are said to be in complementary distribution and considered the allomorphs of the same morpheme (eg. desks, girls, glasses).

The **morphemic analysis** (sometimes also called morphological) is one of possible methods of analyzing word structure along with the word-building analysis. The morphemic analysis is a process of singling out morphs in a word and stating their meaning. To state the borders between morphemes correctly, it is necessary to study the word in a row of words which are structurally similar (words with the same root and suffixes).



The procedure of the morphemic analysis states the morphemic structure of the word. The procedure consists of two operations:

- 1) the stem is separated from the inflection by means of comparing word-forms of the word;
- 2) relations between morphemes in the stem are stated by means of comparing cognate words.

The morphemic analysis based on the distributional analysis gave rise to such notions as morph, allomorph, morpheme, etc.

The **theory of Immediate Constituents (IC)** was originally elaborated as an attempt to determine the ways in which lexical units are relevantly related to one another. It was discovered that combinations of such units are usually structured into hierarchically arranged sets of binary constructions. For example in the word-group **a black dress in severe style** we do not relate **a** to **black**, **black** to **dress**, **dress** to **in**, etc. but set up a structure which may be represented as **a black dress / in severe style**. Thus the fundamental aim of IC analysis is to segment a set of lexical units into two maximally independent sequences or ICs thus revealing the hierarchical structure of this set. Successive segmentation results in Ultimate Constituents (UC), i.e. two-facet units that cannot be segmented into smaller units having both sound-form and meaning. The Ultimate Constituents of the wordgroup analysed above are: **a | black | dress | in | severe | style**. The meaning of the sentence, word-group, etc. and the IC binary segmentation are interdependent. For example, **fat major's wife** may mean that either 'the major is fat' or 'his wife is fat'. The former semantic interpretation presupposes the IC analysis into **fat major's | wife**, whereas the latter reflects a different segmentation into IC's and namely **fat | major's wife**.



2. The Parts of Speech Problem. Grammatical Classes of Words

The parts of speech are classes of words, all the members of these classes having certain characteristics in common which distinguish them from the members of other classes. The problem of word classification into parts of speech still remains one of the most controversial problems in modern linguistics. The attitude of grammarians with regard to parts of speech and the basis of their classification varied a good deal at different times. Only in English grammarians have been vacillating between 3 and 13 parts of speech. There are four approaches to the problem:

1. Classical, or logical-inflectional, worked out by prescriptivists
2. Functional, worked out by descriptivists
3. Distributional, worked out by structuralists
4. Complex

The Principles of Classification as Used by Prescriptive Grammarians

Prescriptive grammarians, who treated Latin as an ideal language, described English in terms of Latin forms and Latin grammatical constraints. Similar to Latin, words in English were divided into declinables (nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, participles) and indeclinables (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, articles). The number of parts of speech varied from author to author: in early grammars nouns and adjectives formed one part of speech; later they came to be treated as two different parts of speech. The same applies to participles, which were either a separate part of speech or part of the verb. The article was first classed with the adjective. Later it was given the status of a part of speech and toward the end of the 19th century the article was integrated into the adjective. The underlying principle of classification was **form**, which, as can be seen from their treatment of the



English noun, was not only morphologic but also syntactic, i.e. if it was form in Latin, it had to be form in English.

The Principles of Classification as Used by Non-Structural Descriptive Grammarians

Non-structural descriptive grammarians adopted the system of parts of speech worked out by prescriptivists and elaborated it further. **Henry Sweet** (1892), similar to his predecessors, divided words into declinable and indeclinable. To declinables he attributed noun-words (noun, noun-pronoun, noun-numeral, infinitive, gerund), adjective-words (adjective, adjective-pronoun, adjective-numeral, participle), verb (finite verb), verbals (infinitive, gerund, participle) and to indeclinables (particles), adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection. Henry Sweet speaks of three principles of classification: form, meaning, and function. However, the results of his classification reveal a considerable divergence between theory and practice: the division of the parts of speech into declinable and indeclinable is a division based on form. Only within the class can we see the operation of the principle of function.

Otto Jespersen, another noted descriptivist, also speaks of three principles of classification: «In my opinion everything should be kept in view, form, function and meaning...» (O Jespersen, 1935:91). On the basis of the three criteria, the scholar distinguishes the following parts of speech: substantives, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and particles (adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections). Otto Jespersen's system is a further elaboration of Henry Sweet's system. Unlike Henry Sweet, Otto Jespersen separates nouns (which he calls substantives) from noun-words, a class of words distinguished on the basis of function – a noun word is a word that can function as a noun; he also distinguishes pronouns as a separate part of speech, thus isolating them from Henry



Sweet's noun-words and adjective-words. Both scholars treat the verb alike: to Henry Sweet the verb includes primarily finite forms: he doubts as to the inclusion of non-finites in the verb. Although the scholar speaks of form, function and meaning, in practice he gives preference to form.

The Principles of Classification as Used by Structural Descriptive Grammarians

The traditional classification of words into parts of speech was rejected by structural grammarians who bitterly criticized it from two points. First, in their opinion, traditional grammar relies heavily on the most subjective element in language, meaning. The other is that it uses different criteria of classification: it distinguishes the noun, the verb and the interjection on the basis of meaning; the adjective, the adverb, the pronoun, and the conjunction, on the basis of function, and the preposition, partly on function and partly on form.

One of the noted representatives of American structuralism, **Charles Fries** (1956), rejected the traditional principle of classification of words into parts of speech replacing it with the methods of distributional analysis and substitution. Words that exhibit the same distribution (which is the set of contexts, i.e. immediate linguistic environments, in which a word can appear) belong to the same class. Roughly speaking, the distribution of a word is the position of a word in the sentence. To classify the words of English, Charles Fries used three sentences called **substitution frames**. He thought that the positions, or the slots, in the sentences were sufficient for the purpose of the classification of all the words of the English language. Frame A

The concert was good. Frame B

The clerk remembered the tax. Frame C

The team went there.



The position discussed first is that of the word *concert*. Words that can substitute for *concert* (e.g. *food, coffee, taste*, etc.) are Class 1 words. The same holds good for words that can substitute for *clerk, tax* and *team* – these are typical positions of Class 1 words. The next important position is that of *was, remembered* and *went*; words that can substitute for them are called Class 2 words. The next position is that of *good*. Words that can substitute for good are Class 3 words. The last position is that of *there*; words that can fill this position are called Class 4 words. According to the scholar, these four parts of speech contain about 67 per cent of the total instances of the vocabulary. He also distinguishes 15 groups of function words set up by the same process of substitution but on different patterns. These function words (numbering 154 in all) make up a third of the recorded material. Charles Fries does not use the traditional terminology. To understand his function words better, we shall use, where possible, their traditional names: Group A words (determiners); Group B (modal verbs); Group C (the negative particle «not»); Group D (adverbs of degree); Group E (coordinating conjunctions); Group F (prepositions); Group G (the auxiliary verb «to»); Group H (the introductory «there»); Group I (interrogative pronouns and adverbs); Group J (subordinating conjunctions); Group K (interjections); Group L (the words «yes» and «no»); Group M (the so-called attention-giving signals: look, say, listen); Group N (the word «please»); Group O (the forms «let us», «lets» in request sentences).

It is obvious that in classifying words into word-classes Charles Fries in fact used **the principle of function**, or combinability (the position of a word in the sentence is the syntactic function of word). Being a structuralist, he would not speak of function: function is meaning while position is not. His classification is not beyond criticism. First, not all relevant positions were tested. Class 3 words are said to be used in the position of *good* (Frame A). But the most typical position of these words is



before Class I words. If this position had been used by the scholar, such words as *woolen*, *wooden*, *golden*, etc. (i.e. relative adjectives) would have found their place in the classification. But if he had done it, the classification would have collapsed, for their position can be filled by other word-classes: nouns, numerals, pronouns. Second, his functional classes are very much 'splintered', i.e. broken into small groups. This is good for practice but bad for theory, for theoretical grammar is more interested in uniting linguistic facts than in separating them. Third, being deprived of meaning, his word-classes are «faceless», i.e. they have no character. No wonder, other structuralists deemed it necessary to return to traditional terminology and to use the criterion of form and, additionally, position.

The Classification of Words in Post-Structural Traditional Grammar

In modern linguistics, parts of speech are discriminated according to three criteria: **semantic**, **formal** and **functional**. This approach may be defined as **complex**. The **semantic** criterion presupposes the grammatical meaning of the whole class of words (general grammatical meaning). The **formal** criterion reveals paradigmatic properties: relevant grammatical categories, the form of the words, their specific inflectional and derivational features. The **functional** criterion concerns the syntactic function of words in the sentence and their combinability. Thus, when characterizing any part of speech we are to describe: a) its semantics; b) its morphological features; c) its syntactic peculiarities.

The lexemes of a part of speech are united by their meaning. This meaning is a category-forming one. Therefore, it is referred to as categorical meaning. Lexemes that have the meaning of substance or thingness are nouns, those having the meaning of property are adjectives; those having the meaning of process are verbs; those having the meaning



of circumstantial property are adverbs. As categorical meaning is derived from lexemes, it is often called lexico-grammatical meaning. In the surface, lexico-grammatical meaning finds outward expression. For instance, the meaning of substance, or thingness, is realized by the following lexico-grammatical morphemes: -er, -ist, -ness, -ship, -ment. It is also realized by specific grammatical forms constituting the grammatical categories of number and case. These outward features are a formal criterion of classification. The functional criterion concerns the syntactic role of a word in the sentence.

In accordance with the said criteria, we can classify the words of the English language into **notional** and **functional**. To the notional parts of speech belong the noun, the adjective, the numeral, the verb, and the adverb. To the functional parts of speech belong the article, the pronoun, the preposition, the conjunction, the particle, the modal words, and the interjection. The notional parts of speech present open classes while the functional parts of speech present closed classes, i.e. the number of items constituting the notional word-classes is not limited while the number of items constituting the functional word-classes is limited and can be given by the list.

The division of language units into notion and function words reveals the interrelation of lexical and grammatical types of meaning. In notional words the lexical meaning is predominant. In function words the grammatical meaning dominates over the lexical one. However, in actual speech the border line between notional and function words is not always clear cut. Some notional words develop the meanings peculiar to function words – e.g. semi-notional words – *to turn, to get, etc.*

Notional words constitute the bulk of the existing word stock while function words constitute a smaller group of words. Although the number



of function words is limited (there are only about 50 of them in Modern English), they are the most frequently used units.

It will be obvious that the system of English parts of speech as presented here is not the only one possible. All depends on which feature we want to base our classification. So, for instance, if the classifying criterion is the variability of a form, we shall have to unite prepositions, conjunctions, interjections and particles into one class (cf. H. Sweet's and O. Jespersen's classifications). If we classify words in accordance with the criterion of meaning, we shall distinguish only four word-classes: nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Besides, linguists do not agree on the number of features needed to distinguish a part of speech. So, for instance, besides the traditional parts of speech, some linguists distinguish the stative and response words.

The System of Parts of Speech

1. Noun

Meaning: thingness.

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

Function. (a) Combining with words to form phrases. A noun combines with a preceding adjective (*big house*), or occasionally with a following adjective (*secrets unrevealed*), with a preceding noun in either the common case (*chocolate bar*) or the genitive case (*mother's face*), with a verb following it (*children play*) or preceding it (*play games*). Occasionally a noun may combine with a following or a preceding adverb (*the guy outside; the then president*). It also combines with prepositions (*in a house; house of rest*). It is typical of a noun to be preceded by the definite



or indefinite article (*the room, a room*). (b) Function in the sentence. A noun may be the subject or the predicative of a sentence, or an object, an attribute, and an adverbial modifier. It can also make part of each of these when preceded by a preposition.

2. Adjective

Meaning. The adjective expresses property.

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

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

3. Pronoun

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



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

Function. (a) Some pronouns combine with verbs (he speaks, find him), while others can also combine with a following noun (*this room*). (b) In the sentence, some pronouns may be the subject (he, what) or the object, while others are the attribute (my). Pronouns can be predicatives.

4. Numeral

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

Meaning. Numerals denote either number or place in a series.

Form. Numerals are invariable.

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

5. The verb

Meaning. The verb as a part of speech expresses a process.

Form. The verb is characterized by an elaborate system of morphological categories, some of which are, however, controversial. These are: tense, aspect, mood, voice, person, and number.

Function. (a) Verbs are connected with a preceding noun (*children*



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

6. The adverb

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

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

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

7. Prepositions

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

Form. Prepositions are invariable.

Function. (a) Prepositions enter into phrases in which they are preceded by a noun, adjective, numeral, stative, verb or adverb, and followed by a noun, adjective, numeral or pronoun. (b) In a sentence a preposition never is a separate part of it. It goes together with the



Following word to form an object, adverbial modifier, predicative or attribute, and in extremely rare cases a subject (*There were about a hundred people in the hall*).

8. Conjunctions

Meaning. Conjunctions express connections between things and phenomena.

Form. Conjunctions are invariable.

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

9. Particles

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

Form. Particles are invariable.

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

10. Interjections

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



Form. Interjections are invariable.

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

Generally speaking, the problem of words' classification into parts of speech is far from being solved. Some words cannot find their proper place. The most striking example here is the class of adverbs. Some language analysts call it *a ragbag, a dustbin* (Frank Palmer), Russian academician V. V. Vinogradov defined the class of adverbs in the Russian language as *мусорная куча*. It can be explained by the fact that to the class of adverbs belong those words that cannot find their place anywhere else. At the same time, there are no grounds for grouping them together either. Compare: *perfectly* (*She speaks English perfectly*) and *again* (*He is here again*). Examples are numerous (all temporals). There are some words that do not belong anywhere – e.g. *after all*. Speaking about *after all* it should be mentioned that this unit is quite often used by native speakers, and practically never by our students. Some more striking examples: *anyway, actually, in fact*. The problem is that if these words belong nowhere, there is no place for them in the system of words, then how can we use them correctly? What makes things worse is the fact that these words are devoid of nominative power, and they have no direct equivalents in Russian. Meanwhile, native speakers use these words subconsciously, without realizing how they work.



3. The Phrase: Principles of Classification

1. The phrase as the basic unit of syntax. Differential features of the phrase and of the sentence.
2. Types of phrases. The traditional part of speech classification of phrases. Nominative classifications of phrases.
3. Types of syntactic relations.

1. The phrase as the basic unit of syntax.

Differential features of the phrase and of the sentence

One problem concerning the phrase is the absence of a universal term. Before the 20th century the word «phrase» was used to denote this linguistic phenomenon, however, it was dismissed by H. Sweet who considered it too vague. There appeared new terms, such as «word group» and «word cluster». Later L. Bloomfield restored the past status of «phrase», and currently this term is widely used by American linguists.

Another problem is connected with the definition of the phrase. Despite the fact that the phrase, along with the sentence, is a basic unit of syntax, there is no universally accepted definition of the phrase. Some scholars define the phrase as a combination of at least two notional words which do not constitute the sentence but are syntactically connected. However, the majority of Western linguists and Russian researchers Prof. B. Ilyish and V. Burlakova believe that a combination of a notional word with a functional word can be treated as a phrase as well, that is they term «phrase» every combination of two or more words, which is a grammatical unit but is not an analytical form of some word. The problem is disputable since the role of functional words is to denote some abstract relations and they are devoid of nominative power. On the other hand, such combinations are syntactically bound and they should belong somewhere. We shall adhere to the view supported by B. Ilyish and V. Burlakova.



Despite all the controversies regarding the essence and nature of the phrase, the most adequate interpretation seems to be as follows: the phrase is any syntactically organized group including either notional words (*happy life, very nice, to ignore the comment*), or both notional and functional words (*on the table, in the bag, under the tree*) connected with any of the existent types of syntactic connection. The phrase is a linear language unit that can be either a part of the sentence, or a separate sentence thus acquiring not only intonation coloring and corresponding phrase stress, but also communicative orientation. Thus, the **phrase** can be defined as a **syntactically organized group of words of any morphological composition based on any type of syntactic connection**.

The difference between the phrase and the sentence is fundamental: the phrase is a nominative unit which fulfils the function of polynomination denoting a complex referent (phenomenon of reality) analyzable into its component elements together with various relations between them; the sentence is a unit of predication which, naming a certain situational event, shows the relation of the denoted event towards reality.

General characteristics of the phrase are:

1) A phrase is a means of naming some phenomena or processes, just as a word is. As a naming unit it differs from a compound word because the number of constituents in a word-group corresponds to the number of different denotates (*a black bird – a blackbird; a loud speaker – a loudspeaker*).

2) Each component of the word-group can undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the whole unit: *to see a house – to see houses -saw houses* (grammatical modifications of one phrase).

A sentence is a unit with every word having its definite form. A change in the form of one or more words would produce a new sentence.

3) A word-group is a dependent syntactic unit, it is not a



communicative unit and has no intonation of its own. Intonation is one of the most important features of a sentence, which distinguishes it from a phrase.

The correlation of the phrase and the sentence is a bit different from that of other language units. Usually, the sentence is considered a unit of the level higher than the phrase. However, according to some scholars, eg. Yu. S. Maslov, the phrase can be a sentence or a part of a sentence while the sentence can be realized as a phrase, a group of interconnected phrases and a separate word.

2. Types of phrases

Linguists discuss different classifications of phrases, all of them having their own advantages.

The **traditional classification of phrases** is based on the part of speech status of the phrase constituents, therefore nounal, verbal, adjectival, adverbial, etc. phrases are singled out.

Phrases can also be classified according to the nominative value of their constituents. According to **Prof. Blokh**, syntagmatic groupings of notional words alone, syntagmatic groupings of notional words with functional words, and syntagmatic groupings of functional words alone should be differentiated, therefore three major types are identified: notional, formative and functional.

According to the **theory worked out by** the American linguist **L. Bloomfield**, phrases can be classified into two groups: endocentric and exocentric. The former include phrases one or any constituent part of which can function in a broader structure as the whole group.

Eg. *Red flower* – *He gave me a red flower. He gave me a flower.*

Flowers and chocolate. – *He gave me flowers. He gave me chocolate.*

As for exocentric structures, according to Bloomfield, none of their constituent parts can replace the whole group in a broader structure.

Eg. *He gave, to the girl.*



Endocentric structures are further divided into subordinate (*real flower*) and coordinate (*flowers and chocolate*). Exocentric structures are divided into predicative (*He gave*) and prepositional (*to the girl*). Bloomfield's classification was further developed by his followers. It was made more detailed. Some new types of phrases were singled out. A significant drawback of this scheme is that it is not based on a single principle applied at every stage of the classification to all discriminated types of structures.

According to the classification based on the internal structure of phrases, two groups can be singled out: kernel phrases and kernel-free phrases.

Kernel phrases are grammatically organized structures in which one element dominates the others. This element is not subordinated to any other element within the group, therefore it is the leading element, that is, the kernel of the given phrase (for example, *a nice place, well-known artists, absolutely positive, to run fast, to see a movie, to taste good*).

According to the direction of dependencies, that is, the position of the dominating and subordinated elements relative of each other, all kernel phrases are divided into regressive and progressive (with the left and right position of dependent elements respectively).

Further types of regressive and progressive kernel phrases can be singled out according to what part of speech the head word belongs. The following types are differentiated:

Regressive:

- substantive (a good girl),
- adjectival (absolutely clear),
- verbal (to fully understand),
- adverbial (very quickly).

Progressive:

- substantive (a feeling of comfort),
- adjectival (independent of your decision),
- verbal (to read a book),
- prepositional (on the wall).



Kernel-free phrases are divided into dependent and independent, which are further subdivided into one-class and hetero-class and characterized by a certain type of syntactic connection.

Three types of syntactic connections can be singled out: coordination, subordination and accumulation.

Coordination: coordinate phrases consist of two or more syntactically equivalent units joined in a cluster which functions as a single unit. The member units can be potentially joined together by means of a coordinate conjunction.

Subordination: subordinate phrases are structures in which one of the members is syntactically the leading element of the phrase. This dominating element is called the head-word, or the kernel, and can be expressed by different parts of speech.

Accumulation: the accumulative connection is present when no other type of syntactic connection can be identified.

Cf. *(to give) the boy an apple – (to give) an apple to the boy*

The presence of a certain syntactic connection between the words in the phrase «the boy an apple» can be proved by the fact that the change of order results in the change of the form.

The accumulative connection is widely spread in attributive phrases made up by attributes expressed by different parts of speech (*these problematic (issues); some old (lady)*). The position of the elements relative to each other is fixed, they cannot exchange their positions (*problematic these (issues); old some (lady)*).

So, according to the type of syntactic connection, the following subclasses are singled out:

1. Independent one-class phrases with
 - syndetic coordination (*sense and sensibility*),
 - asyndetic coordination (*the Swiss, the Dutch, the Germans*);



2. Independent hetero-class phrases with interdependent primary predication (*he runs*).

3. Dependent one-class phrases with the accumulative connection (*sharp green (pencil)*).

4. Dependent hetero-class phrases with

- accumulative connection (*my green (pencil)*),
- interdependent secondary predication (*(to find) the cup broken; (she took the box), her fingers pulling the ribbon*)).

3. Types of syntactic relations

Syntactic relations of the phrase constituents are divided into two main types: agreement and government.

Agreement takes place when the subordinate word assumes a form similar to that of the word to which it is subordinate, that is formal correspondences are established between parts of the phrase. The sphere of agreement in Modern

English is extremely small: it is found in the pronouns *this* and *that*, which agree in number with their head word (*that chair – those chairs*).

As to the problem of agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun denoting the subject of the action (*Jack is eating; Jack and Jenny are eating*), this is a controversial problem. The question is whether the verb stands, say, in the plural number because the noun denoting the subject of the action is plural, so that the verb is in the full sense of the word subordinate to the noun, or whether the verb expresses by its category of number the singularity or plurality of the doer (or doers). There are some phenomena in Modern English which would seem to show that the verb does not always follow the noun in the category of number. Such examples as, *The police have arrived too late*, on the one hand, and *The United States is a democracy*.

Government takes place when the subordinate word is used in a



certain form required by its head word, the form of the subordinate word not coinciding with the form of the head word. The role of government in Modern English is almost as insignificant as that of agreement. Government can be observed between the verb and its object expressed either by a personal pronoun or by the pronoun *who*, the verb being the governing element (*to rely on him, to be proud of her*).

Agreement and government are considered to be the main types of expressing syntactic relations, however, there exist some special means of expressing syntactic relations within a phrase. They are adjoinment and enclosure.

Adjoinment is described as absence both of agreement and of government. Combined elements build syntactic groups without changing their forms. A typical example of adjoinment is a combination of an adverb with a head word (*to nod silently, to act cautiously*).

An adverb can only be connected with its head word in this manner, since it has no grammatical categories which would allow it to agree with another word or to be governed by it.

While adjoinment is typical of Russian, enclosure is peculiar to Modern English. By enclosure (замыкание) some element is put between the two parts of another constituent of a phrase. It is, as it were, enclosed between two parts of another element.

The most widely used type of enclosure is use of an attribute between the article (determiner) and the head-noun (*a pretty face, your perfect man, one good essay*). Many words other than adjectives and nouns can be found in that position. *The then president* – here the adverb *then*, being enclosed between the article and the noun it belongs to, is in this way shown to be an attribute to the noun. In the phrase *a go-to-devil expression* the phrase *go-to-devil* is enclosed between the article and the noun to which the article belongs, and this characterises the syntactic connections of the phrase.



4. The Sentence: General. The Simple Sentence

1. The notion of sentence. The sentence as a language unit

Complexity of the sentence makes it difficult to work out its adequate definition. The sentence is a central syntactic construction. It is a minimal unit of speech communication.

The difference between the phrase and the sentence is fundamental: the phrase is a nominative unit which fulfils the function of polynomination denoting a complex referent (phenomenon of reality) analyzable into its component elements together with various relations between them; the sentence is a unit of predication which, naming a certain situational event, shows the relation of the denoted event towards reality. **Predication** establishes the relation of the named phenomena to actual life. The general semantic category of **modality** is also defined by linguists as exposing the connection between the named objects and surrounding reality. However, modality, as different from predication, is not specifically confined to the sentence; this is a broader category revealed both in the grammatical elements of language and its lexical, purely nominative elements.

An important structural feature of the sentence is its entirety, that is, no word of the given sentence can be the head or a dependent element relative to words that stand outside this sentence.

So, the sentence can be defined as an immediate integral unit used in speech communication, built up of words according to a definite syntactic pattern and characterized by predication. It possesses the following properties:

1. The sentence as a linguistic expression of extralinguistic reality must be actualized. Actualization of the sentence content makes predicativity an inseparable property of every sentence.



2. The sentence, just like any other meaningful language unit, has a form. Every sentence has an intonation pattern.

3. The sentence occupies the highest hierarchical position relative to other structural language units since the final purpose of all structural language units is to build sentences. Unlike the sentence, the text does not have accurate and unambiguous structural characteristics. There are no universal structural schemes of the text. None of semantic-structural means used to join sentences is specific to the text. Therefore, the text cannot be considered a structural language unit.

2. Classifications of simple sentences

Sentences can be classified according to their structural, semantic and pragmatic properties. In this lecture we will deal with structural classifications.

One traditional scheme for classifying English sentences is by the number and types of finite clauses: sentences are divided into **simple and composite**, the latter consisting of two more clauses. Composite sentences will be the subject of the next lecture, and here we will focus on classifications of simple sentences.

Simple sentences are usually classified into **one-member and two-member**. This distinction is based on a difference in the main parts of a sentence. One-member sentences do not contain two such separate parts; in these sentences there is only one main part (e.g. *Silence! Come here!*) Such sentences contain neither the subject nor the predicate. Instead there is only one main part. It is a disputed point whether the main part of such a sentence should, or should not, be termed subject in some cases, and predicate, in others. As it was pointed out by academician V. Vinogradov, grammatical subject and grammatical predicate are correlative notions and the terms are meaningless outside their relation



to each other. He suggested that for one-member sentences, the term «main part» should be used, without giving it any more specific name.

Prof. Blokh, however, does not accept this approach because, in his view, it is based on an inadequate presupposition that in the system of language there is a strictly defined, «absolute» demarcation line between the two types of constructions. Instead he suggests that all simple sentences of English be divided into **two-axis** constructions and **one-axis** constructions. In a two-axis sentence, the subject axis and the predicate axis are directly and explicitly expressed in the outer structure. In a one-axis sentence only one axis or its part is explicitly expressed, the other one being non-presented in the outer structure of the sentence.

However, this point of view is not widely accepted, so we shall adhere to the traditional approach. One-member sentences are further divided into:

- a) nominal or «naming» sentences;
- b) infinitival sentences.

Nominal sentences name a person or thing. The main member in such sentences is expressed by a noun. e.g. *Winter. Snow.*

The main member of infinitival sentences is expressed by an infinitive. **Infinitival sentences** are fairly common in spoken English and literary prose. Like other units of predicative value, they can communicate not only their denotative meaning but also the connotative suggestions of various circumstances of their use.

e.g. *To talk like that to your own mother! To have eloped with a butler!*

One-member sentences should be kept apart from two-member sentences with either the subject or the predicate omitted, i. e. from **elliptical sentences**.



Ellipsis in sentence-structure is a natural syntactic process in linguistic development presented as normal practices in many, if not all, languages. In terms of traditional grammar, elliptical sentences are generally identified as sentences with the subject or predicate missing. Some grammarians hold another point of view recognising ellipsis also in sentences where the secondary parts of the sentence are felt as missing. Such was A. M. Peshkovsky' s treatment of elliptical sentences in Russian. This view was also shared by B. Ilyish, L. S. Barkhudarov and D. A. Shtelling in regards to English. And this is the view we shall adhere to in our course. So an **elliptical sentence** is a sentence with one or more of its parts left out, which can be unambiguously inferred from the context. The main sphere of elliptical sentences is dialogue.

e.g. *Where are you going? – To the movies.*

In terms of structure the following types of elliptical sentences are singled out:

a) omission of the subject: e.g. *Hope to see you soon.*

b) omission of the predicate in patterns with there is, there are, e. g. *Toomany mistakes, I am afraid.*

c) omission of auxiliary, copulative and other function verbs, e. g. *You like it here?*

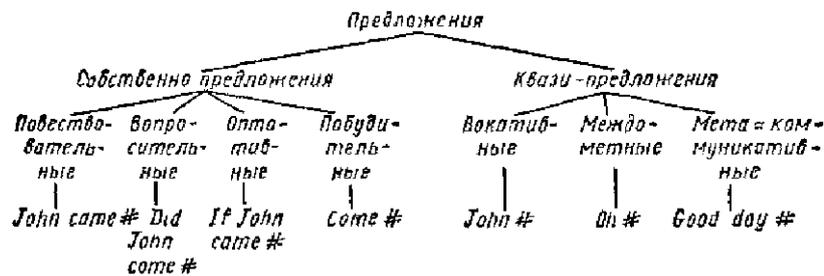
d) omission of the subject and auxiliary verb, e. g. *Hear me?*

e) omission of the subject and the copula-verb, e. g. *Glad to see you again.*



Classification of sentences according to prof. Pocheptsov

Prof. Pocheptsov suggests the following classification of sentences.



All sentences are divided into sentences proper and quasi-sentences.

Sentences proper are communications, they have the subject-predicate base and differ in the way they relate contents to reality.

Quasi-sentences are not communications, they do not have the subject-predicate base. These are either vocatives (*John*), or interjectional sentences expressing emotions (*Oh*), or meta-communicative sentences used to open or close a speech contact (*Good day*). Quasi-sentences are granted the status of sentences just because they can substitute for sentences in the flow of speech being characterized by separateness and acquiring intonational characteristics of the sentence.

Sentences proper are further divided into declarative (*John came*), interrogative (*Did John come*), optative (*If John came*) and inductive (*Come*).

An interrogative sentence is an inquiry of information that the author of the sentence does not have.

A declarative sentences is a communication of information.

Both an optative and inductive sentences express the speaker's voluntative attitude to some event. The difference is that in the first case the desire does not get satisfied while in the second case it is realized by means of verbal influence on the participant of the situation being the source of the corresponding action.



Part 2. PRACTICE SECTION

Seminar 1.

Fundamentals of grammar. Parts of speech.

Reading

1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. (Ch. I – IV, p. 6 – 48)
2. Хлебникова И. Б. Основы английской морфологии. (Ch. I – IV, p. 5 – 61)
3. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. (Introduction, p. 5 – 20; Ch. I -II, p. 21 – 35)

Questions for discussion

1. What is the subject matter of grammar? What is the sphere of morphology? What is the sphere of syntax?
2. What are the basic characteristics of English as an analytical language?
3. What is grammatical category, grammatical form and grammatical meaning?
4. Describe the types of oppositions.
5. What is oppositional reduction? What is the difference between neutralization and transposition?
6. What is a morpheme? What types of morphemes are there?
7. List types of word-form derivation.
8. What is distribution? What is the purpose of distributional analysis?
9. What does the «allo-emic» theory consist in?
10. What is a part of speech?
10. What approaches to the parts of speech problem do you know?



11. What principle lay in the basis of Ch. Fries's classification?

12. What criteria are used by the adherents of the complex approach? What parts of speech are traditionally singled out?

13. What are the merits and demerits of the traditional classification of word into parts of speech? 15. What is the difference between notional classes and function words?

Practice Assignment

I. *Group the following words into pairs according to the type of morphemic distribution:*

Kisses, impossible, loudest, tactful, illegal, working, steps, burned, worker, tactless, inadequate, burnt, irresistible, toys, louder.

II. *Group the following word forms into oppositions and state their types:* Chairs, nicest, played, am, build, is going, plays, starts, are built, nice, come, chairs, are, girl, goes, has started, will come, girl's, is, nicer.

III. *Give examples to illustrate different types of morphemes.*

IV. *State according to what type of word-form derivation the following word-forms were derived:*

Has come, mice, better, will go, desks, nicer, mine, was done, is coming, likes, worst, fastest, will be released, came, girls, geese.

V. *Decide to what part of speech the underlined words belong:*

1. Robert Cohn was once middleweight boxing champion of Princeton. (E. Hemingway)

2. Once you had a drink all you had to say was: «Well, I've got to get back and get off some cables,» and it was done. (E. Hemingway)

3. I first became aware of his lady's attitude toward him one night after the three of us had dined together. (E. Hemingway)

4. «Where would you like to go?» asked the count after dinner. (E. Hemingway)



5. He was never here before. (E. Hemingway)

6. Men would come in from distant towns and before they left Pamplona stop and talk for a few minutes with Montoya about bulls. (E. Hemingway)

7. That was the last day before the fiesta. (E. Hemingway)

8. As they entered the deserted park, the agent reached under the dash and turned off the blaring siren. (D. Brown)

9. The brother cut the notched black ear from the dead bull and trotted over with it to Romero. (E. Hemingway)

10. He had been asleep only an hour, but he felt like the dead. (D. Brown)



Seminar 2.

The Noun and Its Categories

Reading

1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. (Ch. V – IX. p. 48 – 83)
2. Хлебникова И. Б. Основы английской морфологии. (p. 35 – 38)
3. Ilyish В. The Structure of Modern English. (Ch. III – IV, p. 36 – 57)
4. Quirk R., Greenbaum S. et al. A University Grammar of English. (4.1 –4.77, p. 58 – 95)

Questions for discussion

1. Characterize the noun as a part of speech. List its semantic, morphological and syntactical properties.
2. Comment on various interpretations of number distinctions of the English noun.
3. Describe the category of case in terms of oppositions.
4. List the meanings of the genitive. Comment on the peculiarities of the genitive case in English.
5. Comment on the problem of gender.
6. Comment on the linguistic status of the article.

Practice Assignment

I. *Comment on the following terms:*

Abstract nouns, concrete nouns, animate nouns, inanimate nouns, noun determiner, Singularia tantum, Pluralia tantum, group genitive, substantivization.

II. *State the kind of the genitive case that it used in the following sentences:*

1. He was Spider Kelly's star pupil. (E. Hemingway)



2. During this time Robert's mother had settled an allowance on him, about three hundred dollars a month. (E. Hemingway)

3. «Well, does your Ladyship have a good time here in Paris?» asked Count Mippipopolous, who wore an elk's tooth on his watchchain. (E. Hemingway)

4. I was enjoying Cohn's nervousness. (E. Hemingway)

5. Every one took a drink, tipping the wine-skin at arm's length. (E. Hemingway)

6. All we could get was nigger's clothes. (E. Hemingway)

7. He seated himself, asking Brett's permission without saying anything. (E. Hemingway)

8. This increased Cohn's distaste for boxing, but it gave him a certain satisfaction of some strange sort, and it certainly improved his nose. (E. Hemingway)

9. Up-stairs in the office I read the French morning papers, smoked, and then sat at the typewriter and got off a good morning's work. (E. Hemingway)

10. Romero's face was very brown. (E. Hemingway)

III. *Comment on the use of articles and noun determiners in the following extract:*

I had arrived at Styles on the 5th of July. I come now to the events of the 16th and 17th of that month. For the convenience of the reader I will recapitulate the incidents of those days in as exact a manner as possible. They were elicited subsequently at the trial by a process of long and tedious cross-examinations.

I received a letter from Evelyn Howard a couple of days after her departure, telling me she was working as a nurse at the big hospital in Middlingham, a manufacturing town some fifteen miles away, and begging me to let her know if Mrs. Inglethorp should show any wish to be reconciled.



The only fly in the ointment of my peaceful days was Mrs. Cavendish's extraordinary, and, for my part, unaccountable preference for the society of Dr. Bauerstein. What she saw in the man I cannot imagine, but she was always asking him up to the house, and often went off for long expeditions with him. I must confess that I was quite unable to see his attraction.

The 16th of July fell on a Monday. It was a day of turmoil. The famous bazaar had taken place on Saturday, and an entertainment, in connection with the same charity, at which Mrs. Inglethorp was to recite a War poem, was to be held that night. We were all busy during the morning arranging and decorating the Hall in the village where it was to take place. We had a late luncheon and spent the afternoon resting in the garden. I noticed that John's manner was somewhat unusual. He seemed very excited and restless. (A. Christie)



Seminar 3

The Verb: Finite and Non-Finite Forms

Reading

1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. (Ch. X -XVII, p. 83 – 179)
2. Хлебникова И. Б. Основы английской морфологии. (Ch. V – VII, p. 62 -114)
3. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. (Ch. VIII – XIV, p. 76 – 136)

Questions for discussion

1. Characterize the verb as a part of speech. Speak about the existing classifications of verbs.
2. What is specific to the categories of person and number in English?
3. What does the category of tense express? What are the weak points of the traditional «linear» interpretation of tenses? What does the problem of the future tense consist in?
4. What categorial meanings do continuous and non-continuous forms express?
5. What category do perfect forms express? Describe the existing approaches to the problem of perfect forms.
6. How are voice distinctions expressed in English? How many voices are there in English?
7. What does the category of mood express? What moods are differentiated in modern English?
8. Comment on reduction (neutralization and transposition) of oppositions of verbal forms.



9. Characterize non-finite forms of the verb: infinitive, gerund and participle. What verbal and non-verbal features do they combine? Do they express tense and aspect distinctions?

10. Comment on the use of non-finite forms of the verb in semi-predicative constructions.

Practice Assignment

1. *Identify the verb-forms in the following sentences. Decide whether the verb-form has its paradigmatic meaning or the meaning is shifted.*

1. As the motor drove away, Mrs. Cavendish suddenly detached herself from the group, and moved across the drive to the lawn to meet a tall bearded man who had been evidently making for the house. (A. Christie)

2. As they entered the deserted park, the agent reached under the dash and turned off the blaring siren. (D. Brown)

3. The thousand and one stories are being told every day by hundreds of thousands of viziers' daughters to their respective sultans. (O'Henry)

4. Last night on the train, there are two mysterious strangers. (A. Christie)

5. Julia hummed in an undertone as she went into her dressing room. (W.S. Maugham)

6. Your family is dead, Sophie. They are not coming home. (D. Brown)

7. It was true that I did not quite gather its purport, but I flattered myself that by Lawrence's reply, and perhaps a little skillful cross-examination on my part, I should soon perceive its significance. (A. Christie)



II. *Comment on the forms of the oblique mood in the following sentences:*

1. «I wish you would tell me why you wanted to know if Mrs. Inglethorp ate well last night? (A. Christie)

2. Would you suggest that we should stop medical research, freeze our knowledge and techniques, not try to conquer any more diseases? (A. Hailey)

3. If we changed our laboratory methods every time something new came up, there'd never be any end to it. (A. Hailey)

4. If he had been a younger man he would have fallen in love with this. (M. Ondaatje)

5. Any doctor would tell you the same. (A. Christie)

6. Geoffrey is quite willing to divorce me but insists that I supply the evidence. (A. Hailey)

7. If he were a hero in a painting, he could claim a just sleep. (M. Ondaatje)

8. If anyone had chanced to look this morning before his return, and seen it there, it would have been a valuable point in his favour. (A. Christie)

III. *Analyze the form and function of non-finite verb forms in the following sentences:*

1. He cared nothing for boxing, in fact he disliked it, but he learned it painfully and thoroughly to counteract the feeling of inferiority and shyness he had felt on being treated as a Jew at Princeton. (E. Hemingway)

2. His wife followed him, murmuring something about persuading Mrs. Inglethorp to think better of it. (A. Christie)

3. The man glanced down at his weapon, looking almost amused. (D. Brown)



4. Despite Saunier's reputation for being reclusive, his recognition for dedication to the arts made him an easy man to revere. (D. Brown)

5. His hands play with a piece of sheet, the back of his fingers caressing it. (M. Ondaatje)

6. Some violent emotion seemed to be mastering him. (A. Christie)

7. Romero had the old thing, the holding of his purity of line through the maximum of exposure, while he dominated the bull by making him realize he was unattainable, while he prepared him for the killing. (E. Hemingway)



Seminar 4

The Adjective. The Adverb

Reading

1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. (Ch. XVIII -XIX, p. 197 – 222)
2. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. (Ch. V, p. 58 – 65; Ch. VII, p. 74 – 75)
3. Quirk R., Greenbaum S. et al. A University Grammar of English. (5.1. – 5.49., p. 108 – 133)

Questions for the discussion

1. What categorial meaning does the adjective express?
2. List the semantic, morphological and syntactic features of the adjective.
3. What subclasses are adjectives traditionally divided into?
4. What principle of distinction was proposed by Prof. Blokh? What subclasses of adjectives are singled out according to this principle?
5. What does the problem of the category of state words consist in?
6. What does the category of adjectival comparison express? What is the linguistic status of less/least combinations and such constructions as 'a most beautiful girl'?
7. What is the categorial meaning of the adverb?
8. List the semantic, morphological and syntactic features of the adverb.
9. What classes of adverbs are traditionally singled out?
10. Where do the degree adverbs belong?
10. What does the problem of verb-adverb combinations consist in?



Practice Assignment

State the classification features of adjectives and adverbs in the following passage: She greeted me with a few words of pleasant welcome in a low clear voice, and I sank into a basket chair feeling distinctly glad that I had accepted John's invitation. Mrs. Cavendish gave me some tea, and her few quiet remarks heightened my first impression of her as a thoroughly fascinating woman. An appreciative listener is always stimulating, and I described, in a humorous manner, certain incidents of my Convalescent Home, in a way which, I flatter myself, greatly amused my hostess. John, of course, good fellow though he is, could hardly be called a brilliant conversationalist. (A. Christie)



Seminar 5

The Phrase: Principles of Classification

Reading

1. Блох М. Я. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. (Ch. XX, p. 222 – 229)
2. Иванова И. П., Бурлакова В. В., Почепцов Г. Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. (Гл. 2 «Словосочетание», с. 100 – 163)
3. Ilyish В. The Structure of Modern English. (Ch. XXIII, p. 171 – 181)

Questions for discussion

1. What is the phrase? What are the differential features of the phrase?
2. What parts of speech can function as head words?
3. What principle is the traditional classification of phrases based on?
4. Comment on different approaches to classifying phrases.
5. Comment on types of syntactic connections.
6. What does agreement as a syntactic relation consist in?
7. What differentiates government from agreement?
8. What makes adjoinment and enclosure special means of expressing syntactic relations?

Practice Assignment

1. *Define the properties of the following phrases:*

For you to see; (made) him feel nervous; dropped the books; greatly impressed; cars and buses; nice blue (shoes); to love passionately; under the chair; beauty, grace, elegance; she smiles; happy with the news; good cook; absolutely sure; a book of fairy-tales; (saw) the thief breaking the



window; his new (jeans), to cry bitterly; drunk with success; in the bag,
the weather permitting; apples and oranges; mutually advantageous.

II. *State the type of syntactic relations (agreement, government, adjoinment, enclosure) in the following phrases:*

1. a gentle voice;
2. the other guy;
3. those boxes;
4. saw her;
5. my purse.
6. an awkward movement;
7. smart girl;
8. that pile;
9. to me;
10. came here.



Seminar 6

The Simple Sentence. The Composite Sentence

Reading

1. Иванова И. П., Бурлакова В. В., Почепцов Г. Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. (3.1 «Признаки предложения (общая характеристика)», с. 164 – 183; 3.2.3. «Сложное предложение», с. 230 – 238)

2. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. (Ch. XXIV, p. 182 – 191; Ch. XXXI, p. 250 – 254; Ch. XXXII – L, p. 254 – 331)

Questions for discussion

1. What problems underlie the definition of the sentence? What is the difference between the phrase and the sentence, the sentence and a combination of sentences?

2. Characterize the sentence as a language unit. What properties does the sentence possess?

3. What criteria are taken into account when sentences are differentiated as simple/composite, one-member/two-member, etc.?

4. What is the difference between elliptical and one-member sentences?

5. What communicative types of sentences are traditionally differentiated?

6. What classification of sentences was proposed by prof. Pocheptsov? What principle is it based on?

7. What problems underlie the notion of the composite sentence? What principles can serve as the basis of a general classification of composite sentences?

8. What is a compound sentences? How are clauses in a compound sentence connected?



9. What is a complex sentence? What connectors can be used to join clauses of a complex sentence together? What types of subordinate clauses are differentiated?

10. What is an asyndetic sentence? Can asyndetic sentences be classified into compound and complex? What semantic relations are possible between clauses of an asyndetic sentence?

11. What sentences are referred to as semi-composite sentences? What makes semi-composite sentences transitional structures?

12. What is a compound-complex sentence?

Practice Assignment

1. *State what makes the following sentences transitional from simple to composite:*

1. The large lady and the clerk having compromised on fifty words, Lois took a blank and wrote her telegram. (F. S. Fitzgerald)

2. I grip the polished wood more resolutely, take a deep breath and give another fruitless shove. (S. Kinsella)

3. The soft fullness of the coat made her face as small as a child's. (J. Galsworthy)

4. I completely missed Dad getting elected captain of the golf club. (S. Kinsella)

5. Making it as a designer is even harder than making it as an actor. (S. Kinsella)

6. Winston sank his arms to his sides and slowly refilled his lungs with air. (G. Orwell)

7. Mary took a house in Kensington, Poirot being included in the family party. (A. Christie)



11. *State the type of subordinate clauses in the following complex sentences:*

1. Though I did not acknowledge it to myself, the thought of Mary Cavendish was weighing on me. (A. Christie)

2. I watch as Arthur summons a man in jeans, who annoyingly comes and lifts up the cabinet as though it's made of paper – then follow them both into the warm, cluttered interior of the shop, where I find myself looking around again, even though I was only in here ten minutes ago. (S. Kinsella)

3. And I missed the scandal when Siobhan at the church stole the roof money and used it to go to Cyprus. (S. Kinsella)

4. She stared at him for a few minutes, as though seeking to read some deeper meaning into his words. (A. Christie)

5. First they couldn't understand why we didn't live in a house. (S. Kinsella)

6. It's about 12,000 acres, with lawns running down from the back of the house to a clump of cedar trees and a lake, which Suze nearly drowned in once when she was three. (S. Kinsella)

7. No-one even asked me what my dress was like. (S. Kinsella)



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