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Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики

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УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС ПО УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ

Теоретическая грамматика

для специальности 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)»

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Рассмотрен и утвержден
на заседании Научно-методического совета БГУ
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Учебно-методический комплекс предназначен для студентов специальности 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)», выпускаемых факультетом социокультурных коммуникаций БГУ. Содержание УМК предполагает изучение следующих вопросов: грамматическая система языка, понятия языка и речи, грамматическое значение, форма и категории, способы формообразования, классы слов, синтаксис, предикативность и предикация, методы грамматического анализа предложения, актуальное членение предложений, основные принципы построения связного высказывания и др. УМК также содержит учебную программу дисциплины, планы семинаров, вопросы для подготовки к экзамену, образцы билетов для приема экзамена, критерии для оценки знаний и практических навыков, образцы тестов для проверки знаний студентов, фрагменты текстов лекций, материалы для семинаров, список литературы.

ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Теоретическая грамматика является обязательной дисциплиной в системе лингвистической подготовки студентов факультета социокультурных коммуникаций Белорусского государственного университета. Данная учебная дисциплина входит в набор дисциплин профессионального цикла, ориентированных на изучение теоретических основ фундаментальных дисциплин. Содержание курса теоретической грамматики базируется на общелингвистической подготовке студентов, знаниях практической грамматики английского языка и предусматривает теоретическое истолкование грамматических явлений, изучение грамматического строя английского языка как единой и целостной системы, характеризующейся взаимосвязью всех элементов.

Учебная дисциплина «Теоретическая грамматика» предназначена для студентов IV курса специальности 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)». На базе учебной программы был составлен учебно-методический комплекс в соответствии с Положением БГУ об учебно-методическом комплексе по учебной дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика», в который вошли следующие разделы: теоретический, практический, контроля знаний и вспомогательный. В теоретическом разделе представлены вопросы, освещаемые и обсуждаемые в ходе лекционных занятий. Практический раздел содержит планы практических занятий, включающих в себя основные вопросы каждой темы, которые должны быть изучены на занятиях по теоретической грамматике английского языка согласно тематическому плану, изложенному в учебной программе. Раздел контроля знаний содержит материалы текущей аттестации, которые представлены тестами, требованиями и содержанием экзамена. Вспомогательный раздел представлен учебной программой дисциплины, включающей пояснительную записку, содержание учебного материала, учебно-методическую карту и информационно-методическую часть.

I ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

1.1 Тексты лекций (фрагменты)

LECTURE 1

Introduction to the Theory of Grammar

1. Grammar as a part of language. Grammar as a linguistic discipline.

2. Parts of Grammar. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of grammatical units.

1. We should distinguish between language as an abstract system of signs (meaningful units) and speech as the use of language in the process of communication. Language and speech are interconnected. Language functions in speech. Speech is the manifestation of language.

The system of language is constituted by 3 subsystems: phonetics, vocabulary, grammar. Grammar may be defined as a system of word changing and other means of expressing relations of words in the sentence. The 3 constituent parts of language are studied by the corresponding linguistic disciplines: phonology, lexicology, grammar.

Grammar as a linguistic discipline may be practical or theoretical. Practical Grammar describes the grammatical system of a given language. Theoretical Grammar gives a scientific explanation of the nature and peculiarities of the grammatical system of the language.

Modern English, as distinct from Modern Russian, is a language of analytical structure. Relations of words in the sentence are expressed mainly by the positions of words or by special form-words. The main means of expressing syntactic relations in Russian (a language of synthetic structure) is the system of word changing.

Synthetic forms are built up by a change in the word itself: by means of suffixes (e.g. *I work, he works, we work**ed***), by means of vowel change (e.g. *I find*, *I found*), and sometimes by combining both means (e.g. *I think*, I *thought*).

Analytical forms consist of two components, e.g. *He **has worked** hard*. The first component is an auxiliary verb which has no lexical meaning – it expresses only grammatical meaning. The second component is a notional verb which is the bearer of lexical meaning – ('носитель лексического значения'). The auxiliary

verb shows that *has worked* is the third person singular, the Indicative Mood, the Active Voice. But the specific meaning of this particular form, that of the Present Perfect, results from the combination of both components.

2. Main units of Grammar are a word and a sentence. A word may be divided into morphemes. A sentence may be divided into phrases (word-groups). A morpheme, a word, a phrase and a sentence are units of different levels of language structure.

Grammatical units enter into two types of relations: in the language system (paradigmatic relations) and in speech (syntagmatic relations).

In the language system each unit is included into a set of connections based on different properties. For example, word forms child, children, child's, children's have the same lexical meaning and have different grammatical meanings. They constitute a lexeme.

Word-forms children, boys, men, books… have the same grammatical meaning and have different lexical meanings. They constitute a grammeme (a categorical form, a form class).

The system of all grammemes (grammatical forms) of all lexemes (words) of a given class constitutes a paradigm – a system of changing forms of words or constructions, the declension of a noun, the conjugation of a verb.

Syntagmatic relations are the relations in an utterance: *I like children.*

Main grammatical units, a word and a sentence, are studied by different sections of Grammar: Morphology (Accidence) and Syntax. Morphology studies the structure, forms and the classifications of words. Syntax studies the structure, forms and the classification of sentences. In other words, Morphology studies paradigmatic relations of sentences. Syntax studies syntagmatic relations of words and paradigmatic relations of sentences.

Phonology[1] – is a study of phonemes. A phoneme – a unit of the system of sounds of a language e.g. English has 24 consonant phonemes.

Lexicology[2] – studies vocabulary of language.

LECTURE 2

Main Notions of Grammar

1. Grammatical meaning, grammatical form.
2. Grammatical category.

1. The basic notions of Grammar are the grammatical meaning, the grammatical form and the grammatical category.

The grammatical meaning is a general, abstract meaning which combines groups of words.

The grammatical meaning depends on the lexical meaning and is connected with objective reality indirectly, through the lexical meaning.

The grammatical meaning is relative, it is revealed in relations of word forms: speak – speaks.

The grammatical meaning is obligatory. Grammatical meaning must be expressed if the speaker wants to be understood.

The grammatical meaning must have a grammatical form of expression (inflexions, analytical forms, word-order, etc.). Compare the two forms walks, is writing. Both forms denote process, but only the second form expresses it grammatically.

The term form may be used in a wide sense to denote all means of expressing grammatical meanings. It may be also used in a narrow sense to denote means of expressing a particular grammatical meaning (plural, number, present tense, etc.).

2. In the system of language grammatical elements are connected on the basis of similarity and contrast. Partially similar elements, i.e. elements having common and distinctive features, constitute oppositions:

goes – went, table – tables, good – better – best. Consider the opposition table – tables. Members of the opposition differ in form and have different grammatical meanings (singular and plural). At the same time they express the same general meaning – number.

The unity of the general meaning and its particular manifestations which is revealed through the opposition of forms is a grammatical category. There may be different definitions of the category laying stress either on its notional or formal aspect. But the category exists only if there is an opposition of at least two forms. If

there is one from, there is no category.

e.g. The form <u>goes</u> denotes present tense, 3rd person singular number, indicative mood, active voice, etc. These meanings are revealed in different oppositions.

But grammatical forms can't express different meanings of the same category. So if a grammatical form has two or more meanings, they belong to different categories.

LECTURE 3

The Structure of Words. Means of Form-Building

1. A word and a morpheme. The notion of allomorphs.
2. Synthetic means of form-building.
3. Analytical forms.

1. The main task of morphology is the study of the structure of words. The smallest significant (meaningful) units of words are called morphemes. E.g. run-s – contains two; unlikely – un-likely – contains three.

According to their meaning and function morphemes are subdivided into lexical (roots), lexico-grammatical (word-building affixes) and grammatical (form-building affixes, or inflexions).

Morphemes are abstract units, represented in speech by morphs. Morphemes can be free and bound. Bound morphemes can not form words by themselves, they are indentified only as components of words. Free morphemes can build up words by themselves, that is can be used "freely".

For instance, in the word "handful" the root "hand" is a free morpheme, while the suffix "-ful" is a bound morpheme.

There are very few productive bound morphemes in the morphological system of English. These morphemes are the following:

1.   –(e)s: the plural of nouns, the possessive case of nouns, the third person singular present of verbs;
2.   the ending –ed: the past and past participle of verbs;
3.   the –ing form: the gerund and present participle;
4.   the –er, -est: the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs.

Grammatical meanings may be expressed by the absence of the morpheme. Compare: book – books. The meaning of plurality is expressed by the morpheme – s. The meaning of singularity is expressed by the absence of the morpheme. Such meaningful absence of the morpheme is called zero-morpheme.

The function of the morpheme may be performed by a separate word. In the opposition work – will work the meaning of the future is expressed by the word will. Will is a contradictory unit. Formally it is a word, functionally it is a morpheme. As it has the features of a word and a morpheme, it is called a word-morpheme. Word-morphemes may be called semi-bound morphemes.

2. Means of form-building and grammatical forms are divided into synthetic and analytical. Synthetic forms are built with the help of bound morphemes, analytical forms are built with the help of semi-bound morphemes (word-morphemes).

Synthetic means of form-building are affixation, (inner-inflexion: man-men, speak-spoke), suppletivity. Though English grammatical affixes are few in number, affixation is a productive means of form-building. Sound interchange may be of two types: vowel- and consonant- interchange. It is often accomplished by affixation: bring – brought.

Sound interchange is not productive in Modern English. It is used to build the forms of irregular verbs. Forms of one word may be derived from different roots: go – went, I – me, good – better. This means of form-building is called suppletivity.

Suppletivity, like inner-inflexion, is not productive in Modern English, but it occurs in words with a very high frequency.

3. Analytical forms are combinations of the auxiliary element (a word-morpheme) and the notional element: is writing.

In the analytical form is writing the auxiliary verb be is lexically empty. It expresses the grammatical meaning. The notional element expresses both the lexical and grammatical meaning. So the grammatical meaning is expressed by the two components of the analytical form: the auxiliary verb be and the affix –ing. The word-morpheme be and the inflexion –ing constitute a discontinuous morpheme.

The abundant use of analytical forms, especially in the system of the verb, is the characteristic feature of Modern English.

LECTURE 4

Noun

1. General characteristics. Classification.
2. Morphological categories (number, case).
3. The problem of the category of article determination.

1.1. Nouns denote things and other entities presented as substances: beauty, progress, etc.

The only category of nouns, which is generally accepted, is the category of number. Many scholars think that the notion of case applies to English pronouns, but not to nouns. Gender distinctions are not marked morphologically. Nouns are related by conversion with verbs: to walk – a walk; an eye – to eye, and with adjectives: native – a native.

Nouns are premodified by nouns in the possessive and in the common case: the car's roof (individual characteristics) – the car roof (general characteristics) noun groups of the type N + N (stone wall, car roof, speech sound), often called "stone-wall constructions", take an intermediary positions between compound nouns and noun phrases. Multicomponental structures are typical of newspapers and scientific style: ambulance staff pay dispute.

1.2. Nouns fall into several subclasses which differ as to their semantic and grammatical properties: common – proper, concrete – abstract, countable – uncountable (count – non-count, count – mass), animate – inanimate, personal – non-personal (human – non-human).

Lexico-semantic variants of nouns may belong to different subclasses: paper – a paper, etc.

The class of nouns can be described as a lexico-grammatical field. Nouns denoting things constitute the centre (nucleus) of the field. Nouns denoting process, qualities, abstract notions (predicate nouns) are marginal, peripheral elements of the field.

2. Case is a morphological category which has a distinct syntactic significance, as it denotes relations of nouns towards other words in the sentence.

Languages of synthetic structure have a developed case-system. Languages of analytical structure lack these morphological variants. In English the only case, which is marked morphologically, is the genitive (possessive), the other "case meaning" being is expressed by word-order and prepositions. Positional and prepositional cases are very often analysed alongside of the inflexional case, and the case-system may look as follows:

John came in. (Nominative)

John's friend, a friend of John. (Genitive)

I gave John a letter (gave it to John). (Dative)

 I saw John there. (Accusative)

Prepositional phrases cannot be treated as analytical case-forms, as prepositions preserve the lexical meaning. Prepositional phrases and synthetic forms are often synonymous: the decision of the government – the government's decision.

So there are only two cases (common and genitive). But the two-case theory is also open to criticism: -s is not a typical case inflexion. It is used both in the singular and in the plural: man's – men's. It can be added to adverbs: today's lecture, and to phrases: Mary and John's father. There are arguments for the recognition of the genitive case (A.I. Smirnitsky), peculiarities of –s cannot be denied. Attempts have also been made to combine the case systems of nouns and pronouns, thus recognizing three cases (Nominative John, he; Genitive John's, his; Accusative John, him).

3. Many scholars recognize the category of definiteness/ indefiniteness (article determination). Though the article is used as the morphological marker of the noun (a walk), it can hardly be treated as a word-morpheme. The position of the article may be occupied by other words (demonstrative and possessive pronouns, etc). Words, which have a distribution including the article position, are called determiners. The role of determiners is to specify the range of reference of the noun by making it definite or indefinite.

Meaningful absence of the article, or zero article, presupposes generalization.

In discussing the use of the articles it is essential to distinguish between specific, or particular reference, and generic reference:

The telephone is broken. (Specific reference)

The telephone is useful. (Generic reference)

The article plays an important role in structuring information. It is one of the means of distinguishing between facts already known (the theme) and new information (the rheme). The definite article is the marker of the theme, the indefinite article is the marker of the rheme.

LECTURE 5

Verb. Categories of Tense, Aspect

1. Time and linguistic means of its expression. Tense in Russian and English compared.

2. The problem of the future and future-in-the-past. The category of posteriority (prospect).

3. The place of continuous forms in the system of the verb. The category of aspect.

4. The place of perfect forms in the system of the verb. The category of order (correlation, retrospect, taxis).

According to content, verbs can be described as words denoting actions, the term "actions" embracing the meaning of activity (e.g. to walk, to speak, to play, to study), process (e.g. to sleep, to wait, to live), state (e.g. to be, to like, to know), relation (e.g. to consist, to resemble, to lack) and the like.

According to form, verbs can be described as words that have certain grammatical features that are not shared by other parts of speech, e.g. they have the categories of tense, aspect, voice, etc.

According to function, verbs can be defined as words making up the predicate of the sentence. Verbs can be classified under different heads.

According to their meaning verbs can be divided into two groups – **terminative** and **durative** verbs. **Terminative** verbs imply a limit beyond which the action cannot continue. To put it differently, they have a final aim in view, e.g. to open, to close, to bring, to recognize, to refuse, to break. With the verb to open, for example, that means that after opening the door it is impossible to go on with the action as the door is already open.

Durative verbs do not imply any such limit, and the action can go on indefinitely, e.g. *to carry*, *to live*, *to speak*, *to know*, *to sit*, *to play*.

But as most verbs in English are polysemantic they may be terminative in one meaning and durative in another. For example, to see may have the terminative

meaning "увидеть" and the durative meaning "видеть"; to know may denote "знать" and "узнать". The meaning of the verb becomes clear from the context. Compare: I saw him at once and I saw his face quite clearly. As will be seen, the distinction between terminative and durative verbs is of great importance as it affects the use of certain tense-aspect-phase forms.

English verbs are characterized by a great variety of forms which can be divided into two main groups according to the function they perform in the sentence: the finite forms and the non-finite forms.

The finite forms have the function of the predicate in the sentence and may also be called the predicative forms.

The non-finite or non-predicative forms can have various other functions; they are used as the predicate of the sentence only by way of exception.

Grammatically the verb is the most complex part of speech. As a matter of fact, the verb is a system of systems. The main division inside the verb is that between the finite verbs and non-finite verbs. The finites can further be subdivided. The infinitive, the gerund, and the Part. are also 3 systems within the verbals.

Finites

Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
(presents the actions as real facts)	(were, did)	(a command, request to perform an
		action addressed to somebody, but
		not the action itself)

Verbids (non finite)

Infinitive   Gerund   Participle
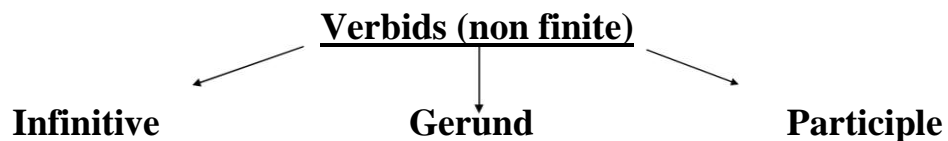
According to their morphological structure verbs are divided into:
   a) simple (read, live, hide, speak);
   b) derived, i.e. having affixes (magnify, fertilize, captivate, undo,
   c) compound consisting of two stems (daydreamer)

d) composite, consisting of a verb and a postposition of adverbial origin (sit down, go away). Semantically verbs divide into notional and semi-notional. Some speak of a 3rd group – auxiliary verbs. Notional – possess full lexical meaning.

Semi-notional (Structural) – have very general, "faded" lexical meaning. (ex.: be, have, become, seem, can, may).

They include 2 peculiar groups: link-verbs and modal verbs.

As I have already mentioned according to their meaning and function in the sentence English verbs are classified into notional and structural ones.

Notional verbs always have a lexical meaning of their own and can have an independent syntactic function in the sentence.

*e.g. During the war he **lived** in London.*

When a verb is used as a structural word, it may either preserve or lose its lexical meaning. But even if it has a lexical meaning of its own, the latter is of a specific character and the verb cannot have an independent syntactic function in the sentence – it is always closely connected with some other word. Here belong modal verbs and link-verbs.

A modal verb is always accompanied by an infinitive –together they form a modal predicate.

e.g. The party is at eight. You **must** dress suitably for it.

I **couldn't** do anything under the circumstances.

A **link-verb** is followed by a predicative; together they form a nominal predicate.

He was a middle-aged man.

It became very hot by noon.

The hotel remained empty all through the winter. The cottage seemed deserted.

Sometimes a verb is entirely devoid of lexical meaning and is then called an **auxiliary verb**. Combined with a notional verb it serves to build up **analytical forms**.

e.g. We **had** arranged to meet in the usual place. **Do** you know why he said that?

The young man **was sitting** at the table alone. Polysemantic verbs may be notional as well as structural words.

e.g. He is married and has three children (a notional verb used in the meaning

"to possess").

I had to reconsider my position (a structural word: a modal verb denoting obligation, part of a modal predicate).

"It has happened now," he said, "so there's nothing to do" (a structural word: an auxiliary verb which serves to build up an analytical form).

He looked at me, waiting for the next words (a notional verb meaning 'glanced'). He looked quite happy (a structural word: a link-verb meaning 'seemed').

According to their relation to the continuous forms, English verbs fall into two groups: dynamic verbs, i.e. verbs which admit of the continuous form (a) and stative verbs, i.e. verbs which do not admit of the continuous form (b).

e.g.

a) We **were eating** dinner when he called.

You'll find Mother in the kitchen. She **is making** a cake.

b) I **understand** what you **mean**.

I **don't see** him in the crowd.

The distinction between dynamic, and stative verbs is fundamental in English grammar, and it is also reflected in a number of other ways than in the continuous form.

English verbs are also classified according to the type of object they take. Verbs that do not require any object are called **intransitive**.

e.g. We **walked** across the fields.

Nobody knew where the old man **lived**.

Verbs that require some kind of object to complete their meaning are called transitive. The objects transitive verbs take may be direct (a), indirect (b), or prepositional (c).

e.g.

a) I swear I'm telling the truth.

b) His mother never gave him advice.

c) Now let's talk of something sensible.

Polysemantic verbs may be transitive in one meaning and intransitive in another.

e.g.

I didn't know where to find him as he had changed his address.

I was glad to see that he had not changed at all. He ran uphill past a block of houses. She ran the shop quite competently.

The Category of Aspect.

English verbs have special forms for expressing actions in progress, going on at a definite moment or period of time.

When I came in he was writing.

Continuous forms have been traditionally treated as tense-forms (definite, expanded, progressive) or as tense-aspect forms.

Consider the opposition:

comes – is coming

Members of the opposition are not opposed as tenses (tense is the same). They show different character of an action, the manner or way in which the action is experienced or regarded: as a mere fact or as taken in progress. The opposition **common – continuous** reveals the category of aspect.

Tense and aspect are closely connected, but they are different categories, revealed through different oppositions: *comes – came*; *comes – is coming*.

The fact that the Infinitive has the category of aspect (to come – to be coming) and has no category of tense also shows, that these are different categories.

The category of aspect is closely connected with the lexical meaning. R. Quirk divides the verbs into dynamic (having the category of aspect) and stative (disallowing the continuous form). Stative verbs denote perception, cognition and certain relations: see, know, like, belong. Dynamic verbs may be terminative (limitive), denoting actions of limited duration: close, break, come, and durative (unlimitive), denoting actions of unlimited duration: walk, read, write shine. With durative verbs the aspect opposition may be neutralized.

The Category of Posteriority

We should distinguish between time as a universal non-linguistic concept and linguistic means of its expression (grammatical and lexical).

The time of events is usually correlated with the moment of speaking. The three main divisions of time are present (including the moment of speaking), past (preceding it), and future (following it).

Events may be also correlated with other events, moments, situations (for

example, in the past or in the future). They may precede or follow other events or happen at the same time with other events.

Accordingly time may be denoted absolutely (with regard to the moment of speaking) and relatively (with regard to a certain moment).

In modern Russian the category of tense denotes time both absolutely and relatively: (1) Он работает на заводе – the moment of speaking; (2) Он сказал, что работает на заводе – the moment in the past.

In sentence (1) the present form denotes an action, correlated with the moment of speaking. In sentence (2) it denotes an action, correlated with a moment in the past. In both sentences the action includes the moment with which it is correlated.

In Modern English the category of tense denotes time only absolutely: (3) He works at a plant – the moment of speaking; (4) He said he worked at a plant – precedes the moment of speaking.

In both sentences the action is correlated with the moment of speaking. In sentence (3) it includes the moment of speaking. In sentence (4) it precedes the moment of speaking.

So the category of tense in Modern Russian denotes the relation of an action to the moment of speaking or to some other moment. The category of tense in Modern English denotes the relation of an action to the moment of speaking. Relative time is expressed by special forms (future-in-the past, perfect forms, sometimes continuous forms), which are very often also treated as tenses.

Examples:
1.   Он сказал, что изучает немецкий язык.
2.   Он сказал, что изучал немецкий язык.
3.   Он сказал, что будет изучать немецкий язык.

The Russian present tense is changed into the tense of simultaneity, the past past tense is changed into the tense of priority and the future tense is changed into the tense of posteriority.

In English, the primary tenses in similar syntactic conditions retain their absolute nature and are used in keeping with their direct, unchangeable meanings.

Examples:
1. He said that he was learning German.

2. He said he had learnt German (before).
3. He said he would learn German.

We observe here sequence of tenses which is an important feature of English grammar and it should be stressed here that it is essentially a meaningful procedure while reporting information in different types of narration.

The two main approaches to the category of Tense in Modern English are: 1) there are three tenses: present, past, future; 2) there are two tenses: present and past (O. Jespersen, L.S. Barkhudarov).

According to the second view shall, will + infinitive cannot be treated as analytical forms, as shall and will preserve their modal meaning. There are proofs that shall and will may denote pure futurity (B.A. Ilysh), so they may be regarded as auxiliary verbs.

However the recognition of the analytical forms of the future does not mean the recognition of the three-tense system, because in Modern English there are two correlated forms, denoting future actions: future and future-in-the-past. Future-in-the-past correlates an action not with the moment of speaking, but with a moment in the past, so it cannot be included into the system of tenses. Moreover, if it is treated as a tense-form, there will be two tenses in one form (future and past), which is impossible. On the other hand, future and non-future forms constitute an opposition:

comes – will come/ shall come – would come/ should come

This opposition reveals a special category, the category of posteriority (prospect). Will come denotes absolute posteriority, would come – relative posteriority.

Time

The time of an action or event can be expressed lexically with the help of such words and combinations: yesterday, next week, now, ago. It can also be shown grammatically by means of the Category of Tense.

The difference between the lexico-grammatical expression of time is similar to the difference between the lexico-grammatical expression of number:

a). lexically it is possible to name any definite moment of period of time: a year, a day, a minute. The grammatical meaning of time is an abstraction from one of the tenses: the present, past, future.

b). lexically a period of time is named directly (on Sunday), the grammatical indication of time is indirect (the verb names not time but action that took place at a particular moment of speech).

LECTURE 6

The Category of Voice

1. General characteristics.
2. The problem of the number of voices.
3. Peculiarities of English passive constructions.
4. The problem of be + participle II

The category of voice is revealed through the binary opposition "active – passive": loves – is loved; loving – being loved; to love – to be loved; has loved – has been loved

Voice shows the relation of the action towards its subject and object (doer and recipient, agent and receiver). Active voice denotes an action issuing from its subject. Passive voice denotes an action directed towards its object:

He loves.
He is loved.

In other words, voice denotes the direction of an action as viewed by the speaker.

Voice is a morphological category but it has a distinct syntactic significance. Active voice has obligatory connections with the doer of the action. Passive voice has obligatory connections with the object of the action.

In the active construction the semantic and the grammatical subject coincide. In the passive construction the grammatical subject is the object of the action.

The category of voice characterizes both finite forms and verbals: to love – to be loved; loving – being loved.

Participle I may be also opposed to participle II:
loving – loved
(active) (passive)

But participle II may also have perfect meaning:
writing – written
(non-perfect) (perfect)

The main difficulty in defining the number of voices in modern English is the absence of direct correspondence between meaning and form. Three more voices have been suggested in addition to active and passive:

(1) Reflexive: He hurt himself.
(2) Reciprocal: They greeted each other.
(3) Middle: The door opened.

Voice is closely connected with language and speech. They compose a unit of the language system. It shows the close connections between them. But the essential difference between its members is in their combinability in speech.

Passive constructions in English are used more frequently than in Russian. Firstly, in Russian relations denoted by passive voice may be expressed by cases: The delegation was met at the station. Делегацию встретили…

Secondly, in English not only transitive but also intransitive objective verbs have the category of voice. Here belong:

1) Ditransitive verbs with 2 direct objects: He asked me a question. – (1) I was asked a question. (2) A question was asked.
2) Ditransitive verbs with the direct and indirect object. – (1) I was sent a letter. (2) A letter was sent me (to me).
3) Verbs taking a prepositional object: He was sent for.
4) Phraseological units of the type to take care of, to set fire to, to lose sight of: The house was set fire to.
5) Some intransitive subjective verbs followed by prepositional phrases: The house was not lived in.

The problem of **be** + **P II.**

The combination to be + participle II can denote an action in which case it is a simple predicate expressed by a verb in the passive voice. It can also denote a state, then it is a compound nominal predicate, consisting of a link verb and a predicate.

Example: Such books are usually read quickly (action).

A state shows a result of the action, the state of a person, the completion of the action.

Example:
This text has been translated.
Ann was disappointed.
The teacher was shocked by his behavior.

When participle II denotes a state of mind, in this case the predicate is compound even if there is an object introduced by the preposition "by". This object does not denote the agent of an action but the cause of the state.

Example: He was oppressed by a sense of loneliness.

The combination be + participle II may denote a state as a result of the previous action. Compare:
(1) The cup was broken.
(2) The silence was broken by a knock.
"Was broken" in sentence (1) is treated as:
a) passive voice (L.S. Barkudarow),
b) compound nominal predicate (A.I. Smirnitsky).

As shown by A.I. Smirnitsky, passive constructions have corresponding active constructions: Tables are usually made of wood. ꟷ People usually make tables of wood (action).

But the sentence "The table is made of wood" has no parallel active construction. The combination be + participle II, denoting state is compound nominal predicate. Likewise the combination get (become) + participle II is a compound nominal predicate and not the form of the passive voice: got married, became influenced (state).

LECTURE 7

The category of Mood

1. General characteristics.
2. Problems of subjunctive.
3. Imperative.
4. Interrelation of the categories of mood, tense and order.

1. The category of mood denotes modality, or the relation of the contents of the utterance to reality as viewed by the speaker. Modality is a wide notion which characterizes every sentence and which may be expressed by different means: lexical (modal verbs), lexico-grammatical (modal words), morphological (mood), syntactic (structure of the sentence), phonetic (intonation). Linguists distinguish between objective modality (expressed by mood-forms) and subjective modality (expressed by lexical and lexico-grammatical means).

1) Definition of Moods

Mood – is the grammatical category of the verb reflecting the relation of the action denoted by the verb to reality from the speaker's point of view.
In the sentences:

1. He listens attentively.
2. Listen attentively.
3. You would have listened attentively if you had been interested.

We deal with the same action of listening, but in…

1. the speaker presents the action in reality
2. the speaker urges the listener to perform the action
3. the speaker presents the action as imaginary.

These different relations to reality are expressed by different mood – forms of the verb: listens, listen, would have listened.

2. The indicative mood – is the basic mood of the verb. The use of it shows that the speaker represents the action as real.

Morphologically it is the most developed system including all the categories of the verb. Semantically it is a fact mood. It serves to present an action as a fact of reality.

It conveys minimum personal attitude to the fact.

Now we shall proceed to the analysis of the grammatical categories of the indicative mood system:

1. The Category of Tense – is a system of 3-member opposemes such as: writes – wrote – will write; is writing – was writing – will be writing,

showing the relation of the time of the action denoted by the verb to the moment of speech.

2. The Category of Posteriority – is the system of 2-member opposemes, like: shall come – should come, showing whether an action is posterior (поздний, задний) to the moment of speech or to some moment in the past.
3. The category of Person: we know – you know – they know
4. The Category of Number – whether the action is associated with one doer or with more than one – was doing – were doing

2) The Oblique moods – expresses unreal or problematic actions.

1. Subj. I (be do)- Be it so. Success attend you.
2. Subj. II (were, did, had been, had done) – I wish I were younger. If only…
3. Conditional Mood (should/ would be, would have been) – He would have come but for me ….
4. Suppositional Mood (should be/ should have been).

Subjunctive II and the conditional mood express unreal action. Subjunctive I and suppositional mood express problematic action.

3) The Subjunctive Mood – it represents an action as a "non-fact, as something imaginary, desirable, problematic, contrary to reality.

It's necessary to mention that S.M. is still in a state of development.

4) The Imperative Mood – represents an action as a command, urging, request addressed to someone.

It's a direct expression of one's will.

It's much more subjective than the indicative mood.

It's modal meaning is very strong and distinct.

It differs from all other moos in several imperative points.

It has no person, number, tense or aspect distinctions, it is limited in its use to one type of sentence only imperative sentences.

The Problem of the Imperative Mood.

Practically all the scholars recognize the opposition of 2 moods indicative and imperative.

Indicative is represented by a system of categories (tense, order, aspect, voice, etc). it is a fact-mood or a direct mood. Imperative is represented by one form, which is used in sentences with implied subject.

Some scholars (G.N. Vorontsova) recognize the analytical form of the imperative, expressed by <u>let + infinitive</u>.

In the sentence: *Let us let him do it*.

The first <u>let</u> is devoid of the lexical meaning and can be treated as part of the analytical form. Problematic and unreal actions are expressed in Modern English by 4 sets of forms:

(he) be/come/ take	(he)should be/come/take:			(he) were/came/took;	should,	would
(Sub I)	(he)	should	have	(he) had been/ come/ taken	be/come/take; Should/would	have
	been/come/taken			(Sub II);	been/come/taken	
	(suppositional mood);				(conditional mood);	

Let's consider the sentences where forms expressing unreal actions, are the same as the forms of the past indicative:

(1) They <u>were</u> here.
(2)   I wish they <u>were</u> here.
(3) I said I <u>should</u> do it.
(4)   In your place I <u>should do</u> it.

These forms are often treated as polysemantic, i.e. forms of the indicative, which express unreal actions in certain syntactic structures (R.Quirk, L.S. Barkhudarov). Forms of the past indicative denote actions, not connected with the moment of speaking, not "relevant" for the speaker, "not real" now. That is why they may be used to denote unreality.

The opposite view is based on the recognition of the homonymy of forms, denoting real and unreal actions (A.I. Smirnitsy):

They were … - real, past
If they were … - unreal, non-past

According to the traditional grammar and as I have already said problematic and unreal actions are expressed by 4 sets of forms.

In this system of 4 sets of forms, denoting different degree of unreality, there is no direct correspondence of meaning and form:
    a) one meaning – different forms:
    1) I suggest you do (should do) it.
    b) one form – different meanings:
    1) I suggest you should do it.
    2) In your place I should do it.

The number of oblique moods will depend on the basic principle for distinguishing between them: a) meaning; b) form; c) both meaning and form.
Many scholars treat these 4 sets of forms as forms of one mood subjunctive (B.A.Ilyish).

The difference of form and particular meanings is disregarded and only the common component of meaning (unreality) is taken into account.

A.I. Smirnitsky takes into account the difference in form and recognizes 4 oblique moods: Subjunctive I (he be), Suppositional (he should be), Subjunctive II (he were), Conditional (should/would be).

We can single out some other construction types rendering the same semantics as is expressed by the spective mood forms.

The first construction type of attitude series is formed by the combination may/might + Infinitive. It is used to express wish, desire, hope in the contextual syntactic conditions similar to those of the morphemic (native) spective forms. *Cf.:*

May it be as you wish! May it all happen as you desire! May success attend you. I hope that he may be safe.

Let's pray that everything might still turn to the good, after all. May our friendship live long.

The second construction type of attitude series is formed by the combination should + Infinitive. It is used in various subordinate predicative units to express supposition, speculation, suggestion, recommendation, inducements of different kinds and degrees of intensity. *Cf.:*

Whatever they should say of the project, it must be considered seriously. It has been arranged that the delegation should be received by the President of the Federation. Orders were given that the searching group should start out at once.

The third construction type of the same series is formed by the combination let + Infinitive. It is used to express inducement (i.e. an appeal to commit an action) in relation to all the persons, but preferably to the first person plural and third person both numbers. The notional homonym let, naturally, is not taken into account. Cf.:

Let's agree to end this wait-and-see policy. Now don't let's be hearing any more of this. let him repeat the accusation in Tim's presence. Let our military forces be capable and ready. Let me try to convince them myself.

These qualities show that the described constructions may safely be identified

as functional equivalents of the pure spective mood (subjunctive mood).

These constructions can be united under the heading of the "modal" subjunctive mood form.

Adjective

The adjective expresses the categorical semantics of property of a substance. It means that each adjective used in the text presupposes relation to some noun the property of whose it denotes, such as its material, colour, dimensions, position, state, and other characteristics both permanent and temporary.

Adjectives are distinguished by a specific combinability with nouns, which they modify, by a combinability with link-verb, both functional and notional; by a combinability with modifying adverbs.

In the sentence the adjective performs the functions of an attribute and a predicative. Of the two, the more specific function of the adjective is that of an attribute, since the function of a predicative can be performed by the noun as well.

Walker felt a healthy man.

I will be silent as a grave. → I will be like a silent grave. Walker felt healthy. → That fact was a sensational fact. → It was sensational.

When used as predicatives or post-positional attributes, a considerable number of adjectives, are distinguished by a combinability with nouns. Some of adjectives are effected by means of prepositions. E.g. fond of, jealous of, curious of, suspicious of; angry with, sick with. Many such adjectival collocations render essentially verbal meanings and some of them have direct or indirect parallels among verbs. *Cf.: be fond of – love, like; be envious* – envy; be angry with – resent; be mad for, about –covet; be thankful to –thank.

To the derivational features of adjectives, belong a number of suffixes and prefixes of which the most important are: -ful (hopeful), -les (flawless), -ish (bluish), -ous (famous), -ive (decorative); –ic (basic); un-(unprecedented), in-(inaccurate), pre- (premature).

All the adjectives are traditionally divided into two large subclasses: qualitative and relative.

Relative adjectives express such properties of a substance as are determined

by the direct relation of the substance to some other substance. E.g.: wood – a wooden hut; mathematics – mathematical precision; history – a historical event; table – tabular presentation; colour – coloured postcards; surgery – surgical treatment; the Middle Ages – mediaeval rites.

Qualitative adjectives denote various qualities of substances which admit of a quantitative estimation i.e. of establishing their correlative quantitative measure. The measure of a quality can be estimated as high or low, adequate or inadequate, sufficient or insufficient, optimal or excessive. Cf.: an awkward situation – a very awkward situation; a difficult task – too difficult a task; an enthusiastic reception – rather an enthusiastic reception: a hearty welcome – not a very hearty welcome; etc.

In this connection, the ability of an adjective to form degrees of comparison is usually taken as a formal sign of its qualitative character, in opposition to a relative adjective which is understood as incapable of forming degrees of comparison by definition. Cf.: a pretty girl- a prettier girl.

In speech the described principle of distinction is not at all strictly observed. Two typical cases of contradiction should be pointed out here.

In the first place, substances can possess such qualities as are incompatible with the idea of degrees of comparison. Accordingly, adjectives denoting these qualities, while belonging to the qualitative subclass, are in the ordinary use incapable of forming degrees of comparison. Here refer adjectives like extinct, immobile, deaf, final, fixed, etc.

In the second place many adjectives considered under the heading of relative still can form degrees of comparison, it can be graded quantitatively. Cf.: a mediaeval approach – rather a mediaeval approach – a far more mediaeval approach; a grammatical topic – a purely grammatical topic – the most grammatical of the suggested topics.

As is widely known, adjectives display the ability to be easily substantivised by conversion.

e.g. *The new bill concerning the wage-freeze introduced by the Labour Government cannot satisfy either the poor, or the rich (Radio Broadcast).*

The synthetical forms of comparison in –er and –(e)st coexist with the analytical forms of comparison effected by the auxiliaries more and most.

In particular, scholars point out the following two factors in support of the view that the combinations of more/ most with the basic form of the adjective are

not the analytical expressions of the morphological category of comparison, but free syntactic constructions: first, the more/most-combinations are semantically analogous to combinations of less/least with the adjective which, in the general opinion, are syntactic combinations of notional words; second, the most-combination unlike the synthetic superlative can take the indefinite article expressing not the superlative, but the elative meaning (i.e. a high, not the highest degree of the respective quality).

Let us first consider the use of the most-combination with the indefinite article.

The speaker launched a most significant person attack on the Prime Minister. The most significant of the arguments in a dispute is not necessarily the most spectacular one.

While the phrase "a most significant (personal) attack" in the first of the two examples gives the idea of rather a high degree of the quality expressed the phrase "the most significant of the arguments" expresses exactly the superlative degree of the quality in relation to the immediately introduced comparison with all the rest of the arguments in a dispute.

Adverb

The adverb is usually defined as a word expressing either property of an action, or property of another property, or circumstances in which an action occurs. This definition, fails to directly point out the relation between the adverb and the adjective as the primary qualifying part of speech.

Adverbs are characterized by a combinability with verbs, adjectives and words of adverbial nature. The functions of adverbs in these combinations consist in expressing different adverbial modifiers. Cf.: the woman was crying hysterically. (an adverbial modifier of manner). Wilson looked at him appraisingly. (an adverbial modifier of manner).

Adverbs may be simple and derived.

Simple adverbs are rather few: here, there, now, then, so, quite, why, how, where, when.

The typical adverbial affixes only productive is adverbial suffix –ly (slowly, tiredly, rightly, firstly), and then a couple of others of limited distribution. The

characteristic adverbial prefix is a- (away, ahead, apart, across).

ways – crossways

wise – clockwise

wards – homewards, seawards

Among the adverbs there are also peculiar composite formations and phrasal formations of prepositional conjunctional and other types: sometimes, nowhere, anyhow; at least, at most, at last; to and fro; upside down; etc.

A peculiar set of adverbs is formed by –ly, often differentiated in meaning. Cf.: to work hard – hardly to work at all, to fly high over the lake – to raise a highly theoretical question; etc.

Of quite a different nature are prepositional-adverb-like elements which, placed in post-position to the verb. By combining with these elements, verbs have broader meanings. E.g.: to give – to give up; to set – to set up, to get – to get on, to get off, to get up, to get through, to work over, to bring about, to bring up, to bring through.

The function of these post-positional elements is either to impart an additional meaning to the verb-base, or to introduce a lexical modification to its fundamental semantics. E.g.: to bring through – to help overcome a difficulty or danger; to bring forward – to introduce for discussion; to bring down – to kill or wound.

The lexico-grammatical standing of the elements in question has been interpreted in different ways. Some scholars have treated them as a variety of adverbs (H. Palmer, A. Smirnitsky); others, as preposition-like functional words (I. Anichkov, N. Amosova); still others, as peculiar prefix-like suffixes; finally some scholars have treated these words as a special set of lexical elements functionally intermediate between words and morphemes (B.A. Ilyish; B.S. Khaimovich and B.I. Rogovskaya). The cited variety of interpretations, naturally, testifies to the complexity of the problem. One fundamental idea is common to all the various theories advanced, and that is, the idea of the functional character of the analysed element. Proceeding from this idea, we may class these words as a special functional set of particles, i.e. words of semi-morphemic nature, correlative with preposition and conjunctions.

Adverbs are commonly divided into qualitative, quantitative and circumstantial.

The typical adverbs of this kind are qualitative adverbs in –ly. E.g.: the little boy was crying bitterly over his broken toy. The adverbs interpreted as

"quantitative" include words of degree, expressing measure.

The first set is formed by adverbs of high degree. These adverbs are sometimes classed as "intensifiers": very, quite, entirely, utterly, highly, greatly, perfectly, absolutely, strongly, considerably, pretty, much. The second set includes adverbs of excessive degree (direct and reverse) also belonging to the broader subclass of intensifiers: too, awfully, tremendously, dreadfully, terrifically. The third set is made up of adverbs of unexpected degree: surprisingly, astonishingly, amazingly. The fourth set is formed by adverbs of moderate degree: fairly, comparatively, relatively, moderately, rather. The fifth set includes adverbs of low degree: slightly, a little, a bit. The sixth set is constituted by adverbs of approximate degree: almost, nearly. The seventh set includes adverbs of optimal degree: enough, sufficiently, adequately. The eight set is formed by adverbs of inadequate degree: insufficiently, intolerably, unbearably, ridiculously. The night set is made up of adverbs of under-degree: hardly, scarcely.

As we see, the degree adverbs, though usually described under the heading of "quantitative", in reality constitute a specific variety of qualitative words.

Circumstantial adverbs are also divided into notional and functional.

Besides qualitative (numerical) adverbs mentioned above, they include adverbs of time, place, manner, cause, consequence. Many of these words are used as syntactic connections and question-forming functionals. Here belong such words as now, here, when, where, so, thus, how, why, etc.

As for circumstantial adverbs of more self-dependent nature, they include two basic sets: first, adverbs of time; second adverbs of place: today, tomorrow, already, ever, never, shortly, recently, seldom, early, late; homeward, eastward, near, far, outside, ashore, etc.

LECTURE 8

Syntax. Phrase

1. Introduction
2. The problem of definition of the phrase. The phrase and the sentence.
3. Principles of the classification of phrases.
  a) Syntactic relations within a phrase.
  b) Morphological expression and position of components.

Syntax is a part of grammar which studies the combinability of words and the structure of sentences. It also studies means of sentence connection and units larger than a sentence.

Words within a sentence are grouped into phrases (word-groups, word-clusters, word-combinations): <u>John and Mary</u> saw an <u>old man crossing the street</u>.

(syntagm – is a phonetic unity of common semantics in a speech chain. The other name of this phenomenon is sense group).

So phrases are sentence constituents. But phrases can be also treated as units built by combining words outside the sentence: a man - an old man; old - very old. Thus the combinability of words can be studied both under syntax and under morphology.

At present there are two approaches to the definition of a phrase. According to a narrower definition a phrase is a unity of two or more notional words. According to a wider definition any syntactic group of words can be treated as a phrase. Consequently, phrases may be built by combining notional words (an old man), notional and functional words (in the corner): functional words (out of). Notional phrases are more independent structurally and semantically, other types function as part of notional phrases.

Like a word, a phrase is a naming unit. Phrases name different phenomena of the outside world: a round table, yesterday morning, to speak fluently.

Like a word, a phrase may have a system of forms. Each component of a phrase may undergo grammatical changes without destroying the identity of the phrase: a young man – younger men.

The naming function of the phrase distinguishes it from the sentence, whose main function is communicative. Therefore the structure "N + V" is traditionally excluded from phrases.

However, another approach is possible. The structure "N + V" can be regarded at two levels of syntactic analysis: the level of combinability (phrasal level) and the level of function (sentence level). At the level of combinability the combination "N + V" can be treated together with other types of phrases, as it is a syntactico-semantic unity of two notional words, naming certain events or situations. At the level of function it differs essentially from other types of phrases, as it constitutes the unit of communication, whereas other types of phrases are naming units only functioning as sentence constituents.

Thus a phrase is usually smaller than a sentence but it may also function as a

sentence "N + V" and it may e larger than a sentence, as the latter may consist of one word.

One of the most difficult questions involved in the study of phrases: the grammatical and lexical aspects. Let's take: read letters; invite friends – the phrases are identical, from the grammatical point of view, since they are built on the same pattern: "verb + noun", indicating the object of the action.

From the lexical point of view – they are different, as the verbs belong to different semantic spheres, and the nouns too: n. letters – denotes material object - friends – human being

As I have already mentioned each of the components in a phrase can be changed. **a man writes** - men write, a man wrote, men are writing …it has no intonation.

The components of the phrase can be connected by different types of syntactic relations. H. Sweet stated that the most general type of relation is the relation of subordination. He also distinguished the relation of coordination and interdependence.

The syntactic theory of O. Jespersen can be applied to phrases and sentences. O. Jespersen's theory of three ranks is based on the principle of determination. In the word-group a *furiously^3 barking^2 dog^1* – 1 is independent and is called a primary, 2 modifies 1 and is called a secondary, 3 modifies 2 and is called a tertiary. The structural theory of word-groups, worked out by the American school of descriptive linguistics, founded by L. Bloomfield, divides word-groups into two main types: endocentric (headed) and exocentric (non-headed). The criteria for distinguishing between them are distribution and substitution.

Thus we may single out 3 types of syntactic relations within word-groups: subordination, coordination, interdependence. Accordingly, phrases are usually classified into subordinate, coordinate and predicative.

Types of relations:

subordination;	coordination;	interdependence
|	|	|

Types of phrases:

subordinate	coordinate	predicative +appositive

The compound sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses of equal rank which

form one syntactic whole in meaning and intonation. Such clauses are called coordinate. They are regarded as independent.

Coordination can be asyndetic (with no special connector):

Two is company, three is a crowd.

Or syndetic – expressed by special coordinators (coordinating conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs/ conjuncts).

One beats the bush, and another catches the birds. He was quite well-off; also his whole family was rich.

In writing, asyndetically joined coordinate clauses are separated by semicolon (;), a colon (:) or a dash (-). The semicolon in perhaps most frequently used:

All happy families resemble one another; each unhappy family is unhappy in its own way.

In syndetic compound sentences the type of coordination is expressed by means of coordinators. There are four logical types of coordination: copulative, disjunctive, adversative and causative-consecutive.

Copulative coordination.

The clauses are simply linked together to express two or more related facts by means of the following coordinators: and, (and) neither, neither … nor [rare], nor, not only … but (also), also, even, besides, furthermore [formal], moreover [formal], likewise, either, too, indeed, plus, etc.

A man is as old as he feels, <u>and</u> a woman is as old as she looks.

Disjunctive coordination

Compound sentences with disjunctive coordination express an alternative, which is achieved with the help of the following coordinators: or, or else, either … or, otherwise.

<u>Either</u> the pump is broken or the <u>drainage</u> is clogged.
It's perfectly harmless, <u>otherwise</u> I wouldn't have done it.

Adversative coordination

In compound sentences with adversative coordination the statements expressed by the clauses are contrasted in meaning. This is achieved with the help of the following coordinators; but, however, nevertheless, yet, whereas, whilst.

Knowledge makes one laugh, but wealth makes one dance.

Causative-consecutive coordination

Compound sentences with causative-consecutive coordination express the idea of cause and consequence. This is done with the help of the following coordinators: for, consequently, then, therefore, thus [formal], accordingly, so [informal].

God help the poor, <u>for</u> the rich can help themselves.
I'm off on holiday, <u>so</u> I won't be seeing you for a while.

The complex sentence

A complex sentence has two or more clauses, at least one of which is subordinate to a main/ principal clause. A main clause is one that can stand alone, i.e. is not dependent on another clause. A subordinate clause is a kind of modifier to the principal clause.

Traditionally, subordinate clauses are arranges in three groups: nominal clauses (that is, clauses functioning as nouns in various syntactic positions), attributive (or relative) clauses, and adverbial clauses.

LECTURE 9

Sentence

1. General characteristics.
2. Predicativity. Predication. Secondary predication.
3. Classification of sentences. syntactic categories and the sentence-paradigm.

A sentence is the largest and most complicated unit of language and at the same time it is the smallest unit of speech, or the smallest utterance. In speech sentences are not given ready-made, they are created by the speaker. But they are built according to patterns existing in the language. So concrete sentence belong to speech. Patterns, according to which they are built, belong to language.

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

Traditional grammar has never regarded the sentence as part of the system of means of expression; it has always interpreted the sentence not as an implement for constructing speech, but speech itself, i.e. a portion of coherent flow of words of one speaker containing a complete thought.

Traditional grammar studies the sentence from the point of view of its syntagmatic structure: the sentence was approached as a string of certain parts fulfilling the corresponding syntactic functions.

Sentences were studied and classified according to the purpose of communication, according to the types of the subject and the predicate, according to whether they are simple or composite, expanded or unexpanded, compound or complex etc.

A sentence has two basic meaningful functions: naming and communicative. Sentences name situations and events of objective reality and convey information, expressing complete thoughts or feelings. So the sentence is a structural, semantic and communicative unity. Accordingly the three main aspects of the sentence are syntactic, semantic and logico-communicative.

(syntax – a science of coordination of words and sentence building)

The syntactic structure of the sentence can be analyzed at two levels: pre-functional (sentence constituents are words and word groups) and functional (sentence constituents are parts of the sentence). There is no direct correspondence between units of these levels.

John wrote a letter. NVN – SPO

John had a snack. NVN – SP

The semantic structure of the sentence is a reflection of a certain situation or event which includes a process as its dynamic centre, the doer and the objects of the process and certain circumstances and conditions of its realization.

John opened the door. NVN (SPO) – doer (agent), action, object.

The key opened the door. NVN (SPO) – instrument, action, object.

These two aspects characterize the sentence as a unit of language. Logico-communicative aspect characterizes the sentence as a unit of speech, or utterance. The sentence as a unit of communication usually consists of two parts: the topic for discussion, i.e. something, about which a statement is made, and the information about the topic, or the statement itself.

Different aspects of the sentence are reflected in numerous definitions, which may be logical, psychological, structural etc. It is difficult to give an all-embracing definition (see, for example, M.Y. Blokh).

The communicative function of the sentence distinguishes it from phrases and words, which have one function – naming.

Compare the following structures:

(1)   *The doctor's arrival.*
(2)   *The doctor arrived.*

These two structures name the same event, but (1) is not correlated with the situation of speech and does not convey information about the reality or the time of the event. (2) is correlated with the situation of speech and shows that the event took place in the past.

The correlation of the thought expressed in the sentence with the reality situation of speech is called predicativity. Predicativity has three main components modality, time and person, expressed by the categories of mood, tense and person. So the predicate verb is the main means of expressing predicativity.

The predicative is the significant part of the compound nominal predicate, it can be expressed in different ways (by noun, adjective, pronoun, numeral etc. The compound nominal predicate consist of a link verb and a predicative (the latter is also called the nominal part of the predicate).

The person component of predicativity is also expressed by the subject. Thus predicativity is expressed by the subject-predicate group, or predication. Predication constitutes the basic structure of the sentence.

Predicativity is also expressed by intonation, which is the essential feature of the sentence as a unit of speech.

It should be noted, that some scholars use only one term – predication to denote both the relation of the sentence to reality and means of its expression.

A sentence may contain primary and secondary predication: *I heard someone singing.*

Secondary Predication

The group *someone singing* is called the secondary predication, it consists of two main components, nominal and verbal, and names an event or situation. But it cannot be correlated with reality directly and cannot constitute an independent unit of communication, as verbals have no categories of mood, tense and person. The secondary predication is related to the situation of speech indirectly, through the primary predications.

Classification of sentences

As is well-known, sentences may be classified on the basis of two main principles: communicative (declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory) and structural (simple and composite, one-member and two-member, complete and elliptical).

Structural classification of sentences

From the point of view of their structure, sentences can be:

1. simple or composite (compound and complex);
2. complete or incomplete (elliptical);
3. two-member or one-member.

These three classifications are based on different approaches to the structural organization of sentences and reflect its different aspects.

The difference between the simple sentence and the composite sentence lies in the fact that the former contains only one subject predicate unit and the latter more than one. Subject-predicate units that form composite sentences are called clauses.

Example: Honesty is the best policy. (one subject-predicate unit)

You can take a horse to the water, but you can not make him drink. (two subject-predicate units or two clauses)

The difference between the compound and complex sentence lies in the relations between the clauses that constitute them.

Complete and incomplete sentences are distinguished by the presence or absence of word-forms in the principle positions of two-member sentences.

In a complete sentence both the principle positions are filled with word-forms: I came straight here.

In an incomplete sentence one or both of the main positions are not filled, but can be easily supplied as it is clear from the context what is missing: Cheerful, aren't you?

One-member and two-member sentences are distinguished by the number of principle parts (positions) they contain: two-member sentences have two main parts – the subject and the predicate, while one member sentences have only one principle part, which is neither the subject nor the predicate.

Examples:

The magpie flew off (two-member sentence).

Midsummer (one-member sentence).

LECTURE 10

Sentence. Syntactic Structure. Models of Analysis.

1. The model of parts of the sentence.

2. The distributional model. The model of immediate constituents (IC – model).

3. The transformational model (TM).

In order to state general rules of sentence construction it is necessary to refer to smaller units. The process of analyzing sentences into their parts, or constituents, is known as parsing.

a) Parts of the sentence are notional sentence constituents which are in certain syntactic relations to other constituents or to the sentence as a whole. Accordingly we distinguish between principal parts of the sentence, constituting the predication, or the basic structure of the sentence, and secondary parts of the sentence, extending, or expanding the basic structure.

b) Parts of the sentence are notional constituents as they name elements of events or situations denoted by the sentence: actions or states, different participants and circumstances. The formal properties of parts of the sentence are the type of syntactic relations and the morphological expression. Traditionally the Subject and the Predicate are regarded as the primary or principal parts of the sentence and the attribute, the object and the adverbial modifier – as the secondary parts.

This opposition primary – secondary is justified by the difference in function. While the secondary and primary make the predication, the secondary parts serve to expand it by being added to the words of the predication in accordance with their combinability as words.

Many words of sentence, such as prepositions, conjunctions, articles, particles, parenthetical words, are traditionally not considered as parts of the sentence.

The function of each word in the sentence is its relation to the other words and to the sentence as a whole. So each word is as much a part of the sentence as each morpheme is a part of the word.

Principle parts of the sentence are interdependent. The subject is the structural centre of the sentence – the predicate agrees with the subject in person and number. The predicate is the semantic and communicative centre of the sentence.

Secondary parts of the sentence are modifiers of principal parts.

Structurally parts of the sentence may be of three types: simple, expressed by words and phrases; compound, consisting of the structural and notional parts (compound verbal and nominal predicate, subject with the introductory it and there); complex, expressed by secondary predications.

So the model of parts of the sentence shows the basic relations of notional sentence constituents. The order of constituents is shown by two models of analysis worked out by the American school of structural (descriptive) linguistics: the distributional model and the model of immediate constituents (IC-model). The model shows the basic relations of sentence constituents. These models analyze the sentence structure.

*constituents are nouns and word groups

* IC-model – model of immediate constituents

Models of syntactic analysis.
Distributional model, IC-model.

The Model of Immediate constituents = the IC-model

The IC – model consists in dividing the whole of the sentence into 2 groups: the subject and that of the predicate, which in their turn are divided into their sub-group constituents.

It shows the whole structure of the sentence as made up by binary immediate constituents.

A sentence is not a mere sequence, or string of words, but a structured string of words, grouped into phrases. So sentence constituents are words and word-groups. The basic principle for grouping words into phrases is cohesion, or the possibility to substitute one word for the whole group without destroying the sentence structure. Applying the substitution test, we define syntactic relations and can reduce word-groups to words and longer sentences to basic structures:

(1) NP (noun phrase) → poor John → John.

The phrase is endocentric, the adjunct poor is optional, the head-word John is obligatory.

(2) The old man saw a black dog there.

Word-groups are reduced to head-words and the sentence is reduced to the basic structure, directly built by two immediate constituents – NP and VP.

When we know the rules of reducing the sentence to the basic, elementary structure, it is not difficult to state the rules of extending/ expanding elementary sentences:

$$S \rightarrow NP + VP$$
$$NP \rightarrow A + N$$
$$VP \rightarrow V + D \text{ (Adv)}$$

So the sentence is built by two immediate constituents (NP + VP). Each of which may have constituents of its own. Constituents which cannot be further divided, are called ultimate (UC).

Transformational model

Different sentence types are structurally and semantically related. So the syntactic structure of a given sentence may be described by making these relations explicit.

Sentences, in which all constituents are obligatory, are called basic structures, or elementary sentences or kernel sentences. Linguists single out from 2 to 7 kernel sentences: 1) NV 2) NVN 3) NVprepN 4) N is N 5) N is A 6) N is Adv. 7) N is PrepN.

The structure of all other sentences may be explained as a result of certain changes, or transformations of kernel structures. This analysis, showing derivational relations of sentences, is called transformational TM. TM is based on IC-model and it goes further showing semantic and syntactic relations of different sentences types.

TM was first discussed by outstanding American linguist N. Chomsky and it greatly influenced further development of linguistics. In the course of the development of the model the focus of attention shifted from syntax to semantics.

TM describes paradigmatic relations of basic and derived structures, or the relations, of syntactic derivation. Kernel sentences, which serve as the base for deriving other structures, are called deep, or underlying structures, opposed to surface structures of derived types. So both the deep and the surface structure belong to the syntactic level of analysis. Transformations may be subdivided into single-base (changing the kernel structure) and two-base (combining 2 structures).

Single-base transformations may be of two types: modifying the kernel structure and changing the kernel structure:

(1)   She is working hard → She is not working hard.

(2)   She is working hard → Her working hard → Her hard work.

Some basic types of intramodel transformations: substitution, deletion (Have you seen him? → Seen him?) ; permutation or movement (He is here → Is he here?).

TM shows that we can paraphrase sentences with different surface structure because they are derived from the same deep structure.

I promised him to come. – I promised I would come. I expected him to come. – I expected he would come.

I persuaded him to come. – I persuaded that he would come.

He arrived → his arrival → for him to arrive → his arriving.

TM shows that some sentences are ambiguous, because they derive from distinct deep structures:

Flying planes can be dangerous → (1) Planes are dangerous.
                                         (2) Flying is dangerous.

So TM is an essential method of deciding grammatical ambiguity.

LECTURE 11

Sentence. Semantic Structure. Logico-Communicative Structure.
1. The semantic structure of the sentence.
2. Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP).
3. The pragmatic aspect of the sentence.

Every linguistic unit may be analyzed either from the form to the meaning or from the signification to the means of expression. Traditionally sentence analysis starts from syntactic structure. It's possible, however, to start with the semantic representation and then relate constituents of the semantic (underlying, deep) structure to the constituents of the grammatical (surface) structure.

As shown above (see Lecture XI), TM distinguished deep and surface structures within the syntactic level. Deep, or semantic structure has two main constituents: modality (features of mood, tense, aspect, negation, relating to the sentence as a whole) and proposition (a tenseless set of relationships): "S → M + Pr". The proposition is constituted by the semantic predicate (the central element) and some nominal elements, called arguments or participants: "P →V − N_1 + N_2 + N_3…". The proposition is a reflection of situations and events of the outside world. The semantic predicate determines the number of arguments, or opens up place for

arguments. The American scholar W. Chafe divides predicates into states and non-states, or events, the latter being subdivided into actions and processes:

(1)   The wood is dry. – state
(2)   She sang. (what did she do?) – action
(3)   The wood dried. (What happened?) – process

Semantic roles, or deep cases are judgments about the events, such as: Who did it? Who did it happen to? What got changed?

Predicate

States   non-states (events)
Actions   processes

The most general roles are agent (doer of the action) and patient (affected by the action or state). Actions are accompanied by agents, states and processes – by patients (a person who receives).

Let's consider the sentences: Eg.: (1) He dug the ground.

(2) He dug a hole.

Sentences (1) and (2) have the same surface structure, but different deep structure. On the other hand different syntactic structures may refer to the same deep structure:

(1)   John opened the door with the key.
(2)   The door was opened by John.
(3)   John used the key to open the door.
(4)   The key opened the door.

So far we have discussed the sentence as a unit of language. The sentence is also a unit of speech, a minimum free utterance, whose main purpose is to convey information, to express thoughts and feelings.

Linguistic analysis of utterances in terms of the information they contain is called the actual division or the analysis of the Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP). FSP was thoroughly analyzed by the representatives of the Prague School of functional linguistics.

FSP refers to the way the speaker structures the information, the way he identifies the relative importance of utterance parts. Usually the utterance consists of two parts: the topic of discussion: something about which a statement is made and the new information, which adds most to the process of communication. These two sections are called the theme and the rheme, or topic and comment.

The theme expresses the starting point of the communication, i.e. it denotes an object or a phenomenon about which something is reported. The rheme expresses the basic informative part of the communication.

* perspective – apparent relation between different aspects of a problem.

The theme and the rheme are derived from Greek and are parallel to each other. "Theme" comes from the Greek root "the - " – to "to set", "to establish"; and means – "that is which is set or established".

"Rheme" – "rhe" – to say, to tell; "that is which is said or told).

Ex.: It's getting dark. – it contains only the rheme (monorheme)

A sentence acquires FSP in the context, it reflects certain contextual relations.

As the main function of word-order in English is grammatical, English has the following ways of expressing FSP. Thematic elements are indicated by the definite article , parenthesis (*as for me…*), detached parts of the sentence; rhematic elements – by the indefinite article, particles (*even*, *only*), negations, emphatic constructions (*It is he, who…*).

According to V.Y. Shevyakova we can observe means of themes and rhemes information structure in.

1)   passive transformations – *UNESCO took the first steps. → The first steps were taken by UNESCO*;

2)   the use of conversives –

20 people died in a crush. → The crush killed 20 people.

3)   the use of the personal (formal) subject and the nominal predicate – Informal subject

It was silent in the room. → The room turned silent.

Thematic elements contribute little to the meaning of the utterance as they reflect what has already been communicated, in other words they have the lowest degree of communicative dynamism (CD). Rhematic elements, containing new information which advances the communicative process have the highest degree of CD.

The study of the communicative functions of utterances in particular contexts of use is the sphere of pragmatics. There is no general theory of pragmatics which is a field of study between semantics, socio-linguistics and extralinguistic context. It is interested in a variety of topics. It may be characterized as the analysis of speech acts, the study of principles of conversational performance: usage, understanding, appropriateness.

Semantics is concerned with sentence meaning, pragmatics – with utterance interpretation. Consider the sentence

I have no cigarettes.

The sentence meaning is derived from the meanings of lexical items and grammatical structure. But this sentence may be interpreted differently, depending on the context and background knowledge of the interlocutors:

(1) Could you spare me a cigarette?

(2) Give me some cigarettes.

(3) You promised to buy cigarettes.

*pragmatics is a branch of linguistics. Pragmatics – studies the relations between the means of a language and those who use these means.

*socio-linguistics; extra linguistics.

In communication we expect the interlocutor to be co-operative, i.e. make an attempt to understand what we say and make relevant responses. The theory of co-operative behaviour was proposed by the American linguist H.P. Grice, who outlined the following maxims:

1) Maxim of Quality: be sincere, do not say what you believe to be false or that for what you lack adequate evidence;

2) Maxim of Quantity: be as informative as is required by the situation, no more;

3) Maxim of Relation: be relevant;

4) Maxim of Manner: be brief, orderly and clear; avoid obscurity and ambiguity.

Another aspect of speech act analysis is the study of relationships of utterances (discourse structure), for example, in classroom situations.

Teacher – Pupil: T-question, P-response, T-accept and comment; T-question, P-no response, T-prompt or repeat question; T-question, P-no response, T-prompt, P-no response, T-supply and seek corroboration, P-confirmation.

The development of pragmatics influenced the methodology of teaching, the present phrase of which is communicative approach, defining the aim of language study as the use of appropriate language for particular situations.

LECTURE 12

The structure of the simple sentence.
Composite Sentence. Sentence in the Text.

1. General characteristics of the composite sentence.
2. Compound sentence.
3. Complex sentence.
4. Units larger than a sentence. Means of sentence connection.

A simple sentence contains one predication. It is monopredicative. A composite sentence is polypredicative. It contains two or more predications, or clauses. According to the traditional view, all composite sentences are to be classed into compound sentences (coordinating their clauses) and complex sentences (subordinating their clauses). Structurally a clause may not differ from a sentence, and in many cases clauses can be turned into sentences. functionally they differ essentially: a sentence is an independent utterance, a clause is a part of the smallest utterance.

Clauses in a composite sentence are joined by coordination or subordination. Coordinate clauses are equal in rank. A subordinate clause usually serves as an adjunct to some head-word in the principle clause. There are also structures with coordination and subordination.

Coordination: Take these pills and you will feel better.

Subordination: He was terrified that she would forget about it soon (object clause).

Clauses may be connected by special connective words (syndetically) or without them (asyndtically). Connectives may be subdivided into two main groups: 1) conjunctions and conjunctive pronouns and 2) adverbs (sometimes particles). Conjunctions perform the connective function only. Conjunctive words, belonging to other parts of speech, are notional constituents of clauses: *I wonder who told you about it.* (Who connects clauses and it is the subject of the subordinate clause).

NB. The compound sentence usually describes events in their natural order: He came at 5 and we had dinner together.

It is extensively used in colloquial speech, especially when events are described in impressive way.

Coordinate clauses are units of equivalent syntactic status. Each of them has the force of an independent statement (proposition).

Main types of semantic relations between coordinate clauses (copulative, adversative, disjunctive, causative, consecutive) can be also found between simple sentences. this has given cause to some scholars to deny the existence of a

compound sentences as a special structural type and treat it as a sequence of simple sentences. This idea is usually reject, as a compound sentence is a semantic, grammatical and intonational unity. Each coordinate clause functions as part of this unity.

As coordination reflects the logical sequence of thought, the order of coordinate clauses is usually fixed:

He came at 5 and we had dinner together.

The opening clause is most independent structurally, the following clauses may be to a certain extent dependent on the first clause – they may be elliptical.

Coordinating conjunctions and meanings rendered by them are described in Practical Grammar.

Complex Sentence

The classification of complex sentences is usually based on the classification of subordinate clauses. Subordinate clauses are classified either on analogy with classes of words (categorical classification) or on analogy with parts of the sentence (functional classification).

According to the categorical classification clauses are subdivided into noun clauses (substantive clauses), adjective clauses, adverb clauses, etc. But as words of the same class may perform different syntactic functions, the functional classification seems preferable. It should be also noted that there is no complete similarity between parts of the sentence and subordinate clauses. Especially this is the case with adverbial clauses.

There is a correlation between categorical and functional classifications.

The classification of complex sentences may be also based on the type of clausal connection which may be obligatory or optional. Sentences with obligatory clausal connection fall into several parts.

1) Sentences with Subject and Predicative clauses. The subordinate clause occupies a syntactic position in the predication. It is fused, or merged with the principal clause, which is incomplete semantically and structurally:

What you say is true.

2) Sentences with Object clauses. The subordinate clause is obligatory due to the obligatory valency of the predicate verb in the main clause.

3) Sentences in which there are correlative elements in both main and subordinate clauses (hardly… when; as …as; the more …the more): *He was so tired, that…*

Units larger than a sentence

We do not usually encounter sentences in isolation, out of context. The analysis of units larger than a sentence is an area of growing interest and importance, which attracts the attention of many disciplines. The structure of texts is studied by **text linguistics**, or *discourse grammar*. The term discourse refers to a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) utterance larger than a sentence. Within this broad notion several different applications may be found. Some linguists do not distinguish between the notions text and discourse, but usage varies greatly. Thus discourse may be understood as a dynamic process and text as the physical product, a similar distinction sees text as a notion applied to surface structure, and discourse – to deep structure. From the opposite viewpoint text is an abstract notion, discourse being its realization.

Apart from this there is a tendency for texts to be thought of as monologues, usually written, whereas discourses are often thought of as dialogues, usually spoken.

In general, the terms text and discourse may be used to identify a piece of spoken or written language. Text as the largest speech unit may be divided into smaller units, consisting of two or more connected sentences. These units, characterized by the topical unity and semantico-syntactic cohesion, are called supraphrasal unities, or suprasential constructions.

Semantically a supraphrasal unity is characterized by one topic, which may include a number of events. Relations of events in a monologue are of two types: description (simultaneous events) and narration (events following one another).

A supraphrasal unity is also characterized by communicative dynamism: new information in a sequence sentence, which advances the communicative process, is based on the information, which has already been communicated in the previous sentence.

Example of a supraphrasal units: I entered the room. It was empty.

It's narration, when events follow one another, the rheme of the opening sentence becomes the theme of the sequence sentence.

In description the theme may remain the same for several sentences. Example:

The room was empty. It was large and square.

A supraphrasal unity is a structured sequence of sentences. There are various means of sentence connection and transition from one unity to another. These means may be grammatical, lexical.

Lexico-grammatical means of sentence connection are word order; conjunctions and other connective words; time and place relators (tense forms and words showing time and place): incomplete (elliptical) structures, depending on the context.

Text represents an imaginary world.

Discourse - a text with all the extra-linguistic relations and a dynamic process.

II ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

2.1 Планы и темы семинаров

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №1

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Position of Grammar in the Structure of Language. The Basic Notions of Morphology

Discussion Points on the position of grammar in the structure of language:
1. Compare various definitions of language and explain the reasons for the multitude of definitions. Enumerate the main functions of language and try to define language with regard to its functions.
2. Give the definition of the language level. Enumerate the levels of language and characterize their roles in the system of language. What is the main function of grammar in the system of language?
3. Describe the relations between the language levels, give example of interaction between the levels.
4. Speak about the main aspects in the study of language in semiotics: syntactics, semantics and pragmatics.
5. Enumerate and characterize the peculiarities of the grammatical structure of English. Give your own examples to illustrate these peculiarities.

Recommended Reading:
1. M.Blokh., A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 2000. – С. 6– 17.
2. Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь. М., 1990. Статьи: Язык, грамматика, уровни языка.
3. Блох М.Я., Диктема в уровневой структуре языка // Вопросы языкознания, 2000, №4.
4. Козлова Л.А., Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – С. 5 –18.
5. Блох М.Я., Семенова Т.Н., Тимофеева С.В., Практикум по теоретической грамматике. М., 2004, С. 7 – 11.

Practical assignments:

I. Analyze the sentences and comment on the interaction between the grammatical and lexical levels of language.

1. He stopped reading and put the book aside. He saw an advertisement and to read it.
2. He went on speaking as if nothing had happened. After a short introduction he went on to speak about the situation on the stock exchange.
3. He can't join us right now as he is talking over the phone. He is constantly talking over the phone.

II. Analyze the sentences and point out the peculiarities of the grammatical structure of English manifested in them.

1. Do you serve crabs here? – We serve anyone, sit down
2. Call me a taxi, please. – OK, you are a taxi.
3. He kept his dog in his bedroom. He kept looking at us. The girl kept quiet.
4. We try harder. We dry harder.
5. He married a poor girl. He married a poor man.
6. He gave her dog biscuits.
7. Age is strictly a matter of mind over matter, if you don't mind it doesn't matter.

III. Translate the sentences into English and point out the peculiarities of the grammatical structure of English manifested in them.

1. Этого я Вам никогда не обещал.
2. Заседание посетил Генеральный Секретарь ООН.
3. Она ничего не сказала и лишь строго посмотрела на нас.
4. Сегодня будете говорить вы, а я буду лишь слушать.
5. Моя жена не любит, когда Библию выносят из дома.
6. Он как раз тот человек, который может нам помочь.
7. В доме было пусто и холодно.
8. Со мной никогда прежде так не разговаривали.
9. Он медленно соображает.

IV. Find and correct mistakes in the following sentences and point out their causes.

1. This mistake I will never make again.
2. No one likes being interfered.

3. I find very convenient to use a dictaphone.
4. He never wanted that I should be his partner.

Discussion points on the basic notions of morphology:

1. Compare several definitions of the morpheme and choose the one that you consider the most adequate.
2. What is an allomorph? Give examples of allomorphs of different morphemes.
3. Speak about the classification of morphemes.
4. Define the grammatical meaning. What is difference between grammatical and lexical meanings? How do these two types of meanings interact? Explain the difference between paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings and give examples of both.
5. What is a grammatical form? Enumerate and characterize the types of form building in English.
6. Give the definition of the grammatical category. Explain the difference between conceptual and formal grammatical categories.
7. Speak on the theory of oppositions. Describe the processes of neutralization and transposition. Give examples of both.
8. What is the functional-semantic category? Give examples of various FSC.

Recommended Reading:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. – P. 17 – 37.
2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. С. 18 – 36.
3. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов. Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – С. 4 – 14.
4. Бархударов Л.С. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка. – С. 6 – 48.
5. Блох М.Я., Семенова Т.Н., Тимофеева С.В. Практикум по теоретической грамматике. – С.45 – 47, 65 – 68.

Practical Assignments:

I. Give the morphemic analysis of the following words: musicals, postimpressionists, reevaluated, teenagers, Afro-Americans, homecomings.

II. Analyze the sentences and comment on the interaction between the lexical and grammatical meanings.

1. He will arrive tomorrow at 5 p.m.

2. She is watching TV. She is constantly watching TV.

III. Analyze the oppositions and say what grammatical categories they constitute: has::has had; will have:: will be having; is done:: has been done; will have:: will be had; is writing:: was writing:: will be writing; goose::geese; men::men's; he:: him.

IV. Point out cases of neutralization and transposition and the role of neutralizers and transpositors.

1. As I smoked a pipe before going to bed I turned over in my mind the possible reasons for which Roy might want to lunch with me (S.Maugham).

2. Rennie changes some money, then she waits while a tired uniformed woman pokes through her purse and bags (M.Atwood).

3. That fellow was always coming to their place! (J. Galsworthy).

4. Well before he arrived he knew he had not wasted the journey (J.Fowles).

5. The men joshed and joked as ever while Big Billie mumched his way through the pile of door step sandwiches his wife had prepared for him (F. Forsyth).

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №2

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Problem of Parts of Speech in English and Their Interaction

Discussion Points:

1. Give the definition of a part of speech and a short survey of the parts-of-speech theory.

2. Speak about different approaches to the classification of vocabulary into parts of speech. Which do you find the more adequate?

3. Speak about the system of parts of speech in English. Point out the difference between notional and functional words. Enumerate and give a short characteristic of each part of speech.

4. Speak about the field approach to the study of parts- of- speech structure. Try to draw a parallel between the theory of field and the prototype theory. What parts of speech are considered to be cardinal and why? How are they connected to one another? What is the paradigm of lexical nomination? Point out the central (prototypical) and marginal (peripheral) units within parts of speech. Speak about the interaction between parts of speech. What is the syntactic transposition and what are its functions in the language?

Recommended Reading:

1. M.Y. Blokh. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. M., 1983. Ch.4.
2. B.A. Ilysh. The Sructure of Modern English. pp.27-35.
3. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – С. 37 – 52.
4. И.П. Иванова и др. Теоретическая грамматика современного
1. английского языка. с. 14-20.
5. Вежбицкая А. Семантические универсалии и описание языков. М.,
2. 1999.с. 134-170.

Practical Assignments:

I. Translate the sentences into Russian and point out the cases of cross-linguistic asymmetry in the parts of speech.

1. Why are you reluctant to reveal the sources? (J. Fowles).
3. He suspected that the girls were after something exploiting the old man's weaknesses (J. Fowles).
4. Since then I bank no more (S. Leacock).
5. She was silent, torn-apart silent (R.J. Waller).
6. Afterward he took her to a fancy restaurant for lunch (R.J. Waller).
7. I gravely doubt that the boss did any sleeping for two weeks. That is bed sleeping (R.P.Warren).
8. He gave her a rueful nod. "I suspect I am being a bloody nuisance. For you. (J. Fowles).
6. There was only one showing of the lion's claws (J.Fowles).
7. The initial employee was back (V. Nabokov).
8. Cohn wanted some changes. If I agreed, the film would be doable, he said. (A. Miller).
9. After Uncle Mose had gone, Miss Lydia had a good cry (O. Henry)

10. At 2 o'clock he was taking his usual afternoon nap on the veranda.
11. In Germany vacation time is transferable.
12. He was reluctant to go home.
13. If you blend all American workers together, we average around two weeks.
14. She gave him a surreptitious look behind the old man's back.
15. He suspected that the girls were after something, exploiting the old man's weaknesses.
16. That night he did all the talking.

II. Translate the sentences into English and point out the possible cases of cross-linguistic asymmetry in the sphere of parts of speech.

1. В нашей семье у всех есть обязанности по дому: я убираю, мама готовит, а отец закупает продукты.
2. Это расстояние можно пройти пешком.
3. Она чуть-чуть прибрала в доме и помчалась в аэропорт.
4. Эту фразу можно интерпретировать двояко.
5. Он критически осмотрел комнату и, кажется, был вполне доволен.

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №3

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Noun and its Grammatical Categories

Discussion Points:

1. Give the definition of the noun, point out its semantic, morphological and syntactic features. Characterize the position of nouns in the system of parts of speech. Speak about the interaction of nouns with other parts of speech.
2. Enumerate the ways of expressing gender in English nouns. Analyze the gender opposition and define the nature of these oppositions.
3. Characterize the grammatical category of number in nouns. Point out the number of expression in different semantic groups of nouns.
4. Define the grammatical category of case. Point out the disputable problems in the analysis of this category. Give evidence to support your point of view. Analyze the opposition "Common case:: Possessive Case". Enumerate the syntagmatic meanings of the Possessive Case and give examples of these.
5. Speak on the main function of the article.

Reference Materials:

1. M.Y.Blokh. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar, p.p.49-85.
2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка.- С.52 - 61.
3. B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. - p.p.35-57.
4. И.П.Иванова. Теоретическая грамматика.- с.21-34
5. Козлова Л.А. Проблема функционального сближения частей речи .55-63, 103-138.

Practical Assignments:

1. Speak on the peculiarities of the number expression in the following nouns: arm, penny, snow, money, bison, team.

2. Analyze the use of number in nouns in the following sentences and decide whether count/mass division is a distinction between words or ways of using words:

When I think of that house I think of objects and silences. The silences were almost visible; I pictured them as gray, hanging in the air like smoke (M. Atwood)

If students can learn to write well by studying manuals of errors…classes can go from ten to fifty and tax monies can be released for other purposes. (D.Bolinger)

It is because I like lambs that I don't like lamb. (K.Allan)

Hetty likes to gorge herself on cake. Whenever Hetty gobbles down a cake, her diet 'starts tomorrow'. (K.Allan)

3. Define the syntagmatic meanings of the possessive case in the sentences:

It used to be my sister's room.

Then came a moment's silence.

He was dressed in a sailor's pants.

She watched my approach with a philosopher's superior curiosity (A.Miller)

'You are strangely like Titian's portrait of Francis I in the Louvre' "With his little pig's eyes" (W.S.Maugham)…our American is delighted with the attractive French lady's remark.

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №4

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Verb. General Characteristics. The Grammatical Category of Tense.

Discussion Points:

1. Characterize the verb from the point of view of its semantic, formal and syntactic properties. Disclose the syntactic nature of the verb and its role in the sentence. Enumerate the productive types of verb building in English and illustrate them with examples.

2. Give the classification of verbs based on their formal, functional and semantic properties.

3. Speak about the grammatical category of tense:

a) give the definition of the category; point out the specific character of this category in the English language; enumerate the main problems that arise in the analysis of this category in English and suggest their possible solutions;

b) analyze the opposition constituting the category of tense in English; describe the paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings of each member of the opposition.

Recommended Reading:

1. M.Y. Blokh. A Course in Theoretical Grammar. pp.85-102, 137-155.
2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка.- С.62 – 81.

Practical Assignments:

Comment on the use of tense forms, point out cases of neutralization and transposition.

1. Experience fades. Memory stills (Ch. Romney-Brown).
2. "There is no news in Jesse Craig this season, Miss" (I. Shaw).
3. And then, on the night of the banquet, she appears in her emeralds (M. Mitchell).
4. "She wants you back and she'll do anything she can to get you back". "She's not going to get me back" (I. Shaw).
5. "We can't take our things, and we were just wondering whether there are any articles in your home you and Mrs. Henry would care to buy. You could have anything you wished, and I could make you a very reasonable price 7. The night was cool as nights will be in an essential desert (Ch. Armstrong)
6. But accidents, he said, will happen (D.Lessing).

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №5

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Verb. The Grammatical Categories of Aspect and Time Correlation

Discussion Points:

1. Analyze the grammatical category of aspect in English:

a) give the definition of the category, point out the features which can be taken as the basis for constituting the grammatical category of aspect in different languages;

b) analyze the opposition 'Common: Continuous aspects', describe the paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings of its members, point out the cases and the conditions for the neutralization of the opposition;

c) characterize the text-forming function of the Indefinite and Continuous forms of the verb in English, find examples in your books for Home reading or Individual reading to illustrate the text-forming function of the aspective forms of the verb.

2. Speak about the grammatical category of time-correlation in English:

a) analyze different interpretations of the opposition 'Perfect:Non-Perfect and give your assessment of these interpretations;

b) analyze the opposition 'Perfect-Non-Perfect', enumerate and illustrate out the paradigmatic and syntagmatic meanings of the Perfect forms, point out the cases and the conditions for the neutralization of the opposition ', the analysis of its members, the cases and conditions for the neutralization of the opposition;

c) characterize the role of Perfect forms in the text, give your own examples of the text-forming function of perfect forms.

Recommended Reading:

1. Blokh M.Y., A Course in Theoretical English Grammar, ch. 15

2.Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – С 81 – 93.

2. Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. Ch.8,10.

3. Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. М., 1959. С. 274-316.

Practical Assignments:

Analyze the meanings of aspect and time correlation forms, point out cases of neutralization and transposition.

1. The American party, sitting in a restaurant full of people on their feet, was getting hostile glares. "Do they expect us to stand?" Sally Forest said. "I'm not standing", Rhoda said (H. Wouk).

2. "Are you in a hurry?" -"I was going out". "I want you this evening" (D.H. Lawrence).

3. "I don't like tourists. They're always complaining about the food, and they throw up too much" (M.Atwood).

4. I'm always saying stupid things, because I don't think before I say them (E. O'Brien).

5. He always dressed in brown, to brown shoes, brown ties and even brown shirts; he was always reading enormous brown books on economics and politics and had a generally brown outlook on life, believing that America was a doomed society, rapidly going under (H.Wouk).

6. She was being very Russian tonight, clapping her hands and screaming with laughter (A. Christie).

7. He had authoruty in that house - authority limited, but very real while it lasted (R. Kipling)

8. There's an open window, through it Renny can hear her mother and her aunts singing hymns in the kitchen while they do the dishes (M.Atwood).

9. "You're thinking someone walked in from Lesser Springburn?" It was a possibility, she said (E. George).

10. Hardly in a sporting mood, Sheila went to walk along the beach. The shore was empty. Far up the beach, a solitary child was playing in the sand. But that was all (E. Segal).

11. It had been warm and sunny in New Orleans. But it was winter in Washington (J.Susan).

12. Less than quarter of an hour before Martin Snell discovered the crime scene, he was delivering milk (E. George).

13. The earth floor shook a little as they passed, and they had gone (G. Greene).

14.   Martin's habit had long been to chat companiably with his photograph of the queen (E. George)

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №6

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Grammatical Categories of Mood and Voice

Discussion Points:

1.   Define the grammatical category of mood and point out its specific character in the system of verbal categories. Point out and discuss the main problems that arise in the study of this category and the classification of moods in English. Substantiate your point of view on the number of moods in English.

2.   Characterize the system of moods in English from the following aspects: form, meaning and contexts of use.

3.   Compare the systems of moods in English and Russian and point out the main difficulties in the use of oblique moods which may arise for Russian learners of English.

4.   Point out the specific character of the category of voice as compared to the other verbal. Enumerate different approaches to the study of voice of English.

5.   Analyze the opposition Active :: Passive in English.

6.   Point out and analyze the semantic, pragmatic and syntactic factors which determine the use of the Passive voice in English.

7.   Enumerate and characterize other means of expressing voice-like distinctions in English.

Recommended Reading:

1. M.Y.Blokh. A Course in Theoretical Grammar. Ch.16, 17.
2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. С.93 – 109.
3. B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. Ch.11 -12.
4. И.П. Иванова и др. С.68- 80.
5. Л.С. Бархударов. Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка. С.129-136.

6. А.И.Смирницкий. Морфология английского языка. С. 257 -273; 341-357.

Practical Assignments:

I. State the form of the mood and its meaning in the following sentences:

1.   If it wasn't for my pipes I don't know how I should manage to keep on (E. Waugh).
2.   It would be worde than before if I should lose you now (G. Greene).
3.   Some of these stories, it is understood, are not to be passed on to my father, because they would upset him (M. Atwood).
4.   She had suggested that Abraham arrive precisely at one-thirty (I. Stone)
5.   If such men would only rule the world, I should have no conflicts to write about (J. le Carre).
6.   "So you went to catch a thief alone? What if there had been more than one? (L.S. Robinson).
7.   I went back to the room and thought," i might as well have told them both that I was going."...My lie would even ease his conscience (G. Greene).
8.   "I lied to you, Phuong. I have been ordered home" "But you won't go?" "If I refused what would we live on?" "I could come with you. I would like to see London" (G. Greene).
9.   I wished she would not always treat me as a child (D. du Maurier).
10.   No doubt life had many strange secrets. Perhaps it was essential that somebody should investigate them (Th. Dreiser).

II. Analyze the sentences and point out the factors that necessitated the use of the passive voice.

1. Dount count your chickens before they are hatched.
2. His wife was found in the grounds nearly half a mile from the house... No weapon was found near her. The crime seems to have been committed late in the evening and the body was found by a gate keeper about 11 o'clock (A. Conan Doyle).
3. Many sentences were pronounced in that darkened room and the prisoners often needed cheering (R. Kipling).
4. Hungry people are easily lead (K.Mansfield).

5. It is to be hoped that the President will respond to this in a positive way.
6. When it became known that he had made reservations for the entire Festival this year many eyebrows were raised (I.Shaw).
7. Many attempts have been made to find central or basic meanings for each modal that can explain their common and effortless use (F.Catamba).
8. The public was being lied to and knew it (D.Bolinger).
9. He was accompanied to the house by his wife, his son, his daughter and his servants.
10. Such a bahaviour is not accepted in our company.

III. Translate the sentences into English and compare the use of voice forms in English and in Russian.

1. На день рождения ей подарили чудное ожерелье из жемчуга.
2. Вас обслуживают?
3. В этом доме уже много лет никто не живет.
4. Наше собрание посетил представитель известной международной организации.
5. О его последней работе очень хорошо отзываются.
6. У вас хорошее пианино, но его нужно настроить.
7. После двух лет работы в компании его повысили в должности.
8. Как только он вышел из здания театра, его окружили многочисленные репортеры.

СЕМИНАРСКОЕ ЗАНЯТИЕ №7

Продолжительность занятия – 2 часа.

Тема: The Simple Sentence and Its Essential Features. The Parts of the Sentence. The Syntax of the Phrase

Discussion Points on the simple sentence:

1. Give the definition of syntax and its subject matter. Enumerate the sublevels of syntax and the main units of syntactic analysis.
2. Analyze various definitions of the simple sentence and decide on the most adequate one. Comment on the reasons for the controversy of opinions about the essence and the definition of the sentence.

3.   Speak about the category of predicativity. Differentiate between the primary and secondary predication, explicit and implicit predication.

4.   Characterize the category of modality. Differentiate between the primary (objective) and secondary (subjective) types of modality and speak about the means of expressing different types of modality. Speak about the specificity of modality across cultures and across genders.

5.   Point out the essential features of the category of negation. Characterize different types of negation: complete and partial, grammatical and lexical, explicit and implicit. Point out the specificity of expressing negation in English.

Recommended Reading:

1. Blokh M.Y. A Course in Theoretical English Grammar. Ch.21.
2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – С. 132 – 146.
3. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. С. 164-173.
4. Бархударов Л.С. Проблема предложения в трактовке различных грамматических направлений // Вопросы языкознания. 1976. №3.
5. Беляева Е.И. Принцип вежливости в речевом общении // Иностранные языки в школе. 1985. №2.
6. Lakoff. R. You are what you say // Tapestry. Global Views. Boston, Massachusetts, 1993.
7. Coates J. Gossip Revisited: Language in All-Female Groups// Language and Gender. Blackwell Publishers, 1998.

Exercises:

I. Analyze the following sentences and point out cases of secondary and implicit predication and comment on the ways of their expression. Translate the sentences into Russian.

1. I guessed her to be about twenty-two or three (J.Fowles).
2. She must now imagine herself to have been his first great influence and inspiration (E.George).
3. With rage and hatred in my heart I finished (E.George).
4. He sat with his coffee undrunk (G.Greene).

5. I had seen Mr. Kellada vehement and voluble before, but never so voluble and vehement (S. Maugham).
6. She kissed me for my silence (P.Taylor).
7. Mr Kellada stopped with his mouth open (S.Maugham).
8. I never saw you for a quitter (E. George).
9. With all their cleverness they had never mastered the secret of finding out what another human being was thinking (G. Orwell).
10. When once more alone, I reviewed the information (Ch. Bronte).
11. He likes his women thin (J. Susann).

II. Point out the means of expressing secondary modality in the sentences. Comment on the modal meanings of these means and their pragmatic value.

1. "It was an accident!" "It must have been" (J. Galsworthy).
2. I am afraid I'll have to ask you to leave (I.Shaw).
3. I suppose you wouldn't know whether the land about there was freehold? (J.Galsworthy).
4. Lynley appeared to consider his sergeant's words. "The telephone", he said reflectively. "What about it?" "The conversation Fleming had with Mollison. He may have mentioned his Kent plans to him." "If you are thinking a phone call's the key, then his family must have known where Fleming was going as well. He had to cancel the trip to Greece, didn't he? Or at least postpone it. He would have told them something. He had to have told them something since the son... what was his name?" "Jimmy". "Right. Since Jimmy didn't phone Mrs. Whitelaw on Wednesday when his dad failed to show. And if Jimmy knew why the trip was cancelled he may have told his mum. That would have been natural" (E. George).
5. Her husband was there. "I expect he'd like a cup of tea," he said. "Oh, I think it's rather late for tea, isn't it?" She looked at me gently, her mild, rather fine eyes full of kindness. "You don't want any tea, do you?" I was thirsty and hungry, for my lunch consisted only of a scone and butter and a cup of coffee, but I did not like to say so. I refused tea (S. Maugham).
6. "I don't think for a moment that you are in love with you husband. I think you dislike him. I should't be surprised if you hated him. But I'm quite sure that you're afraid of him (S.Maugham)
7. The poor things in Washington must not have slept for nights before deciding to gather me into their arms again (A. Miller).

III. Analyze the sentences and comment on the ways of expressing negation in them. Differentiate between the types of negation and its grammatical and pragmatic value.

1. I don't suppose she would like to be reminded of it (S.Maugham).
2. "Aren't you Dostor Page's new assistant?" "That's hardly the point", he answered stiffly (A.J. Cronin).
3. At that moment I did not entirely dislike Mr Kellada (S.Maugham).
4. He was too weak even to move a finger (K. Mansfield).
5. The Medici did not live in a world fuller of intrigue (S.Turow).
6. He was extremely considerate, he was very attentive ti her comfort; she never expressed the slightest wish without his hastening to gratify it (S. Maugham).
7. He hardly knew anyone here, did he? (E.Caldwell).
8. "You didn't kill the mule, did you, Jim" "I wasn't nowhere around. It just dropped dead". (E.Caldwell).
9. "I haven't a penny. We can't live on nothing" (G. Greene).
10. He must have failed to turn up in time (E.George).
11. He wasn't a man to idly chat, at least not with me (A. Miller).

Discussion Points on the syntax of a phrase:

1. Give the general outline of the problem of parts of the sentence. Characterize the relations of three levels: parts of speech, parts of the sentence and the semantic actants.

2. Give a detailed analysis of the parts of the sentence in English according to the following scheme: the role in the sentence, the forms of expression (the structural types), the semantic functions, the typological peculiarities.

3. Point out and characterize the borderline cases in the system of parts of the sentence.

Recommended Reading:

1. Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка.- С.186-207.

2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – С.169 – 188.

2. Ilyish B.A. The Structure of Modern English. – P. 198-230.

Discussion Points:

1. Give the definition of the phrase and outline the main problems in the theory of phrases. Point out the principal difference between the sentence and the phrase.

2. Give the essence of the various classifications of phrases. Dwell on the derivational approach to the classification of phrases.

3. Speak about the process of nominalization. Describe the functions of nominalization. Give proof in support of the opinion that English is a nominalizing language.

4. Characterize the grammatical means of expressing the syntactic relations between the components of the phrase.

Recommended Reading:

1. B.A.Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. pp. 171-181.

2. Козлова Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – С. 188 – 196.

Practical Assignments:

I. Classify the following phrases on the morphological principle: ready to faint, to be about to depart, chapter five, a five-story red-brick, loosely joined limbs, vaguely familiar, high above, welcome news, unwelcome news, to wear nothing but a strip of red cotton round their loins, at five sharp, no sign of stopping, red in the face, a literary eleven, that net of yours.

II. Classify the following phrases into primary and secondary: the Flying Dutchman, my dear Eddison, my old friend, an obvious lie, pure truth, mere nonsense, an enigmatic smile, a ghost of a smile.

III. Translate the sentences and comment on the difference between English and Russian in the sphere of nominalization:

1. The doctor made no answer.
2. On weekends they would do some shopping.
3. My husband is a forgetter. I am a rememberer.
4. He badly needed a bath and a shave.
5. There was a "Wet Paint" note on the bench which he did not notice.

III РАЗДЕЛ КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ

3.1 Вопросы для подготовки к экзамену

1. Morphology and syntax as parts of grammar.
2. Main units of grammar and types of relations between grammatical units in language and speech.
3. Main grammatical notions. Grammatical meaning and grammatical form. Grammatical categories.
4. Structure of words. Types of morphemes.
5. Means of form-building. Synthetic and analytical forms.
6. Noun. General characteristics. Classification.
7. The category of number.
8. The category of case.
9. The category of article determination.
10. Verb. The category of tense.
11. Verb. The category of aspect.
12. Pragmatic aspect of the sentence.
13. The category of posteriority.
14. The category of voice.
15. The category of mood.
16. The problem of the imperative mood.
17. The problem of Subjunctive I, II, conditional mood, suppositional mood.
18. The category of degrees of comparison.
19. Classification of adjectives, their functions in the sentence.
20. The definition of the adverb. Classification of adverbs. Means of adverb formation.
21. Phrase. Principles of classification of phrases and types of relations between its constituents.
22. Sentence as the main unit of syntax. Its functions. Three aspects of the sentence.
23. Predication. Secondary predication. Predicativity.
24. Principles of classification of sentences. Types of coordination.
25. Compound sentence.
26. Complex sentence.
27. Syntactic structure of the clause.

28.Model of sentence analysis. IC-model. Distributional model. Transformational model.

29.Functional Sentence Perspective (FSP).

 30. Units larger than a sentence.

3.2 Билеты для приема экзамена (образец)

BELARUSIAN STATE UNIVERSITY

(назва ВНУ)

Э к з а м е н а ц ы й н ы б і л е т № 1

Дысцыпліна : Теоретическая грамматика, **4 курс " СИЯ"**

Зімовая — экзаменацыйная сесія 2016 - 2017   навучальнага года
Вясновая

1. Grammar as part of language. Main units of Grammar and types of relations between grammatical units in language and speech

2. Units larger than a sentence. Means of sentence connection.

Загадчык кафедры _____ **Выкладчык** _____

Дата зацвярджэння _____

3.3 Образцы тестовых заданий

TEST №1

1. What is language?

2. The system of language is constituted by subsystems:

1) 2
2) 3
3) 4

3. Match the basic notions of grammar with their definitions:

1. Category	a) a general abstract notion (obligatory) which embraces classes of words (combines big groups of words)
2. Form	b) particular representation of grammatical meaning
3. Meaning	c) a combination of general meaning and its particular representation through the opposition of forms

4. Morphology studies … .
   1) the sounds of human speech
   2) the structure of sentences
   3) the structure of words

5. *Charming – charmed* is an example of:
   1) contrastive distribution
   2) non-contrastive distribution
   3) complementary distribution

6. What is a discontinuous morpheme?

7. The only category of nouns which is generally accepted is the category of … .
   1) number
   2) case
   3) gender
   4) aspect

8. How many cases are there in the English language? Name them.

9. Typical stem-building suffixes of the verb are:
   1) -able, -ous, -ful
   2) -ment, -hood, -tion
   3) -ify, -en, -ize

10. The category of aspect of the verb … .
   1) shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic constructions
   2) deals with the development of the action showing whether the action is taking into progress or without specification
   3) is the relation of the contents of the utterance to reality as viewed by the speaker

11. Adjectives do not combine with:
   1) nouns
   2) link verbs
   3) verbs
   4) modifying adverbs

12. Match the groups of adverbs with their examples:

1. Adverbs of unexpected degree	a) rather, relatively
2. Adverbs of approximate degree	b) a little, a bit
3. Adverbs of moderate degree	c) unbearably
4. Adverbs of inadequate degree	d) surprisingly, amazingly
5. Adverbs of low degree	e) almost, nearly

13. What is syntax?

14. Charles Fries worked out:
   1) distributional model
   2) IC-model
   3) transformational model

15. Give the definition of the term "sentence".

Answers:

1. Language is an abstract system of signs (meaningful units)
2. 2)
3. 1) – c); 2) – b); 3) – c)
4. 3)
5. 1)
6. the word morpheme "be" + the inflexion "ing"
7. 1)
8. 2; common and genitive (possessive)
9. 3)
10. 2)
11. 3)
12. 1) – d); 2) – e); 3) – a); 4) – c); 5) – b)
13. is a part of grammar which deals with sentences and combinations of words
14. 1)
15. is a unit of speech, a minimum free- utterance, its main function is to convey information, to express thoughts and feelings

TEST №2

1. Which part of speech denotes things and other entities presented as substances?
2. Nouns fall into several subclasses (according to their semantic and grammatical properties). Complete the missing subclasses:

   common - _____

   _____ _____ - abstract

   countable - _____

   animate - _____

   _____…_____ - impersonal (non-personal/non-human)
3. Complete this scheme:

Verb

Finite				**Non-finite**
Indicative	…	…	…	… Participle

4. Name grammatical categories of the verb. Give examples.
5. Which part of speech expresses property of a substance?
6. Which part of speech expresses either property of an action, property of another property, circumstances in which actions occur?
7. Complete this scheme:

Adverbs

…	**…**	**Circumstantial**
	…	**…**

8. *It* is the grammatical category of the verb, reflecting the relation of the action, denoted by the verb, to reality from the speaker's point of view. What is *it* about?
9. Fill in the missing words.

   The character of an action is expressed by 2 categories:

   -_____…_____(common – continuous)

   -_____…_____(perfect – non-perfect)
10. *This* verbal category shows the direction of the process as regards the participants of the situation reflected in the syntactic construction. In other words, *it* denotes the direction of an action as viewed by the speaker. Which verbal category was described?
11. How many noun cases there are in English language? Name them.

12. Fill in the missing words.
    Semantically verbs are divided into:
    a)_____…_____(possess full lexical meaning; they can make a
    sentence alone
    b)_____…_____(have very general "faded" lexical meaning;
    they are hardly isolatable)
13. Complete   the   scheme:

Verbs

…   **…**
(do imply time or space limits)   (do not imply any time or
                                              space limits)

14. Name 3 main divisions of time. Give examples.
15. Name 2 subclasses of an adjective. Give examples.

Answers:

1. **Noun**.
2. *common* - **proper**
   concrete - *abstract*
   countable - **uncountable**
   animate - **inanimate**
   personal (human) - *impersonal (non-personal/non-human)*
3.   *Verb*
          Finite   *Non-finite*
   Indicative **Subjunctive Imperative Infinitive Gerund** *Participle*
4. **Voice (asks – is asked)**
   Order (asks – has asked)
   Aspect (asks – is asking)
5. **Adjective**
6. **Adverb**
7.   *Adverbs*
       Qualitative   **Quantitative**   *Circumstantial*
                              of time   **of place**
8. **Mood**
9. **Aspect**
   Order

10. **The category of voice**
11. **Common and Genitive**
12. **Notional**
    Semi-notional
13. *Verbs*

terminative	**non-terminative**
(do imply time or space limits)	*(do not imply any time or space limits)*

14. **Present** (example)
    Past (example)
    Future (example)
15. **Qualitative** (example)
    Relative (example)

TEST №3

1. Syntax is …
   a) The part of grammar which deals with sentences and vocabulary;
   b) The part of grammar which studies paradigmatic relations of words;
   c) The part of grammar which deals with sentences and combinations of words;
   d) The part of lexicology which deals with sentences and combinations of words;
2. Phrase …
   a) Is a unit in which each component may undergo changes;
   b) has intonation;
   c) performs communicative function;
   d) is a unit with every word having its distinctive form;
3. Sentence …
   a) is the smallest unit of language;
   b) is the smallest unit of speech;
   c) is given ready-made in speech;
   d) performs only communicative function;
4. Predicativity …
   a) Is a subject-predicate group;

b) The correlation of the thoughts expressed in the sentence with a situation of speech;

c) can be primary and secondary;

d) is not expressed by intonation;

5. According to the … type of classification of sentences, they can be declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamatory.
   a) Structural;
   b) Composite;
   c) Communicative;
   d) Semantic;

6. "You bought that in London?" is
   a) Suggestive question;
   b) Alternative question;
   c) Exclamatory sentence;
   d) Disjunctive question;

7. "If you don't hurry, you'll be late". Define the type of coordination.
   a) Copulative;
   b) Disjunctive;
   c) Adversative;
   d) Causative- consecutive;

8. "He is rich yet he is miserable". Define the type of coordination.\
   a) Copulative;
   b) Disjunctive;
   c) Adversative;
   d) Causative- consecutive;

9. Compound sentence is …
   a) A sentence with two or more main clauses;
   b) A sentence with a main and one or more subordinate clauses;
   c) A sentence with one subject-predicate unit;
   d) A unit of discourse;

10. "When she was younger, she believed in fairy tales". It is …
    a) A simple sentence;
    b) Compound sentence;
    c) Complex sentence;
    d) Two-member simple sentence;

11. "To think of that!" is …
    a) Simple two-member verbal sentence;
    b) Simple one-member incomplete sentence;
    c) Simple one-member verbal sentence;
    d) Composite sentence;
12. "Cold winter." is …
    a) Simple two-member complete unextended sentence;
    b) Simple one-member nominal unexpended sentence;
    c) Simple one-member nominal extended sentence;
    d) Compound sentence;
13. "Free this evening?" is
    a) Simple one-member nominal extended sentence;
    b) Simple two-member elliptical sentence without a word form in the subject position and part of the predicate position;
    c) Simple two-member elliptical sentence without a word form in the subject position;
    d) Simple two-member elliptical sentence without a word form in part of the predicate position;
14. "I *am* a rich man - I *was* a rich man". Define the kind of distribution.
    a) Non-contrastive;
    b) Contrastive;
    c) Complimentary;
    d) Transformational;
15. "learned-learnt". Define the kind of distribution.
    a) Non-contrastive;
    b) Contrastive;
    c) Complimentary;
    d) Transformational;

Answers

1 – c, 2- a, 3 – b, 4 – b, 5 – c, 6 – a, 7 – b, 8 – c, 9 – a, 10 – c, 11 – c, 12 – c, 13 – b, 14 – b, 15 – a

3.4 Критерии оценки знаний и практических навыков

10	- систематизированные, глубокие и полные знания по всем разделам учебной программы, а также по основным вопросам, выходящих за ее пределы;
	- точное использование научной терминологии (в том числе на иностранном языке), стилистически грамотное, логически правильное изложение ответа на вопросы;
	- безупречное владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его эффективно использовать в постановке и решении научных и профессиональных задач;
	- выраженная способность самостоятельно и творчески решать сложные проблемы в нестандартной ситуации;
	- полное и глубокое усвоение основной и дополнительной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины;
	- умение ориентироваться в теориях, концепциях и направлениях по изучаемой дисциплине и давать им критическую оценку, использовать научные достижения других дисциплин;
	- творческая самостоятельная работа на практических, лабораторных занятиях, активное участие в групповых обсуждениях, высокий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
9	- систематизированные, глубокие и полные знания по всем разделам учебной программы;
	- точное использование научной терминологии (в том числе на иностранном языке), стилистически грамотное, логически правильное изложение ответа на вопросы;
	- владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его эффективно использовать в постановке и решении научных и профессиональных задач;
	- способность самостоятельно и творчески решать сложные проблемы в нестандартной ситуации в рамках учебной программы;
	- полное усвоение основной и дополнительной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины;
	- умение ориентироваться в основных теориях, концепциях и

	направлениях по изучаемой дисциплине и давать им критическую оценку; - самостоятельная работа на практических, лабораторных занятиях, творческое участие в групповых обсуждениях, высокий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
8	- систематизированные, глубокие и полные знания по всем поставленным вопросам в объеме учебной программы; - использование научной терминологии, стилистически грамотное и логически правильное изложение ответа на вопросы, умение делать обоснованные выводы; - владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его использовать в постановке и решении научных и профессиональных задач; - способность самостоятельно решать сложные проблемы в рамках учебной программы; - усвоение основной и дополнительной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины; - умение ориентироваться в основных теориях, концепциях и направлениях по изучаемой дисциплине и давать им критическую оценку с позиций государственной идеологии (по дисциплинам социально-гуманитарного цикла); - активная самостоятельная работа на практических, лабораторных занятиях, систематическое участие в групповых обсуждениях, высокий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
7	- систематизированные, глубокие и полные знания по всем разделам учебной программы; - использование научной терминологии (в том числе на иностранном языке), лингвистически и логически правильное изложение ответа на вопросы, умение делать обоснованные выводы; - владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его использовать в постановке и решении научных и профессиональных задач; - усвоение основной и дополнительной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины;

	- умение ориентироваться в основных теориях, концепциях и направлениях по изучаемой дисциплине и давать им критическую оценку; - самостоятельная работа на практических, лабораторных занятиях, участие в групповых обсуждениях, высокий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
6	- достаточно полные и систематизированные знания в объеме учебной программы; - грамотное, логически правильное изложение ответа на вопросы, умение делать обоснованные выводы; - владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его использовать в решении учебных и профессиональных задач; - способность самостоятельно применять типовые решения в рамках учебной программы; - усвоение основной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины; - умение ориентироваться в базовых теориях, концепциях и на-правлениях по изучаемой дисциплине и давать им сравнительную оценку: - активная самостоятельная работа на практических, лабораторных занятиях, периодическое участие в групповых обсуждениях, высокий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
5	- достаточные знания в объеме учебной программы; - использование научной терминологии, стилистически грамотное, логически правильное изложение ответа на вопросы, умение делать выводы; - владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его использовать в решении учебных и профессиональных задач; - способность самостоятельно применять типовые решения в рамках учебной программы; - усвоение основной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины; - умение ориентироваться в базовых теориях, концепциях и направлениях по изучаемой дисциплине и давать им сравнительную оценку;

	- самостоятельная работа на практических, лабораторных занятиях, участие в групповых обсуждениях, высокий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
4 (ЗАЧТЕНО)	- достаточный объем знаний в рамках образовательного стандарта; - усвоение основной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины; - использование научной терминологии, стилистическое и логическое изложение ответа на вопросы, умение делать выводы без существенных ошибок; - владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, умение его использовать в решении стандартных (типовых) задач; - умение под руководством преподавателя решать стандартные (типовые) задачи; - знание основных базовых теорий, концепций и направлений по изучаемой дисциплине и умение давать им оценку;
3 (НЕ ЗАЧТЕНО)	- недостаточно полный объем знаний в рамках образовательного стандарта; - знание части основной литературы, рекомендованной учебной программой дисциплины; - использование научной терминологии, изложение ответа на вопросы с существенными лингвистическими и логическими ошибками; - слабое владение инструментарием учебной дисциплины, некомпетентность в решении стандартных (типовых) задач; - неумение ориентироваться в основных теориях, концепциях и направлениях изучаемой дисциплины; - пассивность на практических и лабораторных занятиях, низкий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
2 (НЕ ЗАЧТЕНО)	- фрагментарные знания в рамках образовательного стандарта; - знания отдельных литературных источников, рекомендованных учебной программой дисциплины; - неумение использовать научную терминологию дисциплины, наличие в ответе грубых стилистических и логических ошибок;

	- пассивность на практических и лабораторных занятиях, низкий уровень культуры исполнения заданий.
1 (НЕ ЗАЧТЕНО)	- отсутствие знаний и компетенций в рамках образовательного стандарта или отказ от ответа.

% правильных ответов	% ошибочных ответов	оценка
96-100	4-0	10
91-95	9-5	9
86-90	14-10	8
81-85	19-15	7
76-80	24-20	6
71-75	29-25	5
66-70	34-30	4
71-65	39-35	3
Менее 60		2-1

IV ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

4.1 Учебная программа дисциплины

ТЕОРЕТИЧЕСКАЯ ГРАММАТИКА

**Учебная программа учреждения высшего образования
по учебной дисциплине для специальности:**

1-21 06 01   **Современные иностранные языки (по направлениям)**

направление специальности

1-21 06 01-01   **Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)**

2016 г.

Учебная программа составлена на основе ОСВО первой ступени специальности 1-21 06 01 «Современные иностранные языки (по направлениям)», утвержденного постановлением Министерства образования РБ от 30.08.2013 № 88, и учебного плана БГУ № D21-086/уч. 2013 г. по специальности 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)».

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РЕКОМЕНДОВАНА К УТВЕРЖДЕНИЮ:

Кафедрой компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики
(протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)
Научно-методическим советом БГУ
(протокол № 5 от 28.04.2016 г.)

ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Учебная программа по дисциплине «Теоретическая грамматика» предназначена для студентов 4-го курса факультета социокультурных коммуникаций БГУ специальности 1-21 06 01 «Современные иностранные языки» направление «Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)» и рассчитана на 7-й семестр обучения. На изучение учебной дисциплины «Теоретическая грамматика» отводится 100 часов, в том числе 34 аудиторных часа. Контроль представлен в форме экзамена.

Цель преподаваемой дисциплины заключается в формировании у студентов научно-теоретического представления о грамматическом строе современного английского языка как о системе, взаимосвязанной с другими языковыми уровнями и обладающей рядом специфических черт, которые обусловливают своеобразие языка. Она также предполагает ознакомление студентов с тенденциями развития английской грамматической системы, теоретическими проблемами грамматики, требующими научного решения, методами лингвистического анализа, применяемыми к области грамматики. Наряду с теоретической составляющей курса к целям дисциплины относится формирование современной полилингвальной личности, развитие навыков и умений эффективного использования грамматических средств в различных сферах и регистрах языкового общения.

Основные **задачи** курса:

• создание концептуально-терминологической базы в области грамматического строя языка;

• ознакомление с ведущими направлениями грамматических исследований, основными грамматическими концепциями;

• изучение особенностей английской морфологии и синтаксиса в их современном состоянии;

• формирование теоретических и практических знаний в области понимания и объяснения проблемных вопросов грамматики;

• формирование умения работать с научной литературой;

• формирование устойчивых навыков самостоятельной постановки исследовательских задач и их решения в рамках грамотного грамматического анализа конкретного языкового материала;

- формирование навыков практического применения грамматических средств языка для передачи знаний с целью достижения определенных коммуникативных задач.

Задачи изучения дисциплины:

- В результате изучения дисциплины формируются следующие компетенции:
- *Социокультурная компетенция* – степень знакомства с социально-культурным контекстом функционирования речи.
- *Социолингвистическая компетенция* – способность использовать языковые единицы в соответствии с ситуацией общения, принимая во внимание особенности речевого поведения, обусловленные культурными традициями стран изучаемого языка.
- *Дискурсивная компетенция* – способность связно воспринимать и порождать отдельные высказывания в рамках коммуникативно-значимых речевых образований.
- *Общенаучная компетенция* – овладение навыками научно-исследовательской работы в лингвистике; овладение методами и методиками поиска, анализа и обработки языковых данных; овладение основами современной информационной библиографической культуры;
- *Научно-методическая компетенция* – овладение методикой изучения материалов в области теоретической грамматики и их практического применения в профессиональной деятельности.

Курс «Теоретическая грамматика» является логическим продолжением освоения студентами грамматической системы английского языка, которое начинается на первом курсе в рамках формирования лингвистической компетенции в области практической грамматики. Курс теоретической грамматики находится в непосредственной тесной связи с такими лингвистическими дисциплинами, как «Введение в языкознание», «История английского языка», «Стилистика английского языка», «Теория перевода». Успешное овладение курсом является частью профессиональной подготовки квалифицированного специалиста.

Теоретический материал строится с учетом единого системного подхода к изучению морфологии и синтаксиса в структуре грамматики и их роли в речеобразовании. При этом особое внимание уделяется рассмотрению грамматической семантики во всех разделах курса, что соответствует

современному подходу к языку в целом.

В результате изучения дисциплины студенты должны **знать**: терминологический аппарат; идентифицирующие особенности грамматической системы изучаемого языка; способы формообразования и типы морфем; методы и процедуры грамматического анализа; грамматические категории частей речи; типы словосочетаний и типы синтаксических связей в них; принципы классификаций предложений и их синтаксическое оформление; способы синтаксической организации текста.

уметь: различать грамматическое и лексическое значения и способы их выражения; идентифицировать частеречную отнесенность слова; выделять и анализировать грамматические категории; определять типы синтаксических отношений; проводить самостоятельный грамматический анализ языковых явлений.

владеть: приемами и методами грамматического анализа; навыками реферирования научной литературы по вопросам грамматики; основными методами лингвистических исследований в области теоретической грамматики.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

1. Грамматика как часть лингвистической системы. Теоретическая и нормативная грамматика. Понятие грамматической системы языка. Базисные понятия лингвистики и теоретическая грамматика. Grammar as part of language. Grammar as a linguistic discipline.
2. Язык и речь, парадигматика и синтагматика. Система и структура языка. Parts of grammar. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of grammatical units.
3. Грамматическое значение, форма. Grammatical meaning, grammatical form.
4. Грамматическая категория. Grammatical category.
5. Способы (типы) формообразования в современном английском языке. The structure of words. Means of form-building.
6. Теория классов слов. Критерии выделения классов слов. Система частей речи в современном английском языке. Знаменательные и служебные части речи. Parts of speech. Principles of classification. Notional and functional parts of speech.
7. Существительное как часть речи. Категории существительного. Категория числа. Проблема падежа. Noun. Classification of nouns. The category of number. Case.
8. Глагол. Классификация глаголов. Категория времени как базисная категория. Категории вида, залога, наклонения и их специфика в современном английском языке.Verb. Classification of verbs. Categories of tense, aspect, voice, mood.
9. Синтаксис. Основные единицы синтаксического уровня: словосочетание, предложение. Их типы. Syntax. Sentence. Phrase. Types of phrases, sentences.
10. Семантическая и синтаксическая структура предложения. Semantic and syntactic structure of sentence.
11. Предикативность, предикация. Predicativity. Predication.
12. Методы грамматического анализа предложений. Models of sentence analysis. IC-model, the distributional model, the transformational model.
13. Актуальное членение предложения. Тема и рема как компоненты актуального членения.Functional sentence perspective.

14. Парадигматические и синтагматические связи. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in a sentence.
15. Текст как лингвистическое понятие. Основные принципы построения связного текста. Языковые способы выражения связности в английском языке. Units larger than a sentence. Text. Means of sentence connection.

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

Номер раздела, темы, занятия	Название раздела, темы, занятия; перечень изучаемых вопросов	Количество аудиторных часов				Количество часов УСР	Формы контроля знаний	Литература
		Лекции	Практические (семинарские) занятия	Лабораторные занятия	Иное			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Грамматика как часть лингвистической системы. Теоретическая и нормативная грамматика. Понятие грамматической системы языка. Базисные понятия лингвистики и теоретическая грамматика. Grammar as part of language. Grammar as a linguistic discipline.	2	2				Тест	1-7
2	Язык и речь, парадигматика и синтагматика. Система и структура языка. Parts of grammar. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of grammatical units.	2	2				Тест	1-7
3	Грамматическое значение, форма, категория.Grammatical meaning, grammatical form. Grammatical category.	2	2				Тест	1-7

4	Способы (типы) формообразования в современном английском языке. The structure of words. Means of form-building.	2						1-7
5	Теория классов слов. Критерии выделения классов слов. Система частей речи в современном английском языке. Знаменательные и служебные части речи. Parts of speech. Principles of classification. Notional and functional parts of speech.	2					Тест	1-7
6	Существительное как часть речи. Категории существительного. Категория числа. Проблема падежа. Noun. Classification of nouns. The category of number. Case.	2	2				Тест	1-7
7	Глагол. Классификация глаголов. Категория времени как базисная категория. Категории вида, залога, наклонения и их специфика в современном английском языке.Verb. Classification of verbs. Categories of tense, aspect, order, voice, mood.	2	2				Тест	1-7
8	Синтаксис. Основные единицы синтаксического уровня: словосочетание, предложение. Их типы. Семантическая и синтаксическая структура предложения. Предикативность, предикация. Syntax. Sentence. Phrase. Types of phrases, sentences. Semantic and syntactic structure of	2	2					1-7

	sentence. Predicativity. Predication.							
9	Методы грамматического анализа предложений. Models of sentence analysis. IC-model, the distributional model, the transformational model.	2						1-7
10	Актуальное членение предложения. Тема и рема как компоненты актуального членения. Парадигматические и синтагматические связи. Текст как лингвистическое понятие. Основные принципы построения связного текста. Языковые способы выражения связности в английском языке. Functional sentence perspective. Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations in a sentence. Units larger than a sentence. Means of sentence connection.	2	2					1-7
	Total:	20	14					
	Всего аудиторных по дисциплине:	34						

ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ ЧАСТЬ

Перечень вопросов к экзамену:

1. Предмет, цели и задачи теоретической грамматики английского языка.
2. Объект и задачи морфологии. Ее основные понятия.
3. Грамматический строй английского языка. Особенности структуры английского языка.
4. Проблемы классификации слов. Части речи как классы слов. Критерии выделения частей речи.
5. Имя существительное как часть речи. Общая характеристика. Семантические подклассы существительных. Грамматические категории существительных.
6. Категория числа существительного.
7. Категория падежа. Проблема падежа.
8. Категория детерминации. Основные значения и функции артиклей.
9. Глагол как часть речи. Общая характеристика. Семантико-категориальная классификация глаголов. Семантические подклассы глаголов. Грамматические категории.
10. Видовременная система глагола и ее соотносимость с лексико-грамматическими подклассами глаголов.
11. Категория залога. Проблема залога.
12. Категория наклонения. Проблема сослагательного наклонения в английском языке.
13. Прилагательное как часть речи. Общая характеристика. Подклассы прилагательных. Субстантивация прилагательных.
14. Местоимение как часть речи. Типология.
15. Объект и задачи синтаксиса. Типы синтаксической связи и синтаксические единицы. Предложение как синтаксическая и коммуникативная категория.
16. Словосочетание. Основные признаки. Типы. Виды.
17. Предикативные словосочетания (синтаксические комплексы).
18. Порядок слов. Его роль и функции. Инверсия и перемещение.
19. Простое предложение. Члены предложения.
20. Системная типология членов простого предложения. Категория подлежащего, сказуемого, дополнения, обстоятельства, определения, приложения.

21. Сложные предложения, типы, способы связи их частей. Особенности английского сложного предложения.
22. Текст как грамматическая единица. Текст и дискурс. Актуальное членение текста.
23. Средства, обеспечивающие связность текста. Текстообразующие элементы (предлоги, союзы, порядок слов, артикли, перфектные формы).

Перечень заданий для самостоятельной работы:
Test

1.Structural analysis:

    1) Oh! I'm sorry.

    2) We proved him guilty.

    3) Silence.

    4) Right again.

    5) An old park.

2. Communicative types:

    1) Can you speak Spanish?

    2) Is that girl a friend of yours?

    3) I wonder why he is unhappy.

    4) Very early morning.

    5) Would you prefer tea or coffee?

    6) You really want to go now, to-night?

    7) Who do you see there?

    8) You are familiar with the town?

    9) Do we always act as we ought to?

    10) Don't worry

    11) Hurry up!

    12) What a terrible noise!

3. Define the form of the Mood:

    1) If only we could have stopped him!

    2) I would like to see this film.

    3) And what if they should stay?

    4) I'd rather you hadn't told everyone about it.

    5) Be yours a happy journey

4 Make a distributional analysis of the following sentences:

    1) The old man saw a black dog there.

    2) I promised him to come.

    3) Flying planes may be dangerous.

*5. Give the examples of the following types of **kernel sentences**:*

    1) NVN

    2) N is N

    3) N is Adv

    4) N is Prep N

Примерные темы докладов и рефератов:

1) Предмет и проблематика современного синтаксиса.
2) Предикаты состояния в современном английском языке.
3) Статус категории модальности на уровне текста.
4) Прагматическая маркированность синтаксических структур.
5) Артикль как смыслообразующий оператор в английском языке.

Перечень основной литературы:

1. *Бархударов Л.С.* Очерки по морфологии современного английского языка. – М.,1975.
2. *Бархударов Л.С., Штелинг Д.А.* Грамматика английского языка. – М., 1973.
3. *Бархударов Л.С.* Структура простого предложения современного английского языка. – М., 1966
4. *Блох М.Я.* Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М., 1983, 1994, 2004
5. *Иванова И.П., Бурлакова В.В., Почепцов Г.Г.* Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка. – М., 1981.
6. Козлова, Л.А. Теоретическая грамматика английского языка / Л.А. Козлова. - Барнаул: БГПУ, 2005. – 247 с.
7. *Москальская О.И.* Грамматика текста. – М., 1981.
8. *Ilyish B.A.* The Structure of Modern English. – L., 1971.

Перечень дополнительной литературы:

1. *Гуревич В.В.* Теоретическая грамматика английского языка. – М.: Флинта, 2003.
2. Кобрина, Н.А. Теоретическая грамматика современного английского языка / Н.А. Кобрина, Н.Н. Болдырев, А.А. Худяков. - М.: Высшая школа, 2001.- 496 с.
3. *Слюсарева Н.А.* Проблемы функциональной морфологии современного английского языка. – М., 1986.
4. *Khaimovich B.S., Rogovskaya B.I.* A Course in English Grammar. – М., 1967.

ПРОТОКОЛ СОГЛАСОВАНИЯ УЧЕБНОЙ ПРОГРАММЫ УВО

Название дисциплины, с которой требуется согласование	Название кафедры	Предложения об изменениях в содержании учебной программы учреждения высшего образования по учебной дисциплине	Решение, принятое кафедрой, разработавшей учебную программу (с указанием даты и номера протокола)
1. Практическая грамматика	Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики	нет	Рассмотрена и рекомендована к утверждению на заседании кафедры компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)
2. Функциональная грамматика	Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики	нет	Рассмотрена и рекомендована к утверждению на заседании кафедры компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)
3. Введение в языкознание	Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики	нет	Рассмотрена и рекомендована к утверждению на заседании кафедры

			компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)
4. История английского языка	Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики	нет	Рассмотрена и рекомендована к утверждению на заседании кафедры компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)
5. Стилистика английского языка	Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики	нет	Рассмотрена и рекомендована к утверждению на заседании кафедры компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)
6. Теория перевода	Кафедра компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики	нет	Рассмотрена и рекомендована к утверждению на заседании кафедры компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)

ДОПОЛНЕНИЯ И ИЗМЕНЕНИЯ К УЧЕБНОЙ ПРОГРАММЕ УВО
на **2016 / 2017** учебный год

№ п/п	Дополнения и изменения	Основание

Учебная программа пересмотрена и одобрена на заседании кафедры компьютерной лингвистики и лингводидактики (протокол № 9 от 13.04.2016 г.)

Заведующий кафедрой
Кандидат педагогических наук _____ О.Г.Прохоренко

УТВЕРЖДАЮ
Декан факультета _____ В.Е.Гурский